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The Border Pedagogy Initiative: The Promise of Educational Success in the Border Region

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction of the requirements for the degree Doctor of Education in

Educational Leadership

by

Gilberto D. Barrios

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Professor Carolyn Huie Hofstetter

2011
The Dissertation of Gilberto D. Barrios is approved, and it is acceptable in quality and form for publication on microfilm and electronically:

Chair

University of California, San Diego
California State University, San Marcos
2011
DEDICATION

To my wife Pilar, who through her love, support, and constant encouragement to always do my best, helped me maintain my focus on the final goal when I was down and ready to quit. She has always been the light who has kept me on the right path.

To my children, Mandy and Michael, who provided the encouragement to keep on going and sacrificed our family time to allow me to get my schoolwork done.

To my parents, sisters in law Rita, Raquel, Marina, Carmen, who have always have been my cheerleaders, and especially Conchita who not only was a cheerleader, but also helped me to transcribe the interviews for my study. My family reminded me about the value of persistence and excellence though their words and actions.

To my friend Lee Keyser who helped me with his constant phone calls, and words of encouragement as well as wisdom at the right time when I needed them.

To all those individual persons with whom I have come into contact throughout my life and provided me with words of encouragement to always move forward, I extend my heartfelt gratitude.
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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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VITA

EDUCATION
University of California, San Diego & Doctorate in Educational Leadership, California State University San Marcos Emphasis in Educational Leadership 2011
California State University San Marcos Master of Education, Emphasis in Multicultural and Multilingual 1995
California State University San Marcos Bachelor of Arts-Liberal Studies / Spanish 1995

PROFESSIONAL CREDENTIALS / CERTIFICATIONS
California Administrative Services Credential, Certificate of Eligibility
California State Multiple Subject Teaching Credential
Cultural and Language Development Assessment

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATOR EXPERIENCE
Resource Teacher for English Language Learners / ELD Teacher
Vista Unified School District Vista, CA July 2008 -- Present

Provide support and guidance in the areas of the English Language Development Program for the District in terms of compliance, assessment, placement, data analysis, student intervention, and parent involvement. Support strategic intervention and extended learning for the core curriculum in English language arts for English Learners. Work closely with the site administrator to complete district required EL program accountability reports and serve as key support to the principal during all state and federal categorical program monitoring (CPM) visitations. Coordinate CELDT testing during the test window for newcomers, reclassification of English Learners, and monitor progress of reclassified students for three years.

BTSA Provider

Provided assistant to four beginning teachers according to the California State Department of Education BTSA (Beginning Teacher Support and Assessment) Program guidelines. These teachers were in the first and second
years of their teaching.

**ADMINISTRATIVE EXPERIENCES**

Vista Unified School District  
Vista, CA  
1997 -- 2008

Principal’s Designee. Hannalei Elementary, Grapevine Elementary. Responsibilities were to oversee the smooth running of the school by attending to any situation that arose such as discipline, substitute teacher decisions, staff concerns, IEP (Individual Educational Plans) for special education students and SST (Student Study Teams) meetings, parent communication and/or other concerns during the absence of the site administrator.

Active Assistant Principal. Crestview Elementary, Monte Vista Elementary. I substituted for the Assistant Principal in those schools. I was responsible for discipline, substitute decisions, staff concerns, IEP and SST meetings, parent communication and/or other concerns.

**Classroom Teaching**

Vista Unified School District  
Vista, CA

**Rancho Minerva Middle School.** English Language Development Levels 4 and 5, grades sixth through eighth.  
2008 -- Present

**Hannalei Elementary School.** Second-third grades combination; First grade. Spanish Component in a teaming setting. ELD/SSL instruction. Summer School, GATE Academies in Science.  
2003 -- 2008

**Foothill Elementary School.** Summer School first and fourth grades.  
2006 --2007

**Grapevine Elementary School,** Green Track. Third/Fourth combination, Second/Third combination grades, Second grade, 1/2-combination grades, first grade. Spanish Component in a teaming setting. ELD/SSL (English Language development/Spanish as a Second Language) instruction. Intercession academies for students scoring below basic and far below basic as determined by the State of California’s Standards Test (CST).  
1996 -- 2003

Escondido Union School District  
Escondido, CA

**Felicita School,** Escondido, California. Self-contained K-1 combination
class. Language Arts in primary language (Spanish), regrouping with first
grade, and kindergarten bilingual class (Afternoon). Organized Family Math,
Science and Beyond Nights for Kindergarten parents.

1995 – 1996

Publications

Both Sides of the Border. Hispanic Outlook.

PROFESSIONAL ENHANCEMENT

Presenter

Conferencia de la California Association of Bilingual Educators (CABE) Two
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Barrios, G and Veyna, M. A Tale of Two Systems: Exploring Literacy
Standards From Both Sides of the Border Un Relato de Dos Sistemas:
Explorando estándares de lenguaje en ambos lados de la frontera.
July, 2008

The Center for the Study of Border Pedagogy & El Sistema Educativo Estatal
de Baja California, San Marcos, CSUSM, CA.
Barrios, G and Garza, E. A Tale of Two Systems: Exploring Literacy
Standards From Both Sides of the Border Un Relato de Dos Sistemas:
Explorando estándares de lenguaje en ambos lados de la frontera.
2007

California State University San Marcos, CA
Necochea, J. and Barrios, G. Student Seminar, Border Pedagogy
Pedagogía Fronteriza, educación sin fronteras.
2007

The Center for the Study of Border Pedagogy & El Sistema Educativo Estatal
de Baja California, Farr Elementary, Escondido, CSUSM, CA
Garza, E. and Barrios, G. Biliteracy: la ola del futuro, 3rd Annual
Border Pedagogy Binacional-Biliteracy Conference.
2006

The Center for the Study of Border Pedagogy & El Sistema Educativo Estatal
de Baja California, San Marcos, CSUSM, CA.
Garza, E. and Barrios, G. Yes we can! ¡Sí se puede!.
2006

EDUCATIONAL AND PROFESSIONAL HONORS

Dean’s Award College of Education, CSUSM 2011
Parents Teachers Association “Honorary Service Award” 2006
San Diego County Office of Education “Leadership in Biliteracy” 2003
CSU San Marcos, Latino Association of Faculty and Staff, M.E.Ch.A.
“Chicano/ Latino Graduation Ceremony” 1999

FOREIGN LANGUAGE SKILLS

*Spanish*
Fluent in academic and social Spanish in all domains (reading, writing, comprehension, and speaking).

PROFESSIONAL AFFILIATIONS

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CSU SAN MARCOS Alumni
Leadership 2000
ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

The Border Pedagogy Initiative: The Promise of Educational Success in the Border Region

by

Gilberto D. Barrios

Doctor of Education in Educational Leadership

University of California, San Diego, 2011
California State University, San Marcos, 2011

Professor Alice Quirocho, Chair

This case study explored how teachers who practice in the border region of San Diego and Tijuana implemented the professional development skills modeled for them in the Border Pedagogy Institute. Participants in this study educated Transnational Latino Immigrant students (TLI) on both sides of the border. An analysis of interviews of educators from both sides of the US/Mexican border revealed the transformation of
educators and their practice influenced by professional development shaped by critical pedagogy applied to the border region, Border Pedagogy. A unique forum to address common educational issues related to educating borderland students, Border Pedagogy events provided teachers with multiple opportunities to converse about issues related to educating TLI students. Results of this case study highlighted differences and similarities in the systems on either side of the border, the unique needs of TLI students, concerns about standardized testing in a second language, sensitivity to the culture of students, the importance of using primary language support, and the value of face to face conversations to build relationships between teachers on both sides of the border. Mutual respect and understanding of each other’s work was developed, cross border teaching and implementation of the modeled strategies occurred, and a commitment was made by participants to change current instructional practice to better serve TLI students.

This study also created additional questions that could serve as the focus of future studies in the borderlands between Mexico and the United States, specifically in the Tijuana/ San Diego region.
CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Education in the border region between Mexico and the United States exists in a unique historical, political, and socio-cultural context. The border region has its own cultural and social environment formed by the blending of Mexican and American cultures, the Spanish and English languages, their interdependent economies and immigration issues. The borderlands consist of forty-nine counties in the United States of America and thirty-six municipalities in Mexico. The region extends from San Diego, California to Brownsville, Texas in the United States of America and includes Tijuana, Baja California, Matamoros, and Tamaulipas on the Mexican side of the border (Martinez, 1994). Much of the research conducted in the border regions has focused on the economic relationship between the two nations and given rise to international agreements such as the NAFTA-North American Free Trade Agreement (Fuentes, 1997; Rouk, 1993; Taylor, 2001). The following studies show that the Tijuana /San Diego border region has experienced the most movement of goods and services than any other border in the world (Martinez, 1994; Reyes and Garza, 2005; Suarez-Orozco, 2001). Therefore, this region has been described as both important and economically lucrative.

Statement of the Problem

This paper explores how educators who experienced the educational issues that affect the border and actively participated in the Border Pedagogy Initiative worked to transform educational practices for teaching Latino immigrant and transnational students learning English, also known as English Language Learners (ELLs). Transnational
students come to the United States as immigrants and often go back to Mexico where they are taught in Spanish. Latino and immigrant students come to this country with their families to seek better living conditions. They are the forgotten population in the open trade agreement and find themselves caught between two educational systems that have limited knowledge of how each operates.

Rationale for the Study

Historically, Latinos have fought for their rights in the American school system, and their struggle for social justice and equity continues to this day. Their struggles include issues such as equal access to the core curriculum and the appropriate support needed to master the content of the core curriculum. Latinos have also fought to win respect for their language as a legitimate vehicle to mediate learning the content of the core curriculum and acquiring English as a second language. The academic achievement gap for ELL’s is widening when compared to the English only population. Therefore, a social justice curriculum and equity of access to the core curriculum is imperative in border region schools for Latino immigrant students. Struggling immigrant students throughout the nation have been supported by the implementation of the philosophy and pedagogical beliefs of critical pedagogy. This dissertation explores a regional pedagogical project that was designed based on the beliefs of critical pedagogy and implemented to support transnational students. This dissertation explores the Border Pedagogy Initiative and its roots in Border Pedagogy and critical pedagogy.

Critical Pedagogy
Critical pedagogy is a theoretical approach, that informs the work of transforming classroom teaching, the production of student knowledge, the institutional structures of the school, and the social and material relations of the wider community, society, and nation-state (McLaren, 1999). Critical pedagogy is rooted in the work of Paulo Freire (1970/1977). Peter McLaren (1999) states that Paulo Freire is “generally considered the inaugural philosopher of critical pedagogy” (p. 49). Freire’s own life experiences with poverty during his childhood, his professional experiences as a teacher, and his research as a scholar caused him to develop a passion for education as a means of empowering others (Gadotti, 1994). It was Freire who posited that all people read the world before they read any written words. Therefore, to Freire (1970/1977), the experiences of people of poverty are valuable experiences that shape the understanding of their own environments. These experiences that shape their learning inextricably bind the people to their cultures and languages.

Peter L. McLaren, Henry A. Giroux and others have written, theorized, implemented, and practiced critical pedagogy in their studies of education and other disciplines (McLaren, 1999). Giroux and McLaren expanded Freire’s critical pedagogy and used it as a theoretical framework for critiquing education and exposing the political realities that minority groups experience in their education. These researchers exposed the barriers, or “borders”, that minority students must overcome to access the benefits of education in the United States as well as in their native lands. Their interpretations of schooling have called into question the policies and practices of works in which schooling has historically dehumanized and disempowered minorities, leading to a
consistent widening of the achievement gap over time. Giroux (1982, 2004) explored the empowerment of teachers and students to create change grounded in historical studies from diverse cultures and different countries. Change, according to Giroux (1982), occurs when there is a relationship between teachers and students in an environment in which they construct knowledge instead of being empty vessels that serve as recipients of knowledge. Therefore, learning occurs in a space and place where “the social construction is tied to the interests perceptions, and experiences of those who produced and negotiated their meaning” (p. 93).

Critical pedagogy is applicable to interpreting the educational experiences and performance of ELLs and Spanish language learners (SLLs). The work of the Border Pedagogy Initiative addressed the political inequalities that have been institutionalized and reproduced in American schools for generations of Latino students. Using critical pedagogy as an organizing construct, one can theorize how implementing that philosophy in educational pedagogy can transform schooling to make it equitable for ELLs and Latinos. Key to the critical pedagogy interpretation of equity in education is the notion of empowerment. Empowerment for Latino ELLs occurs when meaning is co-created by the learner and the teacher is engaged in relevant curriculum. By its very nature, critical pedagogy challenges the use of a traditional “banking” model with minority students when knowledge is perceived as something to be deposited and not co-created. Because immigrant, transnational students are not a monolith, it is logical that schools in a specific border region understand who their students are in order to engage in educational practices that truly focus on the co-creation of meaning where the culture and experiences
of students are central to the learning process, and materials used are culturally relevant and developmentally appropriate.

**Historical Background of the Border Pedagogy Initiative**

The dynamic economics in the border region go hand in hand with the movement of people from both nations, back and forth across the border. Families with children constitute a large percentage of this mobile population and create enormous implications for borderland schools. In spite of the impact of mobility on schools along the border, little research has focused on shared educational concerns by the school systems on both sides of the border. Transnational students may move between school systems on a daily or seasonal basis, experiencing two different educational systems. Educators frequently have little knowledge of the schooling systems from which their transnational students come. For example, the states are responsible for the education of their students in the United States, while in Mexico the federal government has the responsibility for the development of educational programs.

Programmatic differences become significant because the organization of a system, whether centralized or decentralized, has a direct effect on educational policies and procedures. In the United States, state laws are influenced by the federal government and provide a compulsory education program for all students to the age of eighteen.

In Mexico federal laws make it compulsory for students to attend school to the age of fifteen, thus creating a conflict for academic advancement between the systems. Students in the United States move from grade level to grade level freely because
advancement usually occurs automatically unless specifically requested by the teacher, school and/or parent. In Mexico, students must take admission tests to be accepted to the next grade level.

The differences between the systems create problems for students when they want to transfer from one system to the other or receive credit for their schooling in the United States when they return to Mexico. The same dilemma occurs when students transfer to and attend schools in the United States. Thus, movement across the border creates a need for closer communicative contact between the two systems. Given these conditions, it became important that an organized project based on sound research that would be applicable to transnational students be developed. Therefore, the Border Pedagogy Initiative was created.

**Social Justice and Equity Issues affecting Borderland Students**

Social justice and equity issues have plagued the educational experience of Latino immigrant students in U.S. schools for over 150 years (Valencia, 2002). In a country that owes its growth and development to immigrants, Latinos have been segregated and denied equal opportunities for learning. The use of their language as a respected, legitimate means of learning has been forbidden. The inequity and social injustices toward Latino immigrant students have historically been a practice since the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo in 1848. Even when Latinos have earned citizenship status (p.70), Valencia notes that, “historically, Mexican American children have been subjected to institutional discrimination by being placed in segregated schools in order to prevent them from attending school with White students.” Institutionalized schooling, described
as a “racial/ethnic isolation process to deny equal education opportunities” (Valencia, Menchaca, & Donato, 2002 p.69) and discrimination were seen mainly in the South Western states of the United States where the majority of Mexican American students lived.

Issues of social justice and equity for Latino immigrant and transnational students are often exacerbated by language differences and perceived as negative by White populations. The maintenance of the Spanish language in the Latino community has been misunderstood by Whites and considered to be the cause of the supposed failure of immigrants to assimilate into American society. White prejudices against the Spanish language supported the segregation of Latino students and perpetuated the stereotypical views of Mexicans as “irresponsible, dependent on others, dirty, stupid, lawless, and spreaders of disease, thus unsuited to attend schools with Anglo students” (Donnat, 1997 as cited by Halcón, 2001, p. 67). Such perceptions have affected student attitudes and achievement over time. There is a need for a different approach to teaching transnational students. That approach lies in critical pedagogy, and locally in the Border Pedagogy Initiative.

**Purpose of the Study and Research Questions**

**Purpose**

The purpose of this study was to gain a deeper understanding of the ways in which teachers have used the training received in the Border Pedagogy Initiative to transform their classroom practices to support the academic success of English learners and Spanish learners in their classrooms.
Research Questions

In what ways do educators who have received professional development through the Border Pedagogy Project transform their educational practices in the classroom?

In what ways have the practices modeled in the Border Pedagogy Project help transform current educational experiences for Latino immigrant and transnational students learning English and/or Spanish in the classroom?

Overview of the Methods

Interviews of participants, two at a time, were the main method of collecting data to inform the implementation of strategies developed and modeled in the Border Pedagogy seminars, institutes, and face-to-face workshops. The interviews were coded into constructs to reveal common themes that informed the researcher about how teachers who attended various Border Pedagogy activities changed their instructional strategies to insure the success of their students based on observations and records of student progress.

Significance of the Study

The Border Pedagogy Initiative was developed with the express purpose of filling the void of educational research in the borderlands by conducting research based on the actual experiences and knowledge of educators in borderland schools. The Border Pedagogy Initiative can be seen as an example of what can be done to provide a friendly “safe zone” and bring a combination of congenial and collegial cultures of educators and community leaders together to engage educators in conversations about their respective systems and share ideas to determine what can be done to better educate border region students.
**Definition of Terms**

For the purposes of this paper, the terms:

Transnational Latino immigrant student (TLI) will be used to refer to immigrants in California of Latin American origin including Mexico.

Borderland is used to refer to the land regions between the United States and Mexico.

Border crossers are students who attend schools in the United States and return to Mexico on a daily, seasonal or yearly basis.

Border crossing is the physical activity of moving from one side of the border to the other side as determined by a physical line.

Border Pedagogy Initiative “is a complex and interactive set of curriculum, instructional practices, and knowledge base that educators need to incorporate in order to be successful with diverse students in the borderlands” (Cline and Necochea, 2003, p. 48).

Border Pedagogy means the “development of a democratic public philosophy that respects the notions of difference as a part of the common struggle to extend the quality of life” (Giroux, 1992, p 28).

Critical Pedagogy informs the work of transforming relationships among classroom teaching, the production of student knowledge, the institutional structures of the school, and the social and material relations of the wider community, society, and nation-state (McLaren, 1999).
English language learner (ELL) is a student who is learning and developing English language skills.

Spanish language learner (SLL) is a student who is learning and developing Spanish language skills.

Border is a barrier that prevents an individual from moving freely. It can be a:

Physical border refers to a border with physical barriers that prevent people from moving freely between two places.

Metaphorical border is an imaginary border created by a culture and/or individual when he/she interacts with individuals and cultures other than his own.

**Organization of the Study**

This chapter presented an overview of the study purpose, research questions, general methodology, and significance of the study. Chapter 2 presents a summary of key literature relevant to this study. It is organized into the following sections: a) historical background of Border Pedagogy; b) policy affecting immigrant and ELL education; c) social justice equity issues (Valencia, 2002; Halcón, 2001; Giroux, 1988, 1991; Dlamini, 2000; Cook, 2000); d) the border pedagogy approach (Necochea & Cline, 1999, 2003; Valadez & Elsbree, 2005; Quirocho, Dantas, Masur, Santamaria, Halcón, & von Son, 2003); and e) teacher knowledge and skills (Necochea & Cline, 1999, 2003; Reyes & Garza, 2005).
This study draws on Critical Pedagogy as a conceptual framework that is the foundation of border pedagogy as defined by the Giroux and McLaren studies. These data helped develop the Border Pedagogy Project and the border pedagogy conceptual model.

Chapter 3 presents the methodology used to collect data through demographic questionnaires, which provided data about each participant in terms of their participation in BP, their experiences as educators, their primary language, and their knowledge of English/Spanish depending on the side of the border that they taught. Additional data was collected through paired interviews that informed this study about the experiences of participants with BP, participants’ implementation of the strategies learned in BP seminars and how they changed and adapted their curriculum and instruction for TLI students. Finally, using a grounded theory approach used documents from the Center of Border Pedagogy at CSUSM to triangulate the data and provide transparency to the process.

Chapter 4 presents key findings from the data collected and analysis of the instruments described in chapter three. The data analysis followed the “In vivo” process, that is, finding words, phrases, and sentences that fell into themes identified in the paired interviews conducted with educators who participated in Border Pedagogy Project.

Finally, Chapter 5 discusses the findings from the interviews and documents analyzed and identified within the scholarly literature. It presents implications of the study for educators, TLI students, and policy makers to develop a curriculum that will address the unique needs of students in the border region. In this chapter, there are recommendations for future research for the expansion of the Border Pedagogy Project.
and conduct a longitudinal study to provide deeper understanding of the education of TLI students and how to prepare educators to address the unique needs of TLI students through the creation of a curriculum that can be implemented in other border regions.
CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

The Border Pedagogy Initiative, in the Tijuana and San Diego region, had its beginnings in the summer of 2001 when a bi-national seminar took place at a California State University campus in San Diego County. The organizers of this bi-national seminar decided to bring educators from both sides of the border together to share their educational experiences and concerns related to the education of borderland students. The organizers studied and implemented components of Paulo Freire’s (1970/1977) critical pedagogy philosophy and praxis in their work as educators in public schools (K-12) and in institutions of higher education.

The participants were seen as “experts” because their contributions to the seminars constituted the initial data collection to learn about the educational needs of borderland students. (Necochea and Cline, 2008). In other words, the philosophy of the Initiative was based on the belief that when a group of people come together to meet each other and voice common concerns with each other, they all come as co-learners. For example, participants provided information about the differences and similarities in the educational curriculum and instruction of reading and writing on both sides of the border. They also contributed inside knowledge about their frustrations of the way Latino students were perceived, that is, as if they had no knowledge to bring to the learning process on both sides of the border.

This dissertation examined the impact of the changes in the pedagogical practices of teachers after attending and participating in the Border Pedagogy seminars. The
activities were specifically designed to address the student concerns of teacher participants in the Border Pedagogy Initiative. This literature review sought to examine the ways in which Border Pedagogy Initiative teacher participants implemented the pedagogy in their everyday instruction, the obstacles they encountered, their perceptions of how effective they thought the instructional strategies were with borderland students, how administrators in their schools supported them, and how their colleagues viewed their newly implemented instructional practices. It traces how the international philosophy and praxis of critical pedagogy served as the guiding principles for the development of the Tijuana/San Diego Border Pedagogy Initiative, specifically designed to serve the transnational students of this border region. The audience of the Border Pedagogy Initiative was comprised of educators of transnational students from kindergarten to grade 12, community colleges and four-year institutions of higher education on both sides of the border.

This literature review begins with a description of the historical development of critical pedagogy as a theoretical framework based on Freire’s (1970/1977) seminal work, *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*, how and why McLaren and Giroux coined the term, border pedagogy, and how other researchers have used critical pedagogy and border pedagogy in other fields of research. Next, the review addresses the historical background of the Border Pedagogy Initiative in the U.S./Mexico border region, and the social justice and equity issues affecting borderland students who cross the U.S./Mexico border. It further explains the vision of the Border Pedagogy Initiative developers and enlightens the discussion of the literature of how state and federal policies have affected
the education of immigrants and English language learners (borderland or transnational students). Finally, this review examines the Tijuana/San Diego Border Pedagogy Initiative as a logical approach for teaching transnational Latino immigrant (TLI) student using the Border Pedagogy conceptual model (Cline and Necochea, 2003).

**Critical Pedagogy as a Theoretical Construct**

*Critical Pedagogy*

Critical pedagogy is a theoretical approach, that informs the work of transforming relationships among classroom teaching, the production of student knowledge, the institutional structures of the school, and the social and material relations of the wider community, society, and nation-state (McLaren, 1999). Peter McLaren (1999) recognized Paulo Freire as being “generally considered the inaugural philosopher of critical pedagogy” (p. 49). Freire’s life experiences with poverty created in him a passion for education as a means of empowerment (Gadotti, 1994). It was Freire who suggested that all people read the world before they read any written words.

In his seminal work (1970/1977), *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*, Freire argued that pedagogy could be view as an instrument of empowerment for the oppressed because of its potential to open the eyes of students to understanding their oppression by a system not organized to meet their unique educational needs. Freire stated, “the pedagogy of the oppressed is an instrument for their critical discovery that both they and their oppressors are manifestations of dehumanization” (p. 33). In other words, if the system teaches all students the same content in the same way and the students are resigned to being taught
in the same systematic way, the system has contributed to the dehumanization of the students and reduced them to “empty” vessels that can only serve as recipients of knowledge as in the banking model. Likewise, students who see that conforming their behavior and the manner in which they demonstrate knowledge as “the way things are” also contribute to their own dehumanization. Freire’s argument highlights the manner in which a liberating education can serve as an instrument to provide a systematic way to help those within the system understand the relationship between the oppressor and the oppressed and ultimately transform it.

Freire (1970/1977) argued that in traditional pedagogy, teachers are agents of oppression when their teaching maintains the ruling class’s power through a curriculum that reproduces the dominant ideology. When this occurs, students are oppressed by the dominant curriculum through a process Freire refers to as the “banking system.” Freire describes the banking system of education as one in which teachers tell the students what to learn (memorize), and students do what the teacher tells them. The result is conformity, devoid of individuality and creativity, and thus oppressive.

While Freire described the way in which education is used by the ‘powerful’ to serve their interests, he also pointed out that education has the potential to be liberating. In fact, Freire made it clear that education should be liberating in real, verifiable ways. He stated, “men are persons and as persons should be free . . . Since it is in concrete situations that the oppressor-oppressed contradiction is established, the resolution of this contradiction must be objectively verifiable” (p. 35). Freire contended that for students to be free from oppression, teachers needed to reject the “banking system” and develop a
different student-teacher relationship, in which students are active learners and teachers also see themselves as learners in a process of critical inquiry.

Freire believed that people should engage in conversations and dialogue to create knowledge and a better understanding of reality. Freire further notes with veracity that there is “an ongoing production of the social world through dialogue” (McLaren, 1999, p. 49). In Paulo Freire’s philosophy, critical dialogue is central to an empowering pedagogy. Paulo explained, “Through critical dialogue about a text or a moment in society, we try to reveal it, unveil it, see its reason for being like it is, the political and historical context of the material. This for me is an act of knowing, not mere transfer-of-knowledge . . .” (Shor & Freire, 1987, p.13). It is through critical dialogue, Freire observes, that students can “see their own conditions and envision a different destiny” (Shor & Freire, 1987, p. 24). Freire called this growing awareness the development of the “consciousness of the oppressed” (p.46). This consciousness has made the oppressed aware of their own history of oppression and empowered them to engage with society on their own terms rather than those dictated by the powerful (McClaren, 1999). Freire’s admonition to the world of the literate was that literacy was much more than being “schooled.” Literacy meant to observe and read the world around you, know how that world and culture makes you who you are, and then embark on reading the word with critical eyes, minds, and voices.

Freire was unwilling to provide solutions to the problems his pedagogy highlighted, which “enables his work to be reinvented” (McLaren, 1999, p. 52). Freire did this on purpose because he wanted “his readers to reinvent him in the context of their local struggles” (McLaren, 1999, p. 52). Indeed, many other researchers have been
inspired by Freire to reinvent, apply, and expand critical pedagogy to meet the needs of the people with whom they do their work for social justice.

Peter L. McLaren and Henry A. Giroux are some of the most notable critical pedagogues who have written many articles and books to theorize, apply, and practice critical pedagogy in education and other disciplines (McLaren, 1999). Giroux and McLaren expanded Freire’s critical pedagogy and applied it to the field of multiculturalism to bring awareness to the obstacles minority groups encountered in their education. These obstacles have contributed to the ever constant widening of the achievement gap. As an organizing construct, critical pedagogy brings structure to educational concepts in which meaning is co-created and curriculum is relevant. The effort of the Tijuana/San Diego Border Pedagogy Initiative is a local, contemporary example of how the beliefs of Freire were reinvented to meet the needs of regional borderland students. The Initiative helped clarify, for educators, the relationship between critical pedagogy and the work in which the Initiative was engaged. For this researcher, the work of the Initiative became the motivation to carefully examine the effect of the work of the Initiative on the instructional practices of its attendees.

Giroux (1982, 2004) examined theoretical critical pedagogy in the areas of radical classroom pedagogy, cultural reproduction, and resistance. He explored the empowerment of teachers and students to create change grounded in historical studies from diverse cultures and different countries. He also used critical pedagogy as a framework to examine the interface between culture and politics. The development of this kind of thinking – to guide teachers to think and talk about the needs of their
students, to understand how they can be empowered to implement change, as well as ways to create institutional changes, became the goals of the work of the Border Pedagogy Initiative. Change can occur through explicit coercion or through the processes of education, such as developing literacy for students who have not been provided equal access to a meaningful education. Critical pedagogy chooses literacy through education, as did the Border Pedagogy Initiative.

McLaren (2001) pointed out the similarities and differences between change agents “Che” Guevara and Freire as a way to elaborate on the issue of change through coercion as opposed to change through education. Guevara used force to create change, whereas, Freire worked through a paradigm of education and literacy for disadvantaged groups. They are both seen as persons with the heart to fight for the rights of those who are oppressed by those in power; however, Freire’s methods are more enduring and life changing and therefore, the model upon which the Border Pedagogy Initiative was developed.

The beliefs of critical pedagogy have been applied to research in other areas of equity such as issues of race. McLaren and Dantley (1990) apply critical pedagogy to race, especially to the struggles for social justice of African Americans. Internationally, McLaren and Giroux (1990) applied critical pedagogy to thinking and writing about Poland’s rural regions with much success. The implementation of critical pedagogy in other parts of the world was also applied to the U.S./Mexico border regions, where the Border Pedagogy Initiative used critical pedagogy as a foundation to bring educators together in the border region of San Diego/ Tijuana. For example, the terrorist attack on
the Twin Towers in New York City, 9/11/01, made it more difficult to provide the appropriate educational programs for border region students because the fear factor had been ignited. Such acts of terrorism engendered negative feelings of many Americans towards anyone from a foreign country or anyone speaking a language other than English. These responses led to political and social movements that basically put forth the belief that all people, including students, should learn what it means to be loyal Americans. Speaking only English is an important part of nationalistic movements that prompt a belief that when individual teachers in their classrooms use critical pedagogy to close educational and cultural gaps, special treatment has been created for an “outside” or non-American group. Thus, education has become politicized due to international conflict and economic globalization (Mclaren, Martin, Farahmandpur, & Jaramillo, 2004).

Critical pedagogy has been compared to Marxist philosophy in issues of civil rights. It explores the political and economical exploitation of the oppressed by the oppressor by keeping them uninformed and violating their civil rights as human beings. McLaren and Jaramillo (2006) pointed out that this assault on civil rights by the oppressor is part of the push to privatize education. The privatization of education is sometimes seen as the means to an end of bringing education under the framework of assimilation and acculturation, “into the economic and social dimensions of an increasingly imperial and militaristic Pax Americana” (McLaren & Jaramillo, 2006, p. 77). Vouchers and the English Only movements are examples of oppression as the privatization of education seeks to submit all students to the banking system of education,
contrary to the beliefs of critical pedagogy. Critical pedagogy promotes equity by using students’ cultural and language backgrounds as bridges to education. The development of the Border Pedagogy Initiative challenged the belief in assimilation and acculturation. Just as critical pedagogy fed the passion for the development of a new pedagogy to educate transnational students it also influenced research in other disciplines as a transformative instrument. For example, Satoshi Toyosaki (2007) used critical pedagogy in his auto-ethnographic study examining his own experiences of Americanization. As a Japanese national studying in the U.S., he wanted to be as American as possible. However, he came to realize that it would never be as he had expected. His framework for understanding being “American” changed when he interacted with American peers and teachers. Toyosaki quoted McLaren:

Critical pedagogy constitutes a dialectical and dialogical process that instantiates a reciprocal exchange between teachers and students—an exchange that engages in the task of reframing, refocusing, and reposing the question of understanding itself, bringing into dialectical relief the structural and relational dimensions of knowledge and its hydra-headed power/knowledge dimensions (as cited in Toyosaki, 2007, p. 51).

Thus, Toyosaki saw his desire to be “American” as the oppression and dehumanization of himself. It was through his education, dialogues, conversations, and questioning of the “canon” of education that he discovered who he was and became empowered to believe in him. It is this type of self-discovery that the Border Pedagogy Initiative had as a goal for teachers and students in the local border region. The construct of critical pedagogy has also inspired other fields of study.
Garoian (1999), another researcher, applied critical pedagogy in the education of studio art where students used their bodies to interpret the arts through the application of lighting that provided them the unexpected freedom to express their feelings and thoughts while performing. Thus, self-discovery and empowerment were by-products of students’ experiences with the arts. Dehler, Welsh, and Lewis (2001) applied critical pedagogy to the study of management and power where students were encouraged to “expand their knowledge instead of restricting it as social, political and economic agents” (p. 502).

Critical pedagogy has become an instrument to validate the process of co-learning, when students and teachers learn together as they analyze and solve problems. As Dehler, Welsh and Lewis pointed out, “the objective is to involve students in the construction of knowledge (rather than transfer of knowledge)” (p 504). Similar to the Border Pedagogy Initiative, the application of critical pedagogy in management and art studio infused into those fields “empowerment of individuals and an infusion of democratic action into social institutions” (Steffy & Grimes, 1992, p. 195).

In the preceding discussion of critical pedagogy as a theoretical construct, we saw that the beliefs of critical pedagogy have been used as guiding principles in a variety of disciplines in education as well as in other fields such as art, management and multicultural education. The research revealed the rich principles that make up the beliefs of critical pedagogy that serve to enable those dedicated to implementing it, opportunities to reinvent Freire’s beliefs; to take the humanizing principles of belief in the individual, his language, culture and ability to construct his own literacy and meaning
through questions, discussions with peers and others to become empowered to understand
and act in his own reality.

**Historical Background of Border Pedagogy**

History provides another lens to view the border situation. Families that
frequently move back and forth across the border affect the economics and the schools of
the borderlands. A bourgeoning group of transnational students has been created. This
group presents unique challenges to schools and other institutions on both sides of the
border, yet the research on border crossers is sparse. As previously noted, the Mexican
educational system is a national system. The system in the United States is the
responsibility of each state, yet state laws are influenced by the federal government and
provide for a compulsory education program for students to the age of eighteen. In
Mexico, federal laws require compulsory education for students to age fifteen. Another
major difference between these educational systems is the manner in which students
advance through educational levels. Students move freely from grade to grade,
elementary to middle school, and to high school in the United States. In Mexico, students
must pass admission tests to be accepted to the next level of their education. One can
easily anticipate the difficulties encountered when transferring and/or receiving academic
credit for courses taken in schools on both sides of the border. The courses may be
equivalent, but the credit granted is not.

In spite of these differences, the research conducted by the developers of the
Border Pedagogy Initiative (Cline & Necochea, 2003) revealed similarities between
California and Mexico’s content literacy standards. Upon examination of the state
standards for reading and language arts in California and comparing them to the standards, known as Programas de Estudio for reading in Mexico, the researchers found overwhelming commonalities. Thus it became possible for educators to develop common lessons using California’s Language Arts Standards and the Programs de Estudio de Español: Educación Primaria (Study Programs of Spanish: Primary Education) (Barrios, 2006; Rippberger and Staudt, 1999) that could be implemented in classrooms on both sides of the border. Cline and Necochea also found that in the secondary schools in Mexico there was a promotion of student writing in a variety of genres; writing that had been published for distribution to the educational communities. The researchers noted that the same kinds of efforts were being made in California, but not necessarily of the same quality for borderland students attending schools in the local border region. Thus, the writing component became an indispensable part of the seminars and workshops of the Border Pedagogy Initiative as well as other follow up work for secondary borderland students (Encuentros, Cline, 2009).

The Border Pedagogy Initiative was started with the expressed purpose of filling the void of educational research in the borderlands by conducting research based on the actual experiences and knowledge of educators in borderland schools. The Border Pedagogy Initiative is an example of what can be done to provide a “safe zone” for information exchange and bring a combination of congenial and collegial cultures of educators and community leaders together to talk about their respective systems, share promising practices and ideas, and come to consensus to determine what can be done to better educate students in the border region.
The Center for the Study of Border Pedagogy resulted from the Border Pedagogy Initiative to continue the important work of professional development (Cline & Necochea, 2004). The primary mission of the Center for the Study of Border Pedagogy is to transform teachers to promote more effective instructional practices in public schools on both sides of the border (Cline & Necochea, 2004). The Center facilitates dialogues among educators to share stories to enhance mutual understanding and cooperation in the border community by fostering collaboration between educational institutions in Mexico and the United States. The Center promotes the common interests of the borderland community through the following activities: 1) student and faculty exchange; 2) regular dialogue and discussion; 3) inter-institutional curriculum development; 4) dissemination of information on schooling in the San Diego and Tijuana regions; and 4) bi-national research projects (Cline & Necochea, 2006).

Research at the Center drew from the theoretical framework of critical pedagogy, which was a “means of developing a democratic public philosophy that respects the notions of difference as a part of the common struggle to extend the quality of life” (Giroux, 1992, p 28). The critical pedagogy framework supported the researcher’s efforts to gather information and interpret the data (Hayes & Cuban, 1996; Dlamini, 2002; Cook, 2000). The word “difference” and “democratic” were important for defining border pedagogy, because within the context of education, border pedagogy challenges the relationship between traditional knowledge and power. Border pedagogy is critical pedagogy designed and molded to best serve the transnational students in this border
region. It describes and explains the borders of power and inequity that minorities have to “cross” in order to benefit from their educational experiences.

Social Justice and Equity Issues Affecting Borderland Students

Issues of social justice and equity have plagued the educational experience of Latino immigrant students in U.S. schools for over 150 years (Valencia 2002). Latino immigrant students have experienced discrimination in the educational system, typically a practice engaged in by schools since the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo in 1848.

Mexican Americans have historically been discriminated against even though they held “citizenship status” (Valencia 2002, p.70). This discrimination was more institutional due to their racial background as Mexican American students were not allowed to attend the same schools that White students attended. This type of segregation is an example of “Institutionalized schooling” described as a “racial/ethnic isolation process to deny equal education opportunities” (Valencia, Menchaca & Donato, 2002, p.69).

Social justice and equity for Latino immigrant and transnational students are related to language differences and considered by critics as the cause of failure of Latinos to assimilate into American society. Donnat (1997 as cited in Halcon, 2001) notes that Mexican students have been perceived for a long time as being unworthy to be in the same schools as Anglo students because of the myth that their families had records of breaking the law and worked in jobs that kept them dirty and greasy. They were further perceived as spreading diseases wherever they lived, made the communities in which
they lived look unkempt, thus belonging to poor people who could not support themselves. Latino immigrant students have experienced inequity due to established societal perceptions based on stereotypes (Necochea & Cline, 2003) and have an uphill battle because of the inequities they face in border region schools.

Transnational students in the border region have also experienced inequitable educational practices as a result of their continual movement between countries and schools. In the arena of education, they are affected by poor schools, scarcity of resources, and lack of teacher preparation (Quiocho, et.al., 2003; Martinez, 1994). Social justice and equity affect all parts of the equation that Latino immigrant students confront when they come to the United States, especially when the pedagogical approaches used to educate them in schools do not take into account their unique learning styles.

**Pedagogy in the Borderlands**

Education in the borderlands is the concern of many institutions across the 2000 miles of the U.S/Mexican border. Santiago’s (2008) two year qualitative study of eight institutions (four public universities and 4 community colleges) identified these organizations as successful in the awarding of degrees and certificates to Latino students.

In the study, Santiago (2008) worked with the eight presidents of the institutions and their teams to plan how to reach their goal of improving the academic success rate of Latino students through their target program, Accelerating Latino Student Success (ALASS). The program focused on the areas of “participation (enrollment), success (completing a degree or certificate), excellence, and research” (p. 8). The goals were to
close the gap in participation, that is to continuously add students served to create a total of “630,000 students and increase the amount of degrees, certificates, and other identifiable artifacts of success (210,000) by the year 2015” (p. 8). The eight institutions of higher education identified as ALASS border institutions have designed programs to accelerate graduation and provide financial support for Latino students in the Texas/Mexico border region. The reports of the successful work of these institutions were reported in the document, Closing the Gap by 2015: The Texas Higher Education Plan.

The institutions committed to recruit and retain Latino students through accelerated educational programs. A major focus of the ALASS program was to improve the living conditions of Latinos in the area considered to be economically disadvantaged. The long-term effects of this program are yet to be realized.

Crossing the border is a daily chore, contributing to an inconsistency in school attendance in the United States. The state of Texas contracted with West Ed to conduct a study of its school districts in close proximity to the border, and those districts located farther away from the border (Edward F. Sloat, Reino Makkonen, & Paul Koehler, 2007). In their qualitative study of border districts, Sloat, Makkonen, and Koehler (2007) found that within 20 linear miles of the border, student populations came from high-poverty homes. The researchers argued that the closer to the border the districts were, the more students they had in attendance that lived in Mexico and crossed the border to attend schools in the United States on a daily basis. The researchers called these students “day-crossers” (p. 1). Day-crossers tended to have an inconsistent attendance record posing challenges for districts to forecast budgets, staffing, as well as continuity of curriculum
and instruction. Border districts and non-border districts differ in location and size, student demographics, teacher data, socio-economic levels and community economics. The study found that clearly, “borderland districts have more schools per district than those that are non-border districts “(p. 6) and enrolled a “higher concentration of Latino students and higher proportions of economically disadvantaged and at-risk students” (p. 7-8). By looking at the Sloat, Makkonen, and Koehler research, educators in the Tijuana/California Border Pedagogy Initiative could see how border districts needed to be providing the resources and skills to serve the unique needs of Latino transnational students in the local borderland region. Research that identifies resources and requisite skills districts and teachers’ need is discussed next.

Culture and acquisition of cross-cultural awareness are elements that teachers who teach in the border region need to understand because of the student population with whom they are working (Santamaria, Santamaria, & Fletcher, 2009). Two studies (Lopez Estrada, 1999; Santamaria, Santamaria, &Fletcher, 2009) capture the importance that this kind of effort yields similar outcomes.

Veronica López Estrada’s (1999) qualitative study of intern teachers in a teaching program provided information of which student teachers need to be aware. Her study looked at the process of cultural immersion. She wanted to know how the “cultural consciousness” and the process of acquiring “cross-cultural awareness moved interns from the point of view of stereotyping to the point of view of an insider (p. 2). López Estrada (1999) wanted to know whether the interns would let their cultural biases influence their perceptions of an unfamiliar culture or that the understanding and
acquisition of a new culture would be an easy transition. Her observations revealed that some of the participants (intern teachers) were able to adapt to the new settings while some other participants made comparisons of the new cultural settings to their own cultural settings and made comments that could be interpreted as inappropriate. For example, one intern commented, “…here there is more of a social setting, which is different than in the Midwest where people come across as being rude or mean. In the Valley, people are all alike.” Another intern commented, “…Adults where I come from are more concerned with being on time in that respect. Here, they are just like, “tomorrow”” (p. 9). López Estrada (1999) found that the intern teachers based their teaching philosophies on their own personal experiences and backgrounds, and had difficulties adapting to the majority Latino student populations in crowded schools have been identified as having a high number of at-risk students. The intern teachers also noted that the state mandated accountability system was “the most stressful point for professional educators, in the Southwest part of Texas” (p. 9).

Complementing López Estrada’s work, in their qualitative inquiry on study abroad programs in Mexico for American pre-service teachers who plan to serve Mexican students in California and Arizona schools, Santamaría, Santamaría, and Fletcher (2009) found that although teacher candidates brought their own biases to linguistic and cultural immersion opportunities, cultural competence was fluid and the willingness to put philosophical biases aside was possible, over time. These researchers found that teachers who knew they would be working with students and families from Mexico were willing
to endure what they perceived as social and emotional discomfort in order to positively add to their own cultural competence.

The research discussed thus far has illustrated that the border regions in the United States are responding to the educational needs of Latino immigrants who go back and forth between the border cities and educational systems. The common assumption has been that the borderlands are the only regions dealing with these educational issues because of their proximity to the border; however, that assumption is now being challenged. Martinez-León and Smith’s (2003) position paper presented another perspective of border crossing and described the appropriate educational programs for a group of Mexican immigrants who returned to the state of Puebla, Mexico from New York and New Jersey. Their position paper noted the reasons many Mexicans were returning to Puebla, Mexico. Martinez-Leon and Smith (2003) observed that this trend to return to Mexico came on the heels of the 9/11 attacks, and the loss of jobs generated by 9/11 and the war on terrorism. New York and New Jersey experienced similar situations that many other urban cities described when it came to educating ELLs. Martinez-León and Smith (2003) compared the concentration of ELLs in sections of urban cities where the educational needs of ELLs were addressed to promote the acquisition of English and in some instances the maintenance of their first language for those returning to Mexico. Based on the national policies of Mexico, the “retornados” (returnees) encountered different situations because they were dispersed across all Mexican states, cities, and small communities. Martinez-León and Smith (2003) also made note of the experiences parents of retornados encountered when they tried to maintain their children’s English
and bilingualism. For example, the Mexican educational system does not have English classes until the seventh grade. Martinez-León and Smith (2003) found three dominant problems students encountered when they returned to Puebla, Mexico. Martinez-León and Smith (2003) delineated the issues:

…the shortage of linguistically qualified teachers trained to recognize and meet the special needs of transnational bilinguals; limited access to or the non-existence of materials relevant to these learners; perhaps the most difficult remediative prescriptive and pejorative attitudes toward the language varieties spoken by “retornado” students and their families (p. 144).

The U.S./Mexican border region is not unique when dealing with educating transnational students and their constant movement between two places and cultures. Martinez-León and Smith (2003) suggested that researchers should look to other parts of the world. They point out, “We believe that the experiences and insights of researchers and educators working in the context of transnational migration—linguistic and cultural borders such as Belize and Mexico, Germany and Turkey, Spain, South Africa and the Maghreb—can prove useful” (p. 149, 150). Therefore, many student experiences around the world are common due to repetitive, consistent movement between cultural settings.

Every student, no matter where he or she lives, has a monumental amount of knowledge that can be tapped into as often as possible to make him/her feel successful. It is the responsibility of educators to provide the venues to insure that knowledge can be shared and understood. Moll, Amanti, Neff and Gonzalez’s (1992) qualitative study looked at households and the communities to help develop classroom instruction that used the prior knowledge of each student. Moll at al. (1992) referred to this prior
knowledge as “funds of knowledge.” These funds of knowledge are readily available because they come from students’ own backgrounds. The researchers presented a different lens to use when educating students in the border regions, especially ELL students, because a view of the households and what the family members did to contribute to the functioning of the households became an integral part of the observations and research.

Based on the research that has been conducted in some border regions it becomes clear that connections can be made to the Border Pedagogy Initiative and what it did for teachers and students in the San Diego/Tijuana region. The analysis of the contacts a student has during his home life helps educators see how much knowledge he/she has because every contact with a different person within the household provides an opportunity for learning. Moll at al. (1992) observed:

“These networks are flexible, adaptive, and active, and may involve multiple persons from outside the homes: They are “thick” and multiple relationships with the same person or various persons. The person from whom the child learns carpentry, for example, may also be the uncle with whom the child’s family regularly celebrates birthdays or organizes barbecues…” (p. 133)

Having the researchers conduct the interviews provided the data necessary to develop a new approach for classroom instruction. Unfortunately, sharing the data with teachers did not provide teachers with the motivation and ownership to modify their instructional practices. Therefore, Moll at al. (1992) decided to include teachers as a part of the interviewing team. This experience allowed teachers to take ownership of the process because the interviews provided them with first hand information. The inclusion
of teachers as interviewers in the Moll at al. (1992) study validated for the developers of
the Border Pedagogy Initiative the decision to include as many teachers as possible from
both sides of the border in collaboration to improve education for transnational students.

Similar understandings and knowledge were experienced by many of the
participants in the Border Pedagogy Institute workshops and seminars. They went back to
their classrooms with funds of knowledge acquired through the interactions they had with
other educators from the cities of Tijuana, Ensenada, Mexicali, and Tecate in Mexico as
well as educators from the Tijuana/San Diego border to cities in Orange County.

**Policy Affecting Immigrant and ELL Education**

Borderland schools are affected by state and federal policies that dictate what to
teach English language learners (ELLs) (Lindholm-Leary, 2005; Rolstad, Mahoney &
Glass, 2005). The number of ELLs in California schools has continually increased over
the past decade and made it imperative for the state to create policies for ELLs in
education. The rate of growth of ELLs’ enrollment based, on the California Office of
Language Acquisition data, shows that the state of California’s enrollment has increased
from 1,323,767 (0.0%) ELLs students in the 1995/1996 school year to 1,599,542 (20.8%)
ELLs students in the 2002-2003 school year, while the total enrollment has fluctuated
from 6,069,802 (0.0%) in the 1995/1996 school year to 6,244,403 (2.9%) 2002-2003
school year, (See Table 2.1 below).
Table 2.1 California Rate of Growth 1995/1996 – 2005-2006
Source: California Office of Language Acquisition
Retrieved 12-23-09

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total Enrollment</th>
<th>Growth from 95-96</th>
<th>LEP Enrollment</th>
<th>Growth from 95-96</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1995-96</td>
<td>6,069,802</td>
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<td>2002-2003</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Historically, educational policy has not taken into account the unique needs of educators and their students in the borderlands and frequently made life difficult for immigrants by rejecting cultural and linguistic assets for educational purposes (Crawford, 1995; Cummins, 1997). For example, in recent decades the state of California and the federal government passed laws that directly impacted immigrant ELL students. Proposition 187 (1994) was designed to deny illegal immigrants social services, health care, and public education. Additionally, the federal government’s education law, No Child Left Behind (NCLB) (2001), raised the stakes that required schools to ensure that
ELLs could proficiently pass tests in English yet provided limited funding for native language instruction (Crawford, 2008).

The rights of ELLs have been an on-going controversy for many years. In 1974, The Supreme Court case *Lau v. Nichols* (414 U.S. 5637) ruled that ELL students had a right to equal education and therefore schools had to provide equal access to meaningful instruction. (U.S. Supreme Court, LAU V. NICHOLS, 414 U.S. 563,1974).

Another Supreme Court ruling resulting from the *Castañeda v. Pickard* case (NCELA; Crawford, 1999; Ovando & Collier, 1998) led to the development of the “*Castañeda Test,*” which was used to determine whether school districts were taking “appropriate action” as required by the Equal Education Opportunity Act of 1974 (Ovado, 2003). “The criteria for schools included: a pedagogically sound plan for Limited English Proficient (LEP) students, qualified staff for instruction, effective program implementation, and plans for program evaluation” (NCELA, 2008). In order to comply with these rulings some states used Title VII monies to develop bilingual programs. These programs were highly controversial in light of the anti-immigrant sentiment and the English Only movement. Proposition 227 was passed by Californians in 1998, after a huge campaign against bilingual education. As Ovando stated, “227 threw bilingual programs throughout the state into turmoil (p. 13).” Under Proposition 227 schools were required to dismantle their bilingual programs and teach ELLs English in one year using an approach called, Structured English Immersion (SEI) (Crawford, 1997). The goal of SEI is rapid acquisition of English rather than an emphasis on learning academic language and content knowledge.
Research of achievement data indicates that as a result of policy and practice developed under Proposition 227, the academic achievement of Latino immigrant students has not improved. In fact, the gap in academic achievement between ELLs and non-ELLs has increased. In his presentation at the "Proposition 227 and Beyond: Connecting Research, Policy and Practice" conference, Crawford (2008) showed how Proposition 227 and NCLB have not helped ELL students close the achievement gap. The graph below shows how the achievement gap has increased from academic years 2002-03 to 2007-08. (See graph below)

As indicated in the CA State Test Score Gap Table above, the achievement gap between ELLs and Non-ELLs has increased 3.8% from 33.4% in the 2002-03 school year to 37.2 in 2007-08 school year in language arts. ELLs also showed a growth of 6.6% from 9.9% to 16.5% in the same time period. In comparison, Non-ELLs had a growth of 10.4% from 43.3% to 53.7%. Comparing the growth, Non-ELLs showed a 3.8% higher
than ELLs students, equal to the percentage of increase in the achievement gap. Therefore, when the argument is made that ELLs have improved in academic achievement and that improvement should be looked at as a positive trend, this researcher does not deny that academic progress is moving in the right direction. However, while ELLs are improving, the Non-ELLs are also improving but at a higher rate. Therefore, in spite of improvement in both populations, the gap remains and continues to become larger over time as state and national standards change along with academic requirements.

School Experiences of Latino Immigrants and Transnational Students

Schooling experiences for Latino immigrant and transnational students in the borderland are and have been impacted by issues of social justice and equity both in and out of the school setting. Immigrant students have to adapt to a new society, culture, language and a new school system. Transnational students are immigrant students who continue to have personal connections across the border and move back and forth across the border, living on both sides of the border at different points in their lives. These students experience a profound level of discrimination, and encounter multiple barriers to their successful day-to-day participation in the public schools. The schooling experiences of Latino immigrant, and transnational students, are explored in the following accounts, which explore Latino immigrant students’ experiences in American schools.

Romo’s (2005) autobiographical account of his own experiences in school exemplifies the overall isolation and marginalization that is a reality for many Latino students whose cultural and linguistic funds of knowledge or collective schemata, are
neither acknowledged nor valued by schools. Reflecting on his own experience, he critiqued the school system for failing to encourage critical thinking, and refusing to value cultural differences. He reported that schooling practices forced students like him to comply and accept Anglo knowledge as superior to his own knowledge. His Latino identity was perceived as inferior and almost non-existent.

In light of his own family’s immigrant experience of poverty and discrimination, Romo (2005) stated, “Like the 37% of U.S. children, I grew up in poverty,” (p. 9). He described his early school years as successful due to his mother’s encouragement and modeling about the importance of education. Romo grew up surrounded by poverty and is inclined to agree with anyone’s statement that “U.S. schools with large populations of poor children often have policies and practices that reinforce compliance, obedience, and passive intake of knowledge” (2005, p. 201). He reflected that being trained to comply and to obey rather than to think critically disempowered Latino students, liked himself because of the understood privilege that Anglo people have assumed within the school system. Romo (2005), a migrant worker who is educated, is an activist who sees the need to place equity and social justice at the center of all the operations in borderland schools. He described his immigrant experience as, “I’m a migrant worker . . . Because of my journey of poverty . . . I am an advocate for social justice through teacher education. Because I know myself what it is like to be marginalized, isolated, and rejected . . .” (p. 205).

The next account offers a more global perspective on immigrant students’ schooling experiences. In a Harvard Educational Review journal special edition on
immigration and education, Suarez-Orozco (2001) argued that immigration is a worldwide phenomenon and results from the process of globalization. The immigration phenomenon that he described has profound implications for children and their education. He described the experience of the immigrant student as one of poverty and alienation. In addition, he described how immigrant students have to negotiate their multiple identities as they move from their family lives into the school environment. In his conceptual and empirical studies about globalization, Suarez-Orozco (2001) pointed out that young immigrants’ educational experiences are very complex. He quoted Murnane (1996) who describes the complexity of educating immigrant students:

The education of immigrant youngsters, whether in Lagos, Lima, or Los Angeles, is critical because schooling has become a high-stakes process that imparts the skills needed in the rapidly growing knowledge-intensive sector of the global economy (p. 345)

He asserted that schooling is an area that needs to be looked at closely because children’s “well-being” provides them with the skills and opportunities needed for their future. He noted that

The first generation of educated immigrants are “outperforming” native-born students not just in academic achievement, but are being recognized as national leaders in prestigious areas such as science and are fast moving into “more desirable sectors of the global economy (p. 345)

The Suarez-Orozco studies and inquiries revealed that positive educational outcomes for immigrant students are rather fragile and easily crushed under the weight of societal pressures of discrimination, stereotyping, and cultural biases. He pinpointed the schools’ lack of skills and strategies to deal with immigrant students with multiple identities as one of the sources of fragile academic student success. Suarez-Orozco
(2001) argued that all indicators for success point to the importance of education that insures the success and overall chances of immigrant students to thrive within the new country to which they have immigrated.

The last study by Orellana (2001) highlights the dissonance Latino immigrant children feel at school due to the school’s failure to comprehend their working class values. Orellana and colleagues studied five Latino immigrant communities in Chicago and found common traits in all of the five communities. Immigrant children were seen as valued assets to their families because they did valuable work in their homes such as, providing childcare, translating for parents, and helping family members with formal interactions with the larger community. For example, these students brokered or mediated for their parents communications with a variety of establishments such as the landlord and rental agreements, the telephone company, jury summons, and gas and electric utility companies. Orellana (2001) explained that because schools are based on middle class values, most of the researches on children see children from the Latino communities as passive recipients of “important” and highly valued knowledge they must master to be successful. Traditional research on child development, Orellana observes, advises that children should be, “engaged in play and not be contributing workers who participate in the relationships and practices of their daily lives” (p. 368). The view of children’s work has changed based on the cultural and socio-economic status of their families. The economic and cultural demands of being a family member are perceived differently in different households. Culturally, Latino children are taught to work as an integral part of the family to maintain their households as clean as possible since that
work represents how responsible they are. Economically, the work children do is part of growing up and contributing to the needs of the family. If the family is poor, as many immigrant students’ families are, children will go out and earn money to help the family survive. What is considered work for low socio-economic groups is child play for those in the upper socio-economic group in society. Orellana, described the mainstream perception of children as being measured, “by their sentimental value rather than their physical and economic contribution to households” (p. 376).

These three studies provided different perspectives of the schooling experiences of immigrant Latino students. All of the studies showed the tremendous impact schools have on a child’s experience of education. These studies suggest that Latino immigrant and transnational students need a supportive educational approach that embraces the immigrant experience and understands their strengths as well as their needs. Through the “Café Model” of conversations, the Border Pedagogy Initiative (Necohea & Cline, 2003) brought borderland teachers together to share their experiences and common practices related to Latino immigrant and transnational students and to address the common concerns they had about educating the students they shared. These same concerns were also addressed by the three studies discussed above.

**Border Pedagogy on the Border**

Researchers who have done work on the borders in a variety of states and communities agree with Giroux’s (1992) notions that a theoretical border, “is a dividing line, narrow strip along a steep edge,” (Anzaldúa, 2007, p. 25) and apply this definition in the context of education located in the actual physical borderlands. Anzaldúa (2007)
describes the borderlands as “a vague and undetermined place created by the emotional residue of an unnatural boundary. It is a constant state of transition” (p. 25). The unnatural boundary, according to Anzaldúa, is the invisible line created by the racial and political views of the oppressor in constant movement to maintain the oppressed under oppression. This oppression comes from limiting the ability of a person to move freely within the land because fences and legal documents act as barriers. The emotional residues of oppression come from the historical point of view related to who was the first to arrive in the borderlands and what the powerful conqueror did to undermine and oppress the Mexican. Unnatural physical borders were built to control the oppressed by the White conqueror or oppressor. Thus, the key issues related to educational equity for Latino immigrant students in the border region schools have been identified as culture, language, and education, a concern of educators on both sides of the border.

The creators of the Border Pedagogy Initiative, Cline and Necochea (2003), defined border pedagogy as a “complex and interactive set of curriculum, instructional practices, and knowledge base that educators need to incorporate in order to be successful with diverse students in the borderlands” (p. 48). This definition clarified why the construct and praxis was important for U.S. and Mexican classrooms. The Border Pedagogy Conceptual Model embraces both metaphorical and physical notions of border, and border crossings in both socio-cultural and geographical contexts. The Border Pedagogy conceptual model takes into account the interrelationships of “curriculum, instructional practices, and the knowledge base that interplay to create a unique set of
conditions that could result in more appropriate schooling in the borderlands” (Cline & Necochea, 2003, p. 48). See figure 2.2.

![Border Pedagogy Conceptual Model](image)

**Figure 2.2** Border Pedagogy Conceptual Model (Cline & Necochea, 2003)

**Border Pedagogy Center Research Activity**

The actual borderlands require border-crossing activities that are similar to yet distinct from the idea of a metaphorical border crossing or an invisible line between cultures and/or different fields of research. It is the feeling of awkwardness experienced by the border crosser when he/she is in the unknown setting. In the borderlands, the powerful barriers that continue to promote inequity related to differences are particularly visible. The clash of dominant and subordinate cultural knowledge is evident because of the proximity of the two nations and presents a constant negotiation of borders of power. For example, while English and Spanish are both highly used languages within the borderland communities, English is the language of power and Spanish speakers are constantly required to cross language barriers because English is the language of
business, trade and economics. Numerous social, racial, and economic barriers in the borderlands require the metaphorical “border crossing” on a daily basis.

Borders are not just metaphorical. The border is an actual reality and border crossing a physical act. The frequent back and forth crossing of the physical border creates unique experiences for communities, educators and schools. The Border Pedagogy Institute, which had primarily been metaphorical in nature, was adapted to the geographical borderlands. In their adaptation of critical pedagogy, the Border Pedagogy Conceptual Model (Cline & Necochea, 2003) focused in on the social justice and equity issues rose by the physical border and life in the borderlands and noted how that added to the metaphorical concept of border pedagogy. All of the barriers of power that were identified as existing in larger society by the Border Pedagogy Initiative were similarly experienced in the microcosm of schools. The difficult bi-national issues found along the U.S. – Mexican border were vividly experienced in borderlands schools.

Border pedagogy is a way of looking at borderland education and is unique from other inquiries in that it looks at the educational experiences on both sides of the United States and Mexican borders. Issues of social injustice and inequity experienced in U.S. schools by Latino and immigrant students have historically been recorded in studies focused on the lack of progress for Latino students in U.S. schools, and the ongoing achievement gap (Valencia, 2002; Halcón, 2001). The challenge of social justice and equity for Latino and immigrant students is rooted in the social borders of privilege and discrimination (Romo, 2005; Suárez-Orozco, 2001; Orellana, 2001) compounded by the schooling experience of transnational students (Martinez, 1994; Jeffries, 2003). Within
the United States, borderland education is one of the most pressing issues of social justice and equity for transnational Latino immigrant students especially as reform policies and practices for English language learners (ELL) are implemented.

**Border Pedagogy Approach**

Border Pedagogy Initiative offers an alternative approach to current policies and practices that meets the educational needs to ELLs. The Tijuana/San Diego Border Pedagogy Initiative (BPI) approach helped create for instructors a habit of mind to respect and value Spanish language skills and the knowledge base that transnational Latino immigrant students bring with them to academic settings. Although researchers have explored border pedagogy as an educational approach in a variety of contexts at the university in the local border region, it has mainly been studied for its use in engaging college students in the understanding of what it is like to be on the other side of invisible, but very real, borders of difference. In so doing, educators invited their students to learn the importance of culture, language, and gain new understandings of the educational politics that drive every educational program in the world. The Cook (2000) study examined how non-immigrant undergraduate college students could learn to understand the immigrant experience. Over the course of five years, from 1993 to 1998, Cook conducted a qualitative study in which he collected data based on student work related to an assignment in his multicultural historical geography course. Cook assigned groups of students various countries to which they would hypothetically immigrate and he had them immerse themselves in knowledge about the country from the immigrant’s perspective. Cook guided their experiences of the new country with a variety of questions for the
groups to ponder. Students kept a journal in which they reflected on their “experiences” of group encounters. After small group explorations, the groups would share out the findings and insights they had gained regarding the immigrant experience. The Cook study exemplifies border pedagogy in practice. The assignment forced the students to “cross borders” by using a different lenses to understand the reality of immigrants and immigration.

Another study by Hayes and Cuban (1996) also explored the possibilities of using border pedagogy in their practice. In their qualitative study of a service-learning course that college students took while attending a university pre-service teaching program, the instructor gathered data on students’ experiences tutoring illiterate adults in the community over the course of one year. The goal of the study was to explore the impact of these tutoring experiences on students’ developing understandings of adult literacy issues. The service learning experiences required students to think metaphorically of the tutoring as “border crossing,” with their classroom as “home base” and their community as the borderlands. “While the students tutored the adults who were illiterate, they kept a journal of their “border crossing” experiences, wrote a final reflective paper and participated in an exit interview” (Hayes & Cuban, 1996, p. 1). Hayes and Cuban (1996) study found that these activities transformed student understandings about the role of culture in literacy and in literacy programs. Their experiences also deepened their critical thinking about the politics of literacy.

These two studies explored the use of border pedagogy as a tool to expose the invisible borders consisting of social, racial and economic barriers. Both studies found
that the border crossing metaphor could be effectively applied within an educational context in order to increase students’ awareness and facilitate their understanding of crossing these barriers. Most importantly, the border pedagogy metaphor gave students a different lens to understand the differences they encountered and the identities being formed within the context of the cultural and social borders being explored.

**Historical Background of the Border Pedagogy Initiative**

The studies discussed above, explored the border pedagogy approach in the metaphorical borderlands of university and community contexts outside of geographical border regions. Other studies have explored the border pedagogy approach in the geographical borderlands, in particular the San Diego/Tijuana Border region. Based on the results of the studies discussed previously, as well as the research of Cline and Necochea (2003), the Border Pedagogy Conceptual Model emphasized that education in the borderlands requires an approach that responds to the unique opportunities and challenges related to living on visible, as well as invisible, “borders.” The following studies further demonstrate the differences of teaching in a border region. The studies emerged out of the activities of the Center for the Study of Border Pedagogy at California State University San Marcos, located in the San Diego/Tijuana border region. The Center worked together with the educational system on the Mexican side of the border to bring educators from both sides of the border together to engage in a wide variety of activities, including seminars, face-to-face conversations, and other experiences such as sharing one’s responses in written and lyrical compositions.
These artifacts constituted the data bank for this research. The border pedagogy seminars were nontraditional in that they valued the borderland teachers’ own inquiries and knowledge base while facilitating round table conversations, in which teachers explored how both educational systems, could address the unique needs of students in the border region to prepare students for the 21st century.

These seminars exposed the common myths teachers had about each other’s educational systems, such as the notion that students coming from one system into the other had weak and/or little knowledge of concepts taught at any grade level. The conversations provided opportunities for participants to demystify their perceptions of each system and to discover the similarities they shared in spite of their students’ movements across the border. Seminar participants exchanged solutions and ideas for the common issues found on each side of the border. They took the ideas and modeled teaching strategies, such as, cooperative grouping, in their classrooms and schools, and implemented them to benefit a small portion of the borderland students. Teachers felt that policy makers needed to recognize the economic value brought to the borderlands by having well educated Latino immigrant students in the borderlands, who had developed the bicultural, bilingual and bi-literacy skills required to do every day business in the border region.

A study by Reyes and Garza (2005) found that teachers in the borderlands had unique opportunities and challenges teaching in the border region. Their study of “eleven teachers, six from Tijuana and five from San Diego area,“ (p. 158) provided insights based on borderlands educators’ own observations and insights. In particular, their study
looked at what educators on both sides of the border experienced as teachers. They found that educators from both sides of the border had similar concerns about the education of their students. Their findings showed:

a. the need for culturally relevant and critical learning curriculum to meet the unique needs of students in the border regions;

b. that teachers from both sides of the border have mutual concerns about providing the best education for their students;

c. that teachers need more opportunities for cultural and educational exchanges; and,

d. that the border pedagogy initiative undertaken by California State University San Marcos and Universidad Ibero Americana afforded them an important forum for exchanging ideas that are proven beneficial in their classroom (p. 160)

**Teacher Knowledge and Skills for Border Pedagogy Educators**

At the heart of the border pedagogy approach are border pedagogy educators who deeply understand that the cultures and languages of immigrant students are integrally related to their academic development. Effective border pedagogy educators understand that knowing about the process of language acquisition and the development of biculturalism facilitates the success of immigrant students in learning English.

Quiocho and Ulanoff (2009) argued that differentiated instruction for ELLs takes into account students’ cultural background and is culturally responsive. They stated, “the needs of ELLs are very different and must be based on their language acquisition, content mastery, and background experiences” (p. 7). Quiocho and Ulanoff (2009) explained how culturally responsive instruction includes students’ languages and cultures, and that
understanding the funds of knowledge students bring to class, is a critical component that must be used to foster their academic development in light of their knowledge of themselves, their communities, and their worlds. Culturally responsive educators “know how to design culturally relevant curricula and critique existing curricula for biases and stereotypes” (p. 29). For example, teachers are able to better differentiate instruction for transnational Latino immigrant ELLs as a result of understanding the first language abilities of the students. The teacher is able to build on students’ prior knowledge related to language and literacy and use students’ areas of strength to support their academic progress in reading and writing.

In a qualitative research study featuring ELLs of Mexican decent in Southern California elementary schools, the benefits of culturally responsive differentiated instruction were verified by empirical evidence (Santamaría, 2009). Findings from this study indicated that not only did culturally responsive and differentiated instruction benefit ELLs, but also that the careful hybridization of particular kinds of culturally responsive teaching benefitted ELLs with special needs. These findings indicated that culturally responsive teaching is particularly essential for meeting Latino immigrant and transnational students’ needs. Unfortunately, when students move to a new school across the border, their funds of knowledge are all too often not acknowledged, and therefore their teachers see them as students with deficits in language and academics.

In another study by Cline and Necochea (2006), they looked at what teachers needed to know to be able to effectively implement a border pedagogy approach. They explored teachers’ own understandings of the unique qualities of effective borderlands
educators in border region schools. The researchers gathered qualitative data from participant educators (20 from the San Diego area and 20 from Tijuana) on both sides of the U.S. and Mexican border that participated in conferences, institutes and seminars. Cline and Necochea (2006) found several qualities that distinguished effective teachers in the borderlands from other educators. These qualities included “a disposition to have an open mind to the culture and language of their Latino immigrant and transnational students; a flexibility to adapt to students’ movements back and forth across the border; a commitment to better themselves through professional development; and most importantly, a passion to teach in the borderlands and an appreciation of its rich linguistic and cultural heritage” (p. 272-278). The authors argued that while these qualities are rarely required and frequently unacknowledged in schools, they are the very qualities that borderland teachers need in order to facilitate the academic success of their transnational Latino immigrant students. Implementing, the border pedagogy approach, based on critical pedagogy, is best accomplished by teachers with this additional knowledge base.

**Conclusion and Future Areas of Research**

Researching Border Pedagogy in the border region is a topic that is my passion because of the number of transnational students I have observed moving back and forth between systems in my sixteen years as a bilingual teacher. This passion was intensified through my participation in the seminars of the Border Pedagogy Institute at California State University San Marcos, Universidad Iberoamericana (Iberoamericana University), and Universidad Pedagógica Nacional (Pedagógica Nacional University) (Cline, Necochea, Prado-Olmos, & Halcón 2003) where teachers from the border region of San
Diego, California, USA and Tijuana, Baja California, Mexico shared their concerns and willingness to talk about the common denominator we have, “the students.” The Café Model (Necochea & Cline, 2008) stimulated conversations using questions based on common themes affecting binational students and their education. It is my desire to bring the border region to the forefront through this study. This study can provide pedagogical information for the research community and policy makers on both sides of the border (physical and metaphoric) about the education, equity and social justice practices best suited for transnational students in the borderland.

Border pedagogy provided a framework to analyze borderlands education. The border pedagogy approach has a strong connection to the ideal instructional approach needed in the border region for transnational Latino immigrants who move between the San Diego/Tijuana schools. Border pedagogy provides teachers the opportunity to learn to understand and value the Spanish language skills and knowledge base that transnational Latino immigrant students bring with them to the academic setting.

Immigrating between countries is a phenomenon that has a strong impact on children and the schools they attend. These school experiences need to change from negative to positive experiences through the understanding of the culture, knowledge, and other background information students bring to school. School experiences need to be positive and the only way to make them positive is by allowing students to be who they are. Schools do not need to assimilate students. They need to educate them using their background and prior knowledge and providing resources to take them from where they are to help them get wherever and as far as they want to go.
Finally, teacher preparation and instructional strategies are important elements to the success of ELLs. This preparation must include the skills and instructional strategies necessary for new and experienced teachers to provide the differentiation of instruction and a culturally responsive curriculum for transnational Latino immigrant ELL students. Differentiated instruction has its place in the education of borderland students. It has to address language acquisition needs, cultural backgrounds, and English language development for transnational Latino immigrant ELLs. Thus, border students can benefit from the experiences and skills of well-trained and prepared teachers who choose to teach in the borderlands.

Teaching ELLs has raised many questions for me. Some of these questions were explored in border pedagogy conversations that generated possible answers and at the same time created other questions to be researched. The fact that there are no educational provisions in NAFTA to address the needs of immigrants who come to the border region looking for a better way of life due to trade, movement, and manufacturing of goods means that assistance has to be found elsewhere. This immigration to the border did not just bring laborers; it also brought the families of the laborers and the need to educate their children. The challenge then, is to serve and educate this new population that has developed as a result of the NAFTA trade treaty. The literature review and exploration of border pedagogy substantiates the need for research in the border pedagogy areas. There is a need to document the knowledge of teachers who have attended the boarder pedagogy seminars and how the experiences of the Institute helped their beliefs and practices in the instruction of transnational Latino immigrant ELLs students.
The goal for this study was to collect data from research on twelve classroom teachers, six from San Diego and six from Tijuana Mexico, who have been trained in and practice border pedagogy strategies. I want to know how their classroom practices have changed and to what degree these changes have affected the success of their ELL students.

The research questions of this study are: In what ways did educators who received professional development, through the Border Pedagogy Initiative, transform their educational practices in the classroom? And, in what ways have the practices used in the border pedagogy program helped transform current educational experiences for Latino immigrant and transnational students learning English and Spanish in the classroom?

The initial research questions have stimulated other questions, such as: Do borderland teachers really understand the needs of Latino immigrant and transnational student who live in the borderland? In what ways do the countries (U.S. and Mexico) use border pedagogy skills and strategies to promote teacher understanding through professional development? What are the effects of the border pedagogy training on the classroom practices of teachers who have been involved in the training over time? Do they persist in using the instructional practice because they believe in them and see positive results for their students or do they give up because the teaching is very challenging?
CHAPTER 3

Methods

The previous chapter reviewed the research of the historical background of border pedagogy and documented its birth in critical pedagogy in a postmodernism theoretical framework. Postmodernism “favors a socially constructed education, lifelong learning, informal experiences and multicultural education where relationships within and across groups are raised to consciousness, deconstructed, and reconstructed, often with the goal of political and social transformation” (Young, 2003, p. 95).

Due to the scarcity of studies conducted on border pedagogy as a unique instructional design to address the needs of exceptional transnational students, the Border Pedagogy Initiative is one of the first clear efforts to analyze and address the needs of students in the borderlands of San Diego/Tijuana. Little is known, however, about the Border Pedagogy Initiative and what role it plays in influencing teacher instruction on both sides of the border to educate transnational Latino immigrant students.

The purpose of this study is to inform the educational field about the effects of actively addressing the needs of these unique students. We know that what teachers do in their classrooms affect students positively or negatively. Therefore, this study would not be complete without looking at how the participants in the Border Pedagogy Seminars implemented the strategies learned in the project in their classrooms on both sides of the border.

This study is a single qualitative case study defined by Yin (2009) as “an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life
context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident” (p. 18). It is a comprehensive approach to examining a single instance or time in which the topic is important to the researcher as a data source to inform the scientific community, policy makers, and educators about a specific phenomenon. In this case, the phenomenon being observed is the application of best practices for students who freely move across the border (transnational students), a situation very different from teaching Spanish speakers who were raised in this country and remained in this country. Education has used case studies to provide research about student learning, innovative reforms, educational policies, and professional development for teachers (Merriman, 1998). Miles and Huberman (1994) described the case study “as a phenomenon of some sort occurring in a bounded context” (p. 25). For purposes of this study, the bounded context is the training teachers received in border pedagogy through the Border Pedagogy Initiative and how that training affected the academic achievement of transnational students.

A qualitative single case study “optimizes understanding by pursuing scholarly research questions” that will gain validity by paying close attention to: “choice of issue, triangulation, experiential knowledge, context, and activities” (Stake, 2005, p. 443-444). Therefore this study will help researchers in the educational field gain a deeper understanding of the ways teachers used modeled border pedagogy strategies, based on the theory of critical pedagogy, to transform their classroom practices. How do these strategies help English learners and Spanish learners in their classrooms to achieve success? The case study approach provided this researcher with the tools to gain a better understanding of the transformation that attendees, on both sides of the border,
experienced as teachers of transnational students after they attended border pedagogy seminars.

The organization of this chapter includes: a description of the research design; the selected research questions; data collection procedures; and ethical considerations, such as respecting the rights of participants, honoring research sites and reporting research fully and honestly (Creswell, 2008 p. 11).

**Research Design**

Research design is the use of empirical research to guide the researcher in a logical process of investigation, a “blue print” following a specific path, which includes dealing “with at least four problems: what questions to study, what data are relevant, what data to collect, and how to analyze the results” (Yin, 2009, p. 26). The central focus of this study was the impact that the implementation of strategies modeling best practices for a unique population of students had on the everyday instructional practices of teachers and the academic achievement of their students. Using demographic questionnaires, paired individual interviews, and documents from the Center of Border Pedagogy at CSUSM, this study posed the following two research questions.

**Research Questions**

The case study research questions are:

*In what ways do educators who have received professional development through the Border Pedagogy Project transform their educational practices in the classroom?*
In what ways have the practices modeled in the Border Pedagogy Project help transform current educational experiences for Latino immigrant and transnational students learning English and/or Spanish in the classroom?

Participants

Participants were chosen by an initial call for participation through email and recommendation of the Directors of the Center for Border Pedagogy at CSUSM in the San Diego area and Directors of the Universidad Ibero Americana (University Ibero Americana), as well as the Sistema Educativo Estatal de Baja California (Educational System of the State of Baja California). The participants met two basic criteria: a) they must have participated in two or more of the border pedagogy activities; and b) they must have knowledge of the border pedagogy and the Border Pedagogy Initiative in the San Diego/Tijuana border region. Limited research exists on educating Latino immigrant students in the border regions.

The participants, from each side of the border, were provided with a Participant Consent Form (Appendixes E and F), which provided details of the purpose and procedures of the study. The consent form also provided the interviewees with a confidentiality clause and the right for them to withdraw their consent for participation at any time. Confidentiality of interviews was also maintained through the use of pseudo-names on the consent form. There were no known risks or discomforts associated with this research study. Ultimately, the Participant Consent Form provided the researcher a written acceptance indicating that subjects were voluntarily choosing to participate in the study and have their interviews audio taped and videotaped.
Data Collection Procedure

The case study protocol of this study was designed to provide a forum for participants in the border region of San Diego/Tijuana to share their own experiences and the academic progress of their students after use of the strategies learned in more than one border pedagogy seminar. Data were collected using the following instruments:

1. A demographic questionnaire
2. Paired Interviews
3. Documents: Border Pedagogy documents to validate trainings teachers received, teacher plans, and Institute attendance sheets
4. Audio and video tape recordings

Demographic Questionnaire

The demographic questionnaire (Appendixes C and D) was sent to every participant electronically. They were asked to return it either electronically or on the day of the interview. The demographic questionnaire collected personal data on the participants as described by Fogg, Marshall, Laraki, Osipovich, Varma, Fang, Paul, Rangnekar, Shon, Swani, Treinen (2001) and Stanton (1998). The first set of questions was personal, such as name, address, and gender. The second set of questions was related to their language abilities and the frequency with which they cross the border themselves. The third set of questions collected their time (longevity) teaching and grade levels taught. The fourth set of questions asked participants to describe their personal experiences in the Border Pedagogy Initiative.
Interviews

Interviews provided another data source that can “be used neutrally for scientific purposes” (Fontana & Frey, 2005, p.695) For the purpose of this study, the paired interviews followed the Appreciative Inquiry approach, which provides “a means for addressing issues, challenges, and concerns of an organization in ways to build on the success, effective, and energizing experiences of their members” (Preskill & Catsamba, 2006, p.2). These open-ended questions and a flexible worded approach provided a positive lens, which gave the researcher the opportunity to ask follow up questions and probing questions. Kvale’s research (1996) on protocol analysis provided tools for ways to address culling data from the research questions of this case study. All interviews conducted were audio taped and videotaped.

Six paired interviews with six teacher participants from the San Diego area and six participants from the Tijuana area were conducted. These paired interviews were with teachers from San Diego paired with San Diego’s teachers and teachers from Tijuana with Tijuana’s teachers. The researcher, through emails, contacted interviewees. Contact information was obtained from seminar sign in sheets. In the initial email search, the potential participants were asked to provide their telephone numbers for further communication.

Once, they were identified, participants were contacted, by the researcher, to share the research topic, the rationale for the research and the research questions. Each potential interviewee was provided with a Participant Consent Form (PCF) in their primary or native languages (Appendices E and F). The PCF provided written
information about the purpose of the study, the risks and benefits of the study, the
confidentiality clause, that participation in the study was voluntary, the names of contacts
(researcher, advisor, and IRB), and questions related to the study, as well as a statement
of consent to participate in the study.

The interviews were conducted in-person, in the native language of the
interviewee English (Appendix A) or Spanish (Appendix B), and at a time and location
that was non-threatening, comfortable and convenient for all participants. Each interview
was recorded and videotaped, which took approximately two hours. The interviews were
conducted between May and November of 2010. The researcher traveled to the Tijuana
area to conduct the face-to-face interviews. In the San Diego area, the researcher met
interviewees in a designated quiet restaurant convenient for them.

At the time of their selection and prior to the interview, the interviewees were
informed of their rights, the protocol procedures of the interview, and their consent for
the researcher to record and videotape the interview. They also were provided with the
appreciative inquiry open-ended questions. In addition, this research applied a variety of
questioning techniques as described by Kvale (1996): follow up questions, probing
questions, specifying questions, and directing questions. The interview protocol followed
a progression of an interview process with interview questions (Appendices A and B).

Focus Groups

The original plan included focus groups as an additional means of collecting data
in larger groups – beyond individual interviews. Focus groups were not conducted
because the occupations of the interviewees and locations of residence made it impossible to create the group composition that I had originally planned to use. In lieu of participating in focus groups, participants wanted to be interviewed with a partner, which meant that both had to agree on a time and place for the interviews.

**Documents**

Documents are a type of data that participants respond to and have been acted upon. Documents take on many forms, which permit the researcher to obtain the written perspective of participants (Creswell, 2008). Documentary information helps a case study “to corroborate and augment evidence from other sources” (Yin, 2009, p. 103).

Documents are also a form of evidence that can be used to triangulate data collected from another sources. For the purpose of this study the following documentation was collected from the Center of the Border Pedagogy Center at CSUSM:

a. Documents that identified how the Border Pedagogy was developed and how those values and beliefs were infused into all the seminars and designed to be carried over to the classrooms by the participants.

b. Documents developed by the teachers in the form of unit lesson plans used in classrooms on both sides of the border.

c. Attendance lists that identified the participants in Border Pedagogy Project activities to assist with attaining the names of “eligible” participants.

A systematic search in the field for relevant documents that informed an understanding of the role of the Border Pedagogy Initiative was engaged in as preparation for this case study. Documents collected for this study corroborated and supported
evidence from other data sources specifically, the interviews (Creswell, 2008; Merriam, 1998; Yin 2009). Documents verified names, correct titles, and types of strategies used in BP activities. Inferences were drawn from the documents, such as the interpretation of the value and influence border pedagogy and the Border Pedagogy Initiative had on participants as indicated by interviews. Inferences were used as a means to recommend further research.

**Audio and Videotape Recordings**

Each participant was provided with a consent form (Appendices C and D). The consent form contained the request for permission to audiotape and videotape the interviews. The audio taped and videotaped recordings of the interviews allowed the researcher to remain focused and engaged in the dynamics of the interviews. Taped data sources also gave the researcher the freedom from taking field notes during the interviews. Participants’ facial and vocal expressions were more closely observed as a result of using taped data sources.

The researcher’s field notes included observation of real time activities that occurred during the interviews as a means to capture the entire picture of what was actually occurring. Field notes helped the researcher to more clearly describe the environment (excitement, tensions, pacing) and physical gestures of participants. Field note observations were compared with the researcher’s “labeling” of participants’ responses to questions and probes.
Once the interviews were completed, the researcher contacted an acquaintance proficient in Spanish to transcribe verbatim the Spanish video-recorded paired interviews. The qualifications were acceptable to the researcher because of this person’s vocation as secretary, recorder and transcriber for the Universidad Nacional Autónoma de Mexico (Mexico National Autonomy University). The researcher transcribed the English videotaped interviews verbatim. The combination of audio and videotaped interviews provided the researcher with a better understanding of the depth of information each interviewee shared in answer to the research questions.

**Data Analysis**

Once the data were collected, the researcher followed a systematic and disciplined process to bring order to the information collected (Patton, 1990; Shulman, 1997; Lauer, 2004).

The researcher analyzed, interpreted and reduced the data by coding categories and groups, all groups and categories were organized into manageable levels by narrowing and identifying patterns to develop a meaningful framework of the data (Patton, 1990; Creswell, 2008; Lauer, 2004). Patterns identified were: teachers’ experiences in Border Pedagogy activities, teachers’ changes in their classroom practices, and students’ changes toward school in academics as observed by their teachers in their academic success, improvement in their (students’) self esteem as demonstrated by their pride to use and say that they were proficient in two languages, and the demonstration of students to risk take using language to express their ideas and opinions. This process of developing a meaningful framework of data provided ways in which conclusions were
drawn and verified. The researcher followed the process of qualitative analysis data by coding each interview and assigning labels or codes to the data to facilitate the search for specific text or words (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The researcher coded the interviews by hand. The initial open coding involved reading the transcribed interviews line-by-line looking for participants’ actual words and/or phrases (i.e. strategies, learning, becoming more sensitive). This coding approach is referred to as *in vivo codes* (Creswell, 2008; Saldaña, 2009).

The researcher created coding categories for groups and searched through the data to locate specific text or words to facilitate organization of the data (Creswell, 2008), such as, sharing ideas, teacher interaction, similarities, helping the same students, understanding the students. Qualitative interviews can provide a researcher with themes and sub-themes about strategies teachers learned at the Border Pedagogy Project and used in their classrooms. Themes were formed when a word and a phrase was used by the participants more than ten times, for example culture, educational systems, face-to-face conversations, friendship, same students. Data were presented in matrices, graphs, and charts showing patterns that identified the findings in the data collected. According to Miles and Huberman (1994), qualitative data can be validated when conclusions drawn by the research are verified by the emergence of patterns and trends in the data. Thus, data can be presented in matrices to insure that the manner in which the data inform the research can be visible and understandable to others.

For the purpose of this study, a combination of subjective and investigative approaches were used to develop a Tijuana/San Diego Border Pedagogy Model
(T/SDBPM), specific to teaching strategies designed to educate the unique Latino immigrant students in the borderlands. Therefore, observations, field notes when appropriate, video and audio tapes, numbers of participants, trends in demographic makeup and other self reported data provided the researcher a lens with which to view the value of the Border Pedagogy Initiative.

This study provided a snap shot of teaching practices in the borderlands, by teachers who attended border pedagogy activities. The research looked at whether teachers implemented border pedagogy strategies in their classrooms, noted improvement in their students and whether they attributed factors of student success to the Border Pedagogy Project. Furthermore this study sought to identify the degree to which teachers followed and changed their instructional practices to support their transnational students.

**Validity of the Study**

The validity and reliability of the qualitative data depended on the ability and skills of the researcher along with the methodology used by the researcher (Patton, 1990). Following Patton’s view of validity and reliability, this study solely depended on the researcher’s ability to interpret the data collected. This study used a systematic and structured interview process as well as observational techniques to generate findings that would be considered credible through the lenses of qualitative methods. Since this qualitative method focused on six paired interviews of teachers, three in Tijuana, Mexico and three in San Diego, in the primary language of the teachers, the validity of this qualitative study depended on the skills and thoroughness of the researcher’s work conducting dual interviews in the field.
There were other factors that may have affected the validity of this qualitative research study. First, the researcher who conducted this study participated in the CSUSM Border Pedagogy Initiative since its inception in May 2001.

Second, the researcher teaches Latino immigrant students and is an English learner himself, living in the borderlands. He has experienced the unique learning styles and needs of borderland students. He has also looked for a unique instructional curriculum for borderland students in his classroom and in his district. The language acquisition of borderland students as well as the recognition of their cultural and language backgrounds was a critical consideration in developing any curriculum. Thus, it was imperative for the researcher to monitor his emotions and prejudices during data collection.

The last validity factor was the narrow pool for the selection of participants for this study because of the qualifying criterion that participants have attended at least two or more professional development training sessions in the Border Pedagogy Initiative. There were twelve participants in the entire study. The collection of the data through the paired interviews was specific and focused, allowing participants to provide rich descriptions and information drawn from their experiences.

**Limitations**

Due to the small number of participants, the findings of this case study cannot be generalized to the larger population because it provided a snap shot of a larger community of teachers who serve Latino immigrant student populations in the
Tijuana/San Diego border region. Another limitation was the researcher’s potential bias as a former participant and presenter in the Border Pedagogy seminars. His inside and first-hand knowledge could have interfered with the interview process, although this knowledge also permitted insights about the Border Pedagogy Initiative that also enhance the goals of the study. The researcher maintained an ethical protocol by consistently observing the question protocol (direct question followed by a probe when appropriate, based on the participants’ responses).

*Ethical Procedures*

Ethical procedures are an important component of researching, collecting data, the ethics of the researcher, and the full engagement of the participants in order to insure the integrity of the study.

This study applied ethical precautions at all stages of the study to protect participants from any negative consequences resulting from the study. The interviews entailed both benefits and risks for the interviewees. Interviewees were made aware that their participation was voluntary. They had the power to stop the interview at any time or not answer any of the questions posed in the interviews. They also had the choice to withdraw from the study at any time, and all the data collected from their participation was returned and/or destroyed.

Research data collected were stored in a locked storage cabinet at the researcher’s home, and data stored in researcher’s computer had password-protected access. These
data were viewed and accessed only by the researcher and the dissertation committee chairperson.

**Summary**

The purpose of this qualitative study was to look at teachers who attended CSUSM Border Pedagogy Initiative activities, and how they have changed their teaching practices in their classrooms for Latino immigrant students living in the borderlands. This case study drew conclusions from the data collected through the demographic questionnaire and six paired interviews from teachers teaching in the border region of Tijuana/San Diego who served border students attending schools in both systems. The data were triangulated using documents from the Border Pedagogy Center.

The growth in the border region of Latino immigrant students presents a unique educational situation for educators in the border region. The results of analyses of data sources are presented in the following chapter.
CHAPTER 4

Results

The previous chapters of this study described the need to inform scientific, political and decision-making groups in the United States and Mexico about the current policies that affect the education of Transnational Latino immigrant (TLI) students in the border region of Tijuana, Mexico and San Diego, California, USA. This study was conducted to add to the limited research about best practices to support the academic achievement of TLI students using the principles of the California State University of San Marcos, Border Pedagogy Initiative as a guiding framework. This chapter provides a brief review of the purpose of the study, the research questions and the methodology, followed by an analysis of the case study data sources: interviews, and documents from the Border Pedagogy Center. Data were triangulated for purposes of contrastive analysis.

This case study was conducted to gain a deeper understanding of the ways in which teachers transformed their instructional practices in their classrooms based on the training in critical pedagogy they received from the Border Pedagogy Initiative. Further inquiry was pursued to ascertain whether BP strategies helped English learners and Spanish learners on both sides of the border achieve academic success in their classrooms.

The research questions for this case study were:

*In what ways do educators who have received professional development through the Border Pedagogy Project transform their educational practices in the classroom?*
In what ways did the practices modeled in the Border Pedagogy Initiative help transform current educational experiences for Latino immigrant and transnational students learning English and/or Spanish in the classroom?

Setting

The seminars and activities organized by the Border Pedagogy Center at California State University, San Marcos constituted one of the critical data sources for this study. Data collection occurred during the months of May 2010 through November 2010. Interviews were conducted at locations convenient for the participants on both sides of the border. Interviews had to be conducted outside of school hours and away from school sites at other suitable locations due to the diversity of the participants’ work places and work schedules. Interviews were conducted in quiet restaurants.

Since the study was specifically done in the San Diego and Tijuana regions, each group of participants was interviewed in their native language. The value of primary language usage stemmed from BP’s support of the use of primary language to facilitate communication and understanding for all people. Thus the participation of the Tijuana educators was facilitated by BP’s values and beliefs of quality learning.

This chapter analyzes teachers’ responses that described the changes teacher participants made in classroom instruction based on the awareness of the linguistic needs of their TLI students. Data was analyzed based on personal and professional surveys of teachers’ experiences in the Border Pedagogy Project, interviews about the effect of the training and documents verifying the professional development seminars in the Border Pedagogy Project.
Data Collection Methods

The data collection resulted from: (1) a demographic questionnaire that provided written personal and professional information from twelve Border Pedagogy (BP) Project participants; (2) six structured video interviews consisting of two participants in each interview; and (3) documents including descriptions of BP seminars and activities collected from the Border Pedagogy Center. The three data sources were triangulated.

Participant Survey Data Analysis and Findings

The 12 participants in this case study each received a demographic questionnaire. Six participants were educators from Tijuana and Tecate, Mexico and six were educators from San Diego County. Each participant had participated in at least two seminars consisting of modeled instructional activities at the Border Pedagogy Center. There were seven female participants and five male participants. The demographic results are displayed below in Table 4.1 and summarized. For confidentiality purposes the participants names were replaced with a surname (see Table 4.1).
Table 4.1 Border Pedagogy Participation and Experience Information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Bilingual</th>
<th>Years of</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>In Border</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pedro</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>5 - 10</td>
<td>K – 8</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maria</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>More than 10</td>
<td>K – 5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jessica</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>5 - 10</td>
<td>K – 5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>1 - 5</td>
<td>3 – 5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liz</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>More than 10</td>
<td>K - 5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luisa</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>More than 10</td>
<td>K – 5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irma</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>More than 10</td>
<td>K – 2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luis</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>5 - 10</td>
<td>3 – 5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Steve</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>More than 10</td>
<td>K – 12</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roman</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>5 - 10</td>
<td>6 – 8</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rose</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>More than 10</td>
<td>K – 8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annie</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>More than 10</td>
<td>K – 8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The primary language spoken by most of the participants was Spanish, 92 percent (11 out of 12). Eight out of 12 were considered bilingual or 67 percent of the participants. Their teaching experiences were diverse, that is, seven of the twelve had more than ten years of experience (58%); four of the twelve fell in the range of 5-10 (42%); and one of the twelve fell in the range of 1-5 years of experience (8%). The ranges of grade levels taught were as follows: nine of the twelve or (75%) taught kindergarten through fifth
grade. One or (8%) of the twelve participants taught Prekindergarten and one (8%) taught in the range of third to fifth grade. Six of the twelve teachers (50%) had experience teaching grades six to eight; and finally, one of the twelve (8%) taught grades nine to twelve (see Table 4.1).

One criterion for participation in the study was that each participant was to have participated in at least two of the Border Pedagogy Center activities. The range of the participation indicated that 17% or (2 of the 12 subjects) had participated twice; five of twelve or (42%) had participated three times and 33% or (4 out of the 12 subjects) had participated five times.

Other important information gathered from this survey referred to the primary language knowledge and the second language abilities in speaking and listening, reading, and writing of each participant as self reported in the questionnaire. Participants graded themselves on a range of one to five where one was the lowest level and five the highest level of language proficiency in the primary language of the (TLI) students (Spanish) (see Table 4.2).
Table 4.2 Teacher’s Self-Reported Proficiency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Level 1</th>
<th>Level 2</th>
<th>Level 3</th>
<th>Level 4</th>
<th>Level 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Spanish</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking and Listening</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>English</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking and Listening</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The knowledge of the primary language among the 12 participants was very strong since Spanish was the primary language for the majority of the educators (see Table 4.1). The participants’ abilities to speak and listen in Spanish were 25% at level 4 or (3 out of 12) and 75% at level 5 or (9 out of 12), while one of twelve (8%) listed their proficiency at level 1, two of the participants rated themselves at level 2, or (17%) one subject rated his or her proficiency at level 3, or (8%); three rated themselves at level 4, or (25%); and five of twelve (42%) rated themselves as proficient in speaking and listening in English. In reading proficiency, four out of twelve participants reported to be at level 4 (33%), and 50% or six out of twelve participants reported to be at level 5. When self reporting about both reading and writing as one category, 50% or six out of twelve participants rated themselves as level 5 in reading and writing proficiency.
Participants’ self-reporting results also indicated that subjects felt they possessed similar language speaking abilities in English as they did in Spanish.

On the other hand, their proficiency in reading and writing as self reported was very diverse: One of the twelve participants or (8%) of the group reported to be at level one in reading, two of the twelve (17%) reported to be at level 1 in writing; two out of twelve or (17%) rated themselves as level 2 in both reading and writing; and four of twelve (33%) rated themselves as level 4 and 5 respectively in reading and writing.

**Document Data Analysis and Findings**

Document analysis provided this researcher a way to triangulate the data from the survey and the paired interviews data to provide transparency and increase the trustworthiness of the results (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Ten historical and contemporary documents provided additional data for this grounded theory analysis. These documents included the agendas of Border Pedagogy (BP) events, the written products resulting from BP events, the videos of conversations at BP events and the reflections of educators at BP events. In the following section, the researcher discusses the evidence from the document analysis about the four categorical and theoretical codes. The four categories of findings that resulted from analyses of the documents are: educational systems, cultural sensitivity, conversation, and language acquisition. The findings in each of these categories are reported below.

*Educational Systems*
“Educational systems” is one of the categories of findings that emerged from analysis of documents. The similarities and differences between educational systems on both sides of the border was a main topic found in Border Pedagogy (BP) documents. In particular, the documents resulting from two BP seminars, which took place both in Tijuana and at CSUSM, addressed the topic of educational programs.

The first finding in this category is the similarities that participants discovered between the two systems. When participants compared the Reading/Language Arts Framework for California Public Schools (K-12), (1999) from the California education system and the Programas de Estudio de Español: Educación Primaria de la Secretaria de Educación Pública (Study Programs of Spanish: Primary Education (1-6) from the Bureau of Public Education), (2000) from the Mexican education system, they discovered that the educational programs were very similar. The following table shows some of the similarities found in the language arts programs California U.S. and Mexico in the documents cited above (see table 4.3). The programs were similar in terms of the content taught and differed only in the manner in which content areas were addressed at different grade levels.

The second finding, in this category is the differences in the origins of the educational programs on each side of the border. In the United States; programs are developed by states whereas programs in Mexico’s were developed nationally. The centralized educational system in Mexico lacked flexibility especially for the challenges teachers faced in their borderlands classrooms.
Table 4.3 Similarities between Reading/Language Arts Framework for California Public Schools, K-12, Language Arts and Programs de Estudio de Español: Educación Primaria de la Secretaria de Educación Pública, 1-6 (Study Programs of Spanish: Primary Education, 1-6)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concept</th>
<th>California</th>
<th>Mexico</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alphabetical system</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reading

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concept</th>
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<th>Mexico</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phonetic system</td>
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<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syllabic system</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punctuations</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reading Genres

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fiction</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Fiction</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Writing

<table>
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<tr>
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<th>Mexico</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Friendly Letter</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persuasive</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literary response</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Research presentations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concept</th>
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<th>Mexico</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Oral</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Written</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Cultural Sensitivity**

“Cultural Sensitivity” is one of the categories of findings that emerged from analysis of documents. The notion of cultural sensitivity as a central component of social justice and equity (SJE) was a main topic found in Border Pedagogy (BP) documents.

The first finding in this category is the role that cultural sensitivity plays in educational equity. The documents showed that the participants’ responses to questions about SJE consistently included the need for educators to be sensitive to the cultural backgrounds of students. Participants emphasized that a culturally sensitive curriculum was essential for equal access to the core curriculum and central to any programs designed for borderland students.

**Conversation**

“Conversation” is one of the categories of findings that emerged from analysis of documents. The use of conversation as a strategy to engage Border Pedagogy (BP) participants from both sides of the border was a main topic found in BP documents.

The first finding in this category is that face-to-face conversations were integral to all BP events. BP documents revealed that at every BP event, a variety of strategies were used to engage participants in conversations. For example, quick writes were used to provide an open dialogue for all participants to share their own points of view on a topic. In addition, questions prompted conversation in round table discussions where participants expressed their thoughts and came to consensus about the topics under discussion.
The second finding in this category was that conversation generated for participants a common ground that lead to collaborative work. As educators from both sides of the border talked openly about their professions and the students they served, they saw not only how and why they were different but also how and why they were similar.

The documents showed the growing belief that participants had a great deal in common with each other because they all worked in the unique setting of the border region. The documents demonstrated the collaborative work that educators created as a result of their interactions. For example, together they developed strategies and lesson plans and visited each other’s classrooms on both sides of the border. In addition, some BP participants planned similar lessons, taught in each other’s classrooms, shared the results and had their students exchange correspondence.

**Language Acquisition**

In the category of “Language Acquisition”, there were three main findings. The first finding was the demands placed on students to perform in the dominant national language. US teachers reported how difficult mandated testing was for English learners newly arrived in the country. One US participant said, “They are being tested, even though that they might not understand or know the curriculum. We are doing a disservice to them because it’s obvious they don’t know the material” (Interview, October 28, 2010). Teachers on the Mexican side of the border similarly reported that newcomer
Spanish learners returning to Mexico had difficulty performing in the subjects of reading and comprehension in Spanish. One Mexican participant commented:

... pero, sin embargo los niños no tienen esa capacidad [del idioma], entonces cuando ellos ven una palabra al traducirla ya les cambió todo el contexto entonces [el maestro] dices no esta aprendiendo no esta comprendiendo su lectura. Su lectura de comprensión [del estudiante] anda mal pero no es tanto eso [su comprensión] sino más bien al momento de interpretar, [los estudiantes] hacen una interpretación errónea

… But, the children do not have that capability yet [of the language] then when they see and translate a word, [the word] has changed the context, then [the teacher] says he/she isn’t learning and he/she does not comprehend his reading. [The student’s] comprehension is bad, but is not as bad as that - on the contrary [his comprehension], it is at the time of interpreting [the students] make an erroneous interpretation (Interview, July 21, 2010)

The second finding in this category was that the language acquisition of TLI students was negatively affected by the fact that they moved from place to place with the lack of a supportive educational experience. A U.S. participant explained the situation that “they are not developing academically either in English or Spanish, so… [it is] kind of difficult for the students to actually be at grade level” (Interview, October 28, 2010). A participant explained that students tended to get “lost” between the school systems. “They’re constantly moving, the students, to different schools, and they get lost very easy because they have to leave [because of the parents] to find work some place else [they] move to where the job is” (Interview, November 8, 2010). The teachers agreed that constant communication between teachers is a must to help English learners acquire their second language. Communication is essential in order to know the child and the child’s
specific needs. One participant said, “Dialogue is needed with the teacher and myself, you know, so that I know where we need to help that child specifically.” (Interview, November 8, 2010). One participant explained that in order to foster language acquisition among students that move between systems, teachers need to develop tailored approaches based on their knowledge of the learner rather than using a one-size-fits-all language acquisition program.

“I’m always thinking of ways to reach out to all the learners, even though, they’re all English language learners each one is individual, each one is different, and so it’s thinking more of meeting their needs linguistically and culturally rather than giving them a program (Interview, November 8, 2010)

The third finding in this category was that using the students’ primary language, as a venue to acquire the second language has been controversial. It has been a political issue debated in the governments of both Mexico and the United States. One Mexican participant spoke of the controversy using the language of indigenous peoples for instruction in Mexican schools. Only recently in 2003 was primary language instruction allowed.

*Ante[una] materia goviernamental [en el lenguaje de instrucción] para decir que la prioridad tendría que ser la lengua maternal del niño… en México… desde los finales del 2003 se aprobó que en los grupos indígenas… desde la política educativa [mexicana] que al niño no se evite enseñarle en su lengua maternal… una segunda lengua se le llama adicional*

Before a government matter [in instructional language] for saying that the priority should be the primary language of the child… in Mexico… since the end of 2003, it was approved that indigenous groups… viewed from the [Mexican] educational politics that a child in his/her primary language cannot be prevented from learning in his own mother tongue…
the second language is called an additional language’ (Interview, May 27, 2010)

Despite steps toward legalizing primary language instruction, the consensus was that in general, it has not been recognized by either nation as a valuable instructional strategy to use as a support to learn and acquire a second language. Participants continually expressed their frustration with this fact, especially since they had seen how primary language instruction helps TLI students to adapt themselves to the new educational system and learn at grade level.

**Interview Data Analysis and Findings**

The interviews were conducted in Spanish and in English to accommodate participants from Mexico. The analyses of the transcribed videotape and audio taped interviews observed the following procedure to identify codes. First, an equal section of dialogue from each paired interview was selected. In each section of dialogue, the following features were coded: repeated words, phrases, and sentences by participants throughout the six-paired interviews.

The following principles were emphasized in the interviews: teachers’ experiences in Border Pedagogy activities, teachers’ changes in their classroom practices, students’ changes toward school in academics as indicated by their academic success, improvement in the self esteem of TLI students as demonstrated by their pride to use and say that they were proficient in two languages, and the demonstration of students to risk take using language to express their ideas and opinions.
**Procedure for Analyzing Interviews: Coding**

The data analysis followed a grounded theory three step coding process: (a) initial open coding, (b) focused, and (c) theoretical. The researcher coded the interviews by hand. The initial open coding involved reading the transcribed interviews line-by-line looking for participants’ actual words and/or phrases (i.e. strategies, learning, becoming more sensitive). This coding approach is called *in vivo codes* (Creswell, 2008; Saldaña, 2009). The researcher utilized the coding process by looking at repeated words or phrases in the transcribed interviews. After the initial process of noting repeated words and phrases, themes began to appear, and it was the identification of repeated themes that gave rise to the conceptual codes.

**Initial Coding**

The initial open coding process created 606 conceptual codes --449 of those conceptual codes originated from the paired interviews data and 157 resulted from the document analysis. After the initial open coding process, the researcher used memo writing to reduce the 606 initial open codes to 67 categorical codes. Table 4.4 shows some samples of the initial coding.
Table 4.4 Initial Coding

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Initial Coding</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Development of strategies</td>
<td>“In a nutshell, I would say it is a way to develop strategies that are unique to that population of English language learners that live in our borderlands.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perspectiva (Perspective)</strong></td>
<td>“Vi esa perspectiva la forma de intercambiar la opinión de cómo llegar a diferente tipo de niños ya sea de aquí o de allá. (I saw that perspective as a way to exchange the opinion of how to reach a different type of children either from here or there).”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Escrito Relámpago (Quick Write)</strong></td>
<td>“… esa parte de hablar del escrito relámpago, en cualquier circunstancia hace una plática… (... is that part of talking about the quick write in any circumstance to make a conversation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dialogue</td>
<td>I was very intrigued by the dialogue and the learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>A lot of the assessments are academic language…</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Categorical Coding**

The 67 categorical codes were selected because they connected to the dialogue in the interviews and the documents. The researcher looked at the data, *chunking* responses in short phrases, ideas or words that were related to the codes (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Table 4.5 provides some examples of initial open codes into categorical (focused) codes.
Table 4.5 Categorical (Focused) Coding

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In Vivo/Initial Code</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sharing ideas</td>
<td><em>La enseñanza que reciben los estudiantes</em> (The teaching that the students receive), share the same knowledge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher interaction</td>
<td>Between teachers from California and Mexico, interaction of different levels in the profession, learning from each other.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Similarities</td>
<td>Educational systems have many similarities, helped to compare systems.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helping same students</td>
<td>Help students in the border region, we are serving the same population of students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change instructional practices</td>
<td><em>Renovando estrategias absolutas</em> (renewing absolute strategies), becoming more sensitive, bringing meaning back to the classroom.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The researcher also used the memo writing to reduce to responses to ten categorical codes, then to ten theoretical codes. The ten categorical codes were: (a) educational systems, (b) language acquisition, (c) similarities among students, (d) prior knowledge, (e) standardized testing, (f) dynamic and interactive, (g) sensitive to students’ needs, (h) cultural sensitivity, (i) face-to-face conversations, (j) and relationships. Table 4.5 shows the ten categorical codes and their frequency of occurrence.
Table 4.6 Categorical Codes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categorical codes</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Educational systems</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language acquisition</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Similarities among students</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior knowledge</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standardized testing</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dynamic and interactive</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sensitive to students’ needs</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural sensitivity</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conversations Face-to-face</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationships</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Categorical Code Frequencies

Categorical code frequency analyses revealed similar results between documents and paired interview data. Four of the twelve categorical codes in the paired interviews were the same as the most frequent codes in the document analysis. The same four categorical codes included: (a) educational systems, (b) cultural sensitivity, (c) conversations face-to-face, and (d) language acquisition.

Interviews

This section describes my findings for each of the twelve categorical codes using grounded theory analysis. The categorical codes were: (a) educational systems, (b)
Corresponding categorical codes that emerged from the data will also be presented. Using participants’ quotes, and in vivo codes helped me to define the categorical codes more deeply. To protect the anonymity of the participants, participants’ quotes will be identified by pseudonym. Quotes will include the section of the interview selected for analysis and the date the interview was conducted (Interview, November 8, 2010) See table 4.7
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categorical Code</th>
<th>Sample Quotes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Educational systems</td>
<td>“Antes de trabajar con pedagogía fronteriza yo no sabia que la educación era descentralizada, yo no sabia que California tiene un programa distinto al que podía tener Texas porque yo tenía la visión de que como en México es el mismo plan y programa de estudio” (Before working with Border Pedagogy, I didn’t know that education was decentralized, I didn’t know that California has a different educational program than Texas because I had the vision that it was like in Mexico with the same centralized plan and educational program).” “We’re teaching the same thing. It’s the same word, same principal, same subject matters, it's just at different timings because they do, that's something else we also learned at the border pedagogy that they’re more similarities than differences in that the standards they overlap, and it's just a different timing.” “I appreciate the fact that now I understand more about the education process in Mexico, and that the education process here in the United States, and how the actual curriculum is almost the same in...”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Categorical code</td>
<td>Sample quotes</td>
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<tr>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language acquisition</td>
<td>“I'm always thinking of ways to reach out to all the learners, even though, they're all English language learners each one is individual, each one is different, and so it's thinking more of meeting their needs linguistically and culturally.” “I think just addressing the linguistic and cultural needs in the classroom… I’m always thinking of ways to reach out to all learners, even though, they’re all English learners, each one is individual, each one is different, and so it’s thinking more of meeting their needs linguistically and culturally rather than giving them the program.” “Cuando se tiene que reaprender el español y se relaciona con la perdida de donde estaban. Se relaciona con el otro país donde yo me encontraba, creo que es lo más difícil para ellos (When you have to relearn Spanish that you relate with the lost from where you were that it is related with the other country that were living, I believe that is the most difficult thing for them [students])”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Categorical code</td>
<td>Sample quotes</td>
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<td>-------------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Similarities among students</td>
<td>“Simplemente el hecho de reconocer que aquellos niños estaban abiertos a conocer a otros niños y que en las cartas se daban cuenta que los dos veían las mismas caricaturas que los dos conocían a Hanna Montana o les gustaba High School Musical ambos niños se daban cuenta que no eran tan diferentes en el fondo que tenían los mismos intereses y se dieron cuenta que las dificultades a veces es más en los adultos que en los mismos niños”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Categorical code</td>
<td>Sample quotes</td>
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<tr>
<td>------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Necochea and Dr. Cline</td>
<td>“you know, 85% of the standards are the same, and so it’s just the wording and different way of teaching it… So just having that knowledge that when a students would come, you’re learning this over there as well, we just call this, and they’re teaching it in this fashion, and I imagine that the teacher will have same kind of enlightenment.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Prior knowledge        | “They have been constructing some sort of awareness about literacy before they come to us whether it's in the primary language or the second language.” “Su nivel también emocional porque al ellos ir viendo que iban aprendiendo más cosas pues su estado emocional se iba afianzando más la confianza era más alta.” (Also his emotional level because as they were seeing that they wer learning more things, there emotional state was getting stronger and their self-steam increased).” “...Que si era un poco más similar o que podrían respirar un poquito más, me acuerdo, que era en matemáticas porque es algo universal y las ciencias que era lo
Table 4.7 Categorical Codes and Sample Quotes (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categorical code</th>
<th>Sample quotes</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>que más o menos se acoplan porque era similar y ahí era donde ellos se sentían más a gusto o más en confianza (… That it [concept] became a bit more similar, or that they could breath easier, I remember that it was in math and science because they are something universal and connect because they are similar, and there is where they felt more comfortable and self confident)” “… this is what you need to know, what do you know first and how can we make the connection on what you need to know it takes a little bit of time and effort.” “I want the teacher to be aware of the background and at sometimes the students already know this, but yet as teachers we think is something new and perhaps something they're already doing, so the importance of knowing the background.”</td>
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<tr>
<td>Standardized testing</td>
<td>“I think being tested, even though, that they might not understand or know the curriculum, we're doing a disservice to them because, it's obvious they don't know the material. Now, it just, I think, another</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Categorical code</td>
<td>Sample quotes</td>
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<tr>
<td>obstacle the students have to face.”</td>
<td>“Too much testing. They're not even being taught the material yet. They're being expected to test, so the excessive focus is on testing, it would be a major obstacle”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>… also just constant assessments, ... benchmarks, ... constantly assessing students, which I think take away from a period of teaching.”</td>
<td>“I find interesting that they are also expected to test as well, so the testing feature in Mexico and here in California we have a lot of testing so we talked about how their testing compared to our testing.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dynamic and interactive</td>
<td>“Without the meaning, the lesson doesn't mean anything to the children. So that's a good way to touch kids through their own identity and their own personal self-being. It's through the way we started the border pedagogy meetings songs, and chants, and poetry, and play with words. And, I thought that was such a natural way to learn language that you forget to include it when we teach, we're so into the books, and turn the page and go into the next lesson.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.7 Categorical Codes and Sample Quotes (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categorical code</th>
<th>Sample quotes</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>from Border Pedagogy because it taught me that I can have my students explore their own way of expressing themselves either by speaking, writing, dancing, drawing any anyway they want to.” “Lo que lo hace diferente es algo más participativo en cuanto a exposiciones de grupo que es más interactivo en cuanto a ellos mismos también participan y juegan que algo que anteriormente lo hacían (What makes it different is something that is very participative related to themselves. They also participate and play that was something they did not do before).”</td>
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</table>
| Sensitive to students’ needs          | “Simple hecho de que el niño venga con dos idiomas y reconocer a que a mi me llegan a México con esas particularidades... ser empático y aprender los problemas que los niños tienen (Simple fact that the child comes with two languages and recognizing that they come to me in Mexico with those particular needs… to be emphatic and to learn the problems that the children have).” “We understand our kids, we know, the
Table 4.7 Categorical Codes and Sample Quotes (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categorical code</th>
<th>Sample quotes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>needs of our kids. No, you don't. No until you step into their house, you will know their, their real needs. Or until you go to a birthday party, you get to know who their friends are, and interact with others parents in there. You get to know exactly what they need.” “So we tent to, like, cramp the curriculum down and think of English, English, English…and so we loose sight of our students for such focus on just having them perform, perform, perform.”</td>
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</table>
| Cultural sensitivity       | “We don't do that kind of community, community outreach with their parents, as much as we should be doing. So I think, we need more, if we did more of getting to know the children and the families, and making them more welcome to come to our school in our classroom, I think, our students will be a lot more successful.” “…To keep that in the fore front on what ever it is that we do, how important that is, who they are, and so for me, the self identity it's really critical for the English learners not to loose who they are…” “…The language and culture are
<table>
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<th>Categorical code</th>
<th>Sample quotes</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>who you are is most important and then, everything else come secondary.” “…Have our own identity. So in essence, how I see it. It’s a different type of culture on itself. It's not necessary here or there, it's like, this is our own, and that, being able to share that, in a way, it's kind of, it's interesting, and being able to fluctuate back and forth” “Yo creo que como educador, lo más importante para mi fue darme cuenta que todos los alumnos son distintos y que nunca se me olvide ese detalle. Que todos, y cada uno de los alumnos que tienes en una clase son distintos y que como tal, los debes de atender con esa diversidad (I believe as educator that the most important for me was to recognize that all the students are different and that I should never forget that detail. That all and each one of the students that you have in your in a class are different and as such you should attend that diversity).”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Face-to-face Conversations

“The collegiality is to a teacher to know that you're not there by yourself that there's some people, whether it's here or there that think like you and...
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Categorical code</th>
<th>Sample quotes</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>agree with what you're doing or they're have a different way to do things and you learned from them.” “In a nut shell, I would say it is a way to develop strategies that are unique to that population of English language learners that live in our borderlands.” “For me, it brought my level of awareness as an educator. It really opened up my eyes as to the mysteries that I had about education in Mexico, and to be sitting across the table from a teacher from Mexico really gave a real bonding. I think with the teachers as well, to understand that we share the same kids, we have the same issues, we share the same knowledge, and it was just a way to construct knowledge.”</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
| Relationships | “Me toco ir a observar a los compañeros y ellos a su vez conmigo... Al estar llendo con ellos pude observar que es la forma en que trabajan por medio de proyectos... El año pasado tuve primer año, ya con reformas trabajé con proyectos y esas son las actividades que me sirvieron mucho (I went to observe the colleagues, and they also had the same
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categorical code</th>
<th>Sample quote</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>opportunity to come and visit me… By going to visit them, I was able to observe the way they work through the use of projects… Lat year, I taught first grade, and with the reform, I worked using projects and those activities I learned helped me a lot)’’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Además de lo que uno se enriquece profesionalmente, uno se va superando, también se estrechan lazos de amistad muy buenos muy positivos como los que establecí con los compañeros en donde yo tengo la confianza de llamarles y buscarlos (Besides of what we enriched ourselves professionally, one keeps advancing and he/she also strengthen friendship ties that are very positive as the ones I established with my colleagues where I have the trust to call and look for them)”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“You kind of knew the people, but you’re always coming to a situation not knowing anybody. They were all strangers to us, at the end of the day, you know, after that we go out together, have meal or we made long friendships, and you know, we still</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.7 Categorical Codes and Sample Quotes (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categorical code</th>
<th>Sample quotes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Keep in contact</td>
<td>five, six years later, and so now we’re doing this and so we’re helping you out. That’s what makes it unique that we established long relationships with the same common goal.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Were just being able to interact, and being able to share those experiences that are so similar to each other, just having kids come over, and the same thing kids go back, and the sharing all those, like he said, ‘making friends and keeping in contact,’ being able to see them in action. They’ve got to see us in action, so I think the most unique part was that we were able to actually go over there and teach.”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Similarities Among Students**

In the category of “Similarities among Students”, there were three main findings. The first finding was that similarities among borderlands students, on both sides of the border, far outweighed the differences. One Mexican participant expressed this idea in the following way. “*Saber que como niños no había distinción*” ‘Knowing that as children there was no distinction between them’ (Interview, May 27, 2010). They shared cultural interests that are not just related to the borderlands but also to childhood at this period in history. The letter exchange between students from Mexico and the U.S.
prompted one of the Mexican teachers who participated in the letter exchange to comment on the insights the children themselves gained about the common interests they shared.

*Simplye, el hecho de reconocer que aquellos niños estaban abiertos a conocer a otros niños y que en las cartas se daban cuenta que los dos veían las mismas caricaturas que los dos conocían a Hanna Montana o les gustaba High School Musical ambos niños se daban cuenta que no eran tan diferentes en el fondo que tenían los mismos intereses y se dieron cuenta que las dificultades a veces es más en los adultos que en los mismos niños*  

Simply, the recognition that those children were open to get to know other children, and that [in] their letters they noticed that both watched the same cartoons, that both knew Hanna Montana, and that they both liked High School Musical. Both children [Mexican and American] noticed that they are not different deep inside, that they have the same interests, and they noticed that difficulties, at times, [occur] more between adults than between the children (Interview, May 27, 2010)

The second main finding in this category was the importance of educators focusing on the whole child. They understood each TLI student as a whole child not just a student who occupies a seat in the classroom. These TLI students “are affected in our school system that [and] we don’t know how to handle the situation in the classroom” and “as educators…the main idea was [is] to help the students that we are servicing” (Interview, November 8, 2010).

The third main finding in this category was… that TLI students are living *double lives.* One California educator commented that teachers on both sides of the border are educating TLI students. She said, “we’re dealing [with]… the same population of students, the border students that actually spend time there [across the border] for [a] couple, six months, then to come to our schools for six months” (Interview, October 28,
2010). These double lives, of going back and forth, resulted in academic disadvantages for TLI students. The participating educators agreed that borderland teachers should help TLI students by building “that bridge that they need to make that transition” (Interview, June 10, 2010) from one educational system to the other.

Prior Knowledge

In the category of “Prior Knowledge”, there were three main findings. The first finding was the importance of taking into consideration TLI students’ prior academic knowledge from their schooling in their country of origin. A participant commented, “I want the teacher to be aware of the background, and at sometimes the students already know this [concept], but yet as teachers, we think it’s something new. And perhaps something they're already doing, so [there is] the importance of knowing the [students academic] background” (Interview, October 28, 2010). Terminology of the instructional language is the only area in which TLI students might need support in many instances. A participant noted that instructional language became important when a student talked with her and said that, “las palabras en español son más adornadas, más bonitas y en inglés van al punto y no les queda mucho, porque ella me escuchaba cuando yo decía una oración, un poema... y ella me decía ‘es que así no me enseñaron a mi’” ‘the words in Spanish much more adorned, more beautiful, while in English [the words] go straight to the point and they don’t leave so much to go around, because when she listened to me saying a sentence, a poem… and she would tell me “that is not the way I was taught”’ (Interview, August, 28, 2010).
The second main finding in this category was that participating educators agreed that students’ prior knowledge, including both content and linguistic knowledge, was valuable for teaching and learning. Interviewees commented that acknowledging the prior knowledge of their TLI students helped them to make connections between the new concepts being learned and what the student already knows.

“The importance of using background knowledge, specifically in math. Students in different countries take different mathematical approaches… If we don’t know their background information we might not facilitate the student to make the connection… but if we don’t have that background knowledge of the student, then you cannot facilitate that connection” (Interview, October, 28, 2010)

Other educators pointed to the linguistic knowledge TLI students have and the benefits of using primary language and/code switching. An interviewee said, “I can always refer back to their Spanish part, and then go back and say ‘so this means this’ yeah, it’s just the same thing, but it just has a different name” (Interview, November 8, 2010) to support my English learners.

**Standardized Testing**

In the category of “Standardized Testing,” there were two main findings. The first finding was that standardized testing, which is a part of both educational systems is problematic for TLI students. Standardized testing is given to all students by grade level in both countries and the “[students] are expected to [take the] test” (Interview, October 28, 2010) as a measurement of their progress. TLI students frequently take standardized tests even though they may not have had a full year of instruction. As a result, teachers are concerned that the tests do not accurately reflect their instruction. A California
teacher explained, “Testing is one of my main concerns here in California because whether they were here from the beginning or they “missed two [to] three months of good education they’re still tested. You can tell where they missed the lessons taught. So it affects [us] as educators” (Interview, October 28, 2010).

The second finding in this category was the negative effect that time spent on standardized testing had on curriculum and instruction for English/Spanish Learners. One of the main concerns of educators was that curriculum and instruction meet the specific needs of TLI students. The inflexibility caused by curriculum that teaches to the test is considered problematic because “the focus is so much on ‘standardized test scores’ and the changes that standardized testing demands that we tend to, like, cramp the curriculum down and think [only] English, English, English…for [keeping] such a focus on just having them perform, perform, perform!” (Interview, November 8, 2010). Thus, the focus on testing causes schools to push TLI students to perform on standardized tests as if English was their first language.

**Dynamic and Interactive**

In the category of “Dynamic and Interactive”, there were three main findings. The first finding was the multiple benefits that educators believed they experienced due to the dynamic and interactive nature of Border Pedagogy (BP) professional development activities. The educators engaged in dialogue during the events and saw themselves “helping each other to become better teachers and better educators” (Interview, November 8, 2010). The dynamic and interactive activities involved everybody in group work. “Son [las estrategias] muy dinámicas nos hacen más participativos y luego
involverán a todos. ‘they are very dynamic, they [the strategies] make us participate more and they inspired everyone. (Interview July 27, 2010).

The educators noted how their experiences with the participatory learning approaches were making them rethink the approaches they used with their own students. “en su momento fueron innovadoras, yo las aplicué inmediatamente” ‘at that time they were innovative, I applied them immediately’ (Interview, May 27, 2010). A Mexican participant described the impact of the dynamic and interactive nature of BP events in which she participated.

Un medio de aprendizaje para poder ayudar, a no tanto..., a los niños sino también a la comunidad donde todos nos involucramos [aplicandonos] tanto en estrategias como [las] exigencias educativas o académicas y también en [las] estrategias para la vida [y] de como llevar a cabo ese proceso que ellos [los niños]a veces estan lloendo y viniendo de frontera a frontera.

A way of learning so we [teachers] can help, not just, the children but also the community where we participate [applying ourselves] in [the] academic and educational strategies and also in [the] life strategies [of our students and] how to execute that process they [students and/or community] who are at times going back and forth from border to border (Interview, July 21, 2010)

Another educator shared how she came to understand that interactive approaches were beneficial for her own students. “A veces uno [el maestro] tiene temor de ponerlos a trabajar en equipo porque siempre le cargan el trabajo a uno o a dos, sin embargo de esta forma no porque se [los estudiantes] van rotando y todos tienen que ver que todos pueden hacer algo...que sea verdaderamente un trabajo de equipo” At times, One [the educator] might be concerned about having [students] them working in a group setting because they let one or two do all the work, however, using the rotation strategy, in the
group, they [students] have to see that they can all do something…which is truly a team work product.’ (Interview July 27, 2010).

The second finding in this category was that the dynamic and interactive approaches used in BP events promoted the role of facilitator over that of lecturer. The teacher as facilitator means engaging teachers and students as active learners. One California educator explained how facilitation puts students at the center of the learning process. “It connects with the students [and] focuses them, right away. [The teacher] is not the center of instruction, but the students are a central part of the instructional process (Interview, November 8, 2010). The strategies carried over to the classroom changed instructional practices. The participants’ classrooms became places where students became more active in their learning through group work and responsible for their own learning as they were “constructing meaning, drawing their own conclusions, and [the teacher] guiding them [in the activity as] facilitator” (Interview, October 28, 2010).

**Sensitive to Students’ Needs**

In the category of “Sensitive to Students’ Needs”, there were two main findings. The first finding was the concern participants shared that schools and educators should understand and meet their TLI students’ needs. They shared that TLI students have to be seen as individuals with their own set of needs. Participants agreed that teachers needed to be open to TLI students’ sharing their concerns as they come into class. A participant commented how significant it was to students that teachers understood them. She described how one student wanted her teachers to know her desire to have a chance to participate even though she did not speak the language well. She reported that the child
said, “yo lo único que le quiero decir a mi maestro es que me comprendan y que no les entiendo cuando me hablan, que nada más me den chanza, y que me esperen un tantito, que sí voy a aprender, pero que voy más lento” ‘The only thing I want to tell my teacher is “for them to understand me, and that I don’t understand them when they talk to me, That I just want an opportunity, and if they can be patient with me, that I am going to learn, but I am going slow”’ (Interview, August 28, 2010). Educators shared that in order to be sensitive to their students’ needs; they needed to exercise patience. A participant noted that,

*Soy paciente, y soy tolerante, y eso me ha ayudado mucho a que ellos se integren en mi clase, y les he dado, se puede decir, como tips para cuando ellos tienen problemas con un maestro que no los deja desarrollarse, y [esta es] una de las [estrategias] que les he enseñado, no le digas al maestro ‘yo no se o no me acuerdo’ más bien dile ‘¿usted qué me sugiere?’ y ahí el maestro te tiene que ayudar, y eso lo han aprendido[la estrategia] muy bien*

I am patient, I am tolerant, and that has helped me a lot to integrate them into my class. And I have given them, you can say, like tips, when they have problems with a teacher that does not allow them to develop; and [this is] one of the [strategies] that I taught them, [I said] don’t tell the teacher ‘I don’t know or I don’t remember’ it’s better to tell him ‘what do you suggest?’ And there it is, the teacher has to help you, and they have learned that [strategy] very well (Interview, August 28, 2010)

The second finding in this category was that sensitivity to students’ needs has to be a part of the instructional planning to insure that the kind of approaches that best support TLI students are selected. The educators noted that sensitivity to the students’ needs was frequently not taken into consideration when they were doing their educational instruction planning. Providing many different opportunities for students to have access to experience the language and academics at grade level is critical along with providing
support in the primary language. These comments by teachers showed sensitivity for the needs of TLI students. These strategies were well expressed by a participant. She commented,

For me, it makes it fun and makes it interesting if we start with a poem, or a song, or a dance, or coming up a poem, or creative ways of expressing themselves in the second language, specially. It’s more interesting for the child to learn more and have fun at the same time. I have the freedom in my classroom to plan my own lessons, to use whatever I need to teach them [acquire] the second language (Interview, November 8, 2010)

*Cultural Sensitivity*

In the category of “Cultural Sensitivity”, there were three main findings. The first finding was educators’ descriptions of the unique bi-cultural experiences of TLI students. Living in two cultures requires an understanding of how each culture behaves. A participant described this combination of two cultures as *its own culture* when she said,

I’m stuck in between [two cultures], that being Mexican, Pocho, but we [border people] have our own identity. So in essence how I see it it’s like a different culture in itself. It’s not necessarily here or there, this is our own, and I have been able to share that [own culture] It is kind of interesting to be able to fluctuate back and forth [between cultures in the border region] (Interview, June 10, 2010)

One Mexican educator described TLI culture as “*características particulares a causa o consecuencias de la migración*” ‘particular characteristics, a cause or consequence due to immigration’ (Interview, May 27, 2010). She went on to say how important it is for the teacher to understand and respond to TLI culture.
Las características [son] por el idioma, para empezar, el simple hecho de que el niño venga con dos idiomas y reconocer que a mí [el docente] llegan [estudiantes] a México con esas particularidades…y uno aprende a ser [conciente], cambia uno primero por dentro la forma de percibir y de ser empático, de comprender y aprender los problemas que los niños traen.

The characteristics [are] the language, for starters, the simple fact that the child comes with two languages and to recognize that to me [the teacher] they [students] arrive in Mexico with those particularities…and one learns to be [conscious], to change first internally as a way to perceive and to be empathic, to comprehend, and learn the problems children bring with them (Interview, May 27, 2010)

TLI students don’t just have one culture but they are immersed in both cultures, which is as much a challenge for adults as it is for students. To be immersed in two cultures, a participant noted that,

Here in particular, [California’s] border region, there is that immersing in one culture into another…even us teachers going to Tijuana…knowing how to behave in that cultural ambiance it’s different, it’s very different, and so the students go through the same thing as students. They have their lives in Tijuana…and come to the United States. It’s a different world, and they automatically have a little switch that [clicks on] we’re already in the United States…being sensitive to that, and making references to that, what you call it, ‘that dualism going back and forth’ that fluidity that transpires [with borderland students] (Interview, June 10, 2010)

Two participants provided a cultural view connected to their personal cultural backgrounds that supported this understanding. One of them said, “that it made [me] more aware, [of my] cultural awareness because I’m from a Mexican background, a Hispanic background, but I never attended school in Mexico” (Interview, October 28, 2010). While the other participant expressed,
As an educator, it helped me also understand my kids a little bit better, where they’re coming from, and also for the same experience that I went through. I also went through the same shock; [the] cultural shock that they go through…it allows you to become more sensitive…more sensitive to what their needs [are], to what they need. And I also try; I will always try [to put] myself in their shoes, which I went through…but at the same time, keeping in mind, that it’s a different experience, a different situation (Interview, June 10 2010)

The second finding in this category was the important role cultural sensitivity played in supporting curriculum and instruction. The participants described the salience of learning to be culturally sensitive to TLI students as something they all experienced in BP events. One California educator stated, “It provided a new understanding of the whole student coming into or leaving the two educational systems. I now include a lot of strategies on how to bring culture and language together in the classroom. Many of them are the strategies that we used in Border Pedagogy” (Interview, November 8, 2010). Cultural sensitivity encourages teachers to use appropriate strategies and to change their instructional practices for the better. Teachers recognized the advantages of building on the background knowledge children bring with them to the classroom. One participant shared that “the children come with a lot of background and a lot of funds of knowledge that they acquired from their own culture” (Interview, November 8, 2010). Another participant explained the process of recognizing this prior knowledge when planning instruction:

It really gave me the opportunity, as an educator to step back, and say, you know, kids are coming to us. They do have knowledge; they have been constructing some sort of awareness about literacy before they come to us whether it’s in the primary language or the second language (Interview, November 8, 2010)
Several educators talked about the strategy of using bilingual books that are culturally sensitive. The books provided a translation of certain words and at the same time made connections to students’ background knowledge and experiences. One participant explained,

It’s been a lot of fun using these books, so they can really relate to the story. They can really say ‘Juanito’s story is the same as my story.’ My mom makes tamales just like this story. It’s a nice way to teach the kids so they can actually relate to the story… They relate to that [story]!” (Interview, November 8, 2010)

**Face-to-Face Conversations**

In the category of “face to face conversations”, there were three main findings. The first finding was that Border Pedagogy provided participants the opportunity to share their experiences and perspectives through dialogue and therefore, to learn directly from each other as educators. An interviewed participant noted, “*que no era lo que yo esperaba, en el sentido de que yo estaba impuesto a trabajar de una manera más tradicional no tan relajada, pues en el sentido de que opinabamos, reíamos, hacíamos trabajos era otro esquema*” ‘that it was not what I expected, in the sense that I was used to [be] working in a traditional manner not so relaxed, this was my conclusion in the sense that we gave our opinions, we laughed, we made projects, it was another way of thinking’ (Interview, May 27, 2010). This interaction was described as “the most important thing that attracted me, it was the interaction that took place there [border pedagogy activities] and the conversations.” (Interview, October 28, 2010).
The second finding in this category is that face-to-face conversations provided a forum for educators to exchange their experiences and discover how similar their experiences are as educators in the borderlands. Through the conversations, they created a common bond about their concerns for the academic success of TLI students.

“By talking to the other teachers coming from Mexico and telling us [teachers]...[that] we’re facing the same problems...[in Mexico] we have kids coming from the United States because parents have been deported and we don’t know where to place them” (Interview, June 10, 2010). These same feelings were expressed in relation to academics on either side of the border as expressed in the comment that: “different perspectives that [Mexican] teachers provided about their students...where they are academically in Mexico and where they’re going to be in the United States” (Interview, October, 28, 2010).

The third finding in this category is that face-to-face conversations in Border Pedagogy activities provided the opportunity for participants to learn about how the education worked in another country. One participant said, “conocer la manera como se trabaja en otro país...no podia tener algo de malo, o sea el tener otro punto de vista. No puede tener otra consecuencia que aprender a mejorar simplemente por el hecho de conocer los puntos de vista de otro país” ‘to know the way they work in another country…it could not be something bad, it is to have another point of view. It can’t have another consequence but to learn to get better simply through the facts of knowing another country’s points of view’ (Interview, May 27, 2010).

*Relationships*
In the category of “Relationships”, there were three main findings. The first finding was that ongoing relationships among Border Pedagogy participants were maintained beyond BP events. The interviewees maintained a continuing relationship with educators in their own country and across the border, which brought about the exchange of teaching strategies. A participant commented, “we established long relationships with the same common goal, and we’re still helping each other and seeing that we’re still trying to make the difference, regardless, with [the] people that are remaining within this collaboration, we still try to do that!” (Interview, June 10, 2010). One expression of these on-going relationships was exemplified in visitations to each other’s schools. Educators from both sides of the border visited each other’s classrooms. One teacher involved in a visitation commented, “we were able actually to go over there and teach, which was the most awesome thing that we got to experience” (Interview, June 10, 2010).

**Summary**

This chapter provided the results of the process of analyzing the data obtained from the demographic survey, videotaped and audio-recorded interviews of twelve participants, and documents from the Border Pedagogy Center.

The demographic questionnaire (DQ) data analysis provided insight on how rich the experiences of the participants were in the field of education, their proficiency in English and Spanish, and their participation in the Border Pedagogy Project. The data provided a clearer understanding of their commitment to the Border Pedagogy Initiative and their individual as well as collective efforts to help TLI students succeed
academically on both sides of the border. The questionnaire also informed this study about the commitment participants made to the ideas of the project and to the common work in which they all participated. They kept in contact with each other and continued to share their experiences using the modeled strategies and how successful the strategies were with TLI students and other students as well. The DQ data indicated that all educators in this study met the participation criteria.

Videotaped and audio-recorded interviews provided data on the reflections of participants in terms of what they learned in the seminars and how the knowledge gained in professional development seminars positively affected their practice. Participants commented that they implemented the modeled instructional practices from BP seminars and noted an improvement in their TLI students’ academic success, ease of acquiring a second language, and improvement in self-esteem. Thus, teachers recognized how important it is to teach to the needs of the whole student in borderland classrooms.

Data derived from the transcribed interviews shaped a series of themes that had similarities and differences. Attendees shared that they were enlightened by the similarities and differences between educational systems on both sides of the border. The similarities between the language arts curriculum in both systems were clear. Similarities included the use of the alphabetic principal, genres of reading, persuasive essays in reading and writing, personal writing and friendly letters. The differences had to do with the developmental scope and sequence of the educational programs because the origins of each program are different. In the United States the educational curriculum is developed by the states while in Mexico curriculum is nationally developed. These differences in
the educational systems created the challenges teachers faced in borderlands classrooms. These data resulted from face-to-face conversations.

Standardized Testing was another part of both educational systems that proved to be problematic for TLI students. Standardized testing is given to all students, including TLI students, by their grade level in both countries, and students are expected to take the standardized tests even though they may not have had a full year of instruction. Giving the standardized test under these conditions concerned teachers because it did not accurately reflect the effectiveness of their instruction or the different challenges each TLI student brought to the testing process. Conversation also indicated that standardized testing had a negative effect on the craft of participants because, in their opinions, the time spent on standardized testing meant that the focus of classroom instruction shifted from student centered learning to test preparation. The focus on testing caused participants to push TLI students to perform on standardized tests as if English was their first language. The source of these data was face-to-face conversations.

Face-to-face conversations provided BP participants opportunities to share their experiences and perspectives through dialogue and learn from each other as educators. This was seen as an important activity of the BP Initiative because it provided an ongoing forum for educators to exchange their experiences and concerns. Ongoing relationships were also established as a result of consistent face-to-face conversations.

Relationships began and were continued through the teaching exchange and opportunities to teach in classrooms across the border as well as visitations to each other’s school sites. Visitations also brought to the light the challenges TLI student were
faced with when learning academic content and academic language in a second language in both systems. The finding relating to language acquisition showed that the demands placed on recently immigrated students required that they take the mandated tests and expected to perform in the dominant language. Participants pointed out that academic achievement results in reading comprehension clearly indicated that TLI students performed at a distinct disadvantage compared to the students who regularly attended schools in both systems. The problem was one that was particularly disturbing to participants who taught in Mexico, since they felt that difficulty in reading comprehension in Spanish was detrimental to the achievement of TLI students in classrooms south of the border. Participants noted that TLI students got lost very easily. Data indicated that the mobility rate of TLI students is based on the need of families, whose parents are forced immigrate to areas where they can find employment.

The use of students’ primary language was another venue that participants noted that they learned about and realized the value of using a student’s primary language to acquire a second language. The use of primary language as a support or scaffold was identified by all participants as a political issue and therefore a controversial one. Participants expressed frustration with the fact that politics also constrained their pedagogy. They saw how primary language instruction helped TLI students adapt to a new educational system and learn at grade level. Language acquisition was closely identified with cultural sensitivity.

Cultural sensitivity and attention to TLI students’ individual needs were identified as critical factors to consider when implementing a curriculum that best serves TLI
students. Each TLI student has his own academic needs in addition to the uniqueness of being bi-cultural or living in two cultures. This requires an understanding of how each culture operates, especially when TLI students come with one culture and integrate or reintegrate into another culture. Therefore, according to all participants, the cultural and language background needs to be clearly understood in order to address the individual needs of each student.

All participants also identified prior knowledge, of the educational system and the curriculum that all TLI students bring with them into the other country, as an area that must receive attention in the development of curriculum. Recognizing TLI students’ prior knowledge supports the work of teachers in terms of introducing concepts and academic language to make connections between the new concepts and what students already know.

The dynamic, interactive, and participatory learning approaches used in BP made participants rethink the approaches they used with their own students. They recognized the logic of adopting the role of facilitator over that of lecturer, where facilitation puts students at the center of the learning process, and students become more active in and responsible for their learning through group work. The rich collection of data sources used in this study: questionnaires, interviews, face to face conversation, and examination of document provided this researcher with a lens that allowed me to see into the perspectives and bank of learning attained by all participants as a result of being actively involved in the Border Pedagogy Initiative.
This chapter presented the significance of the data collected in this study. Practical implications for borderland TLI students and recommendations for future research are presented in chapter 5.
CHAPTER 5

Discussion

This study focused on the dilemma facing educators in terms of how to best educate transnational students in the Tijuana/San Diego region. To that end, I examined the professional development training provided for the teachers on both sides of the Mexican border by the Border Pedagogy Project. The central area of analysis for this study was the investigation of how participants of the Border Pedagogy Project, also recipients of the professional development seminars, changed their educational practices to improve the academic achievement of transnational students in the border region. This chapter presents an overview of the study that includes the statement of the problem, a review of the methodology, and a discussion of the significance of the results and the literature review in Chapter 2. This chapter also presents practical implications for implementing the Border Pedagogy framework, the limitations of the study, recommendations for future research, and concluding remarks.

Overview of the Problem

Chapter one addressed the concern of educators in the borderlands about how to improve the success rate of transnational Latino immigrant students (TLI). This study focused on the participants in the Border Pedagogy Initiative who engaged in professional development activities. A major question of this study focused on how Border pedagogy participants helped their TLI students become more successful in the school systems that students were attending. Did Border Pedagogy participants use the modeled teaching strategies learned in the seminars to improve their classroom
instruction to better serve transnational students? This study was guided by the following research questions:

1) In what ways did educators who received professional development through the Border Pedagogy Project transform their educational practices in the classroom?

2) In what ways did the practices modeled in the Border Pedagogy Project help transform current educational experiences for Latino immigrant and transnational students learning English and/or Spanish in the classroom?

This researcher used interview questions that included Appreciative Inquiry (AI) and grounded theory methodology to guide the analysis of the study’s research questions. The researcher then analyzed transcripts of participants’ narratives resulting from video taped and audio-recorded interviews using a coding approach known as in vivo codes (Creswell, 2008; Saldaña, 2009). The primary data set for the study was produced by this analysis (Creswell, 2008; Merriam, 1998; Yin 2009). Document analysis provided transparency to the data and increased the trustworthiness of the paired interviews and the demographic questionnaire results (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

The researcher identified the changes teacher participants made in classroom instruction based on their awareness of the linguistic and cultural needs of TLI students who move between school systems in the borderlands. The data analysis revealed the following constructs: similarities and differences in the educational systems, concerns about language acquisition, similarities among students, the need for prior knowledge about the cultures of students, the concern about standardized testing, a need for a curriculum that is both dynamic and interactive, a need for all teachers to be sensitive to students’ needs, the importance of being culturally sensitive, the knowledge gained from
face-to-face conversations, the building of relationships, the importance of seeing students as individuals, and the connection of personal experiences to bring to curriculum development.

**Significance of the Results and the Literature Review**

The findings of this study led to conclusions that both reflected and also elaborated the research and theory of critical pedagogy as it related to border pedagogy in the borderlands. These conclusions provided compelling answers to the research questions as well as argued for the value of Border Pedagogy professional development for educators in the border region. This section provides a discussion of the significance of the findings in relation to each individual research question.

**Research Question One**

*In what ways did educators, who received professional development through the *Border Pedagogy Professional Development Program* transform their educational practices in the classroom?*

Based on the findings, it can be concluded that participation in the Border Pedagogy professional development program was a transforming experience for the participating educators. The transformation of their understandings about borderlands education, their pedagogical knowledge about how to best teach TLI students and their perspectives about how best to improve education in the border region reflect and elaborate the research and theory of critical pedagogy. The results of this study indicate that Border Pedagogy has great potential to transform teachers’ understandings about
borderlands education and to develop and change pedagogical knowledge as well as traditional perspectives about school improvement through the appropriate training of educators teaching in the border region.

**Border Pedagogy professional development has the potential to transform the understandings educators have about borderlands**

First, Border Pedagogy professional development has the potential to transform the understandings educators have about borderlands education. Border Pedagogy helped educators in this study recognize and describe the border region identity that they and their students experienced as individuals living and working in the unique bi-national region of the borderlands. One of the key approaches of the Border Pedagogy professional development seminars were face-to-face conversations that fostered an increased awareness on the part of all attendees about their own lives, the lives of the students they served, and the common struggles they all experienced in educating TLI students (Cline and Nechochea, 2004). Deepened understandings about borderlands education motivated them to reach an overall consensus about the kinds of change needed to insure that TLI children would benefit from their bi-national lives in schools on both sides of the border. After BP professional development experiences, educators were able to see TLI students as children whose bi-national identities were valuable. Rather than talking about students with designated labels, such as “EL” or “immigrant,” they began to talk about the interests and behaviors that students on both sides of the border had in common. Educators’ recognition that their students had lives on both sides of the border reflects Romo’s (2005) concept of *double lives*, which he describes in his auto
ethnography. TLI students live double lives, too. They must adapt to the system, the
school and its educators as well as the language and the culture in each country to which
they immigrate.

During BP events, educators from both sides of the border explored their own
experiences working with TLI students, and came to recognize that they shared
experiences unique to being educators in the border region, a phenomenon explored by
researchers Reyes and Garza (2005), Barrios (2006), and Rippberger and Staudt (1999).
This study elaborated on the theme of common experiences in that educators’ growing
understandings of their unique borderland experiences evolved as a result of conversing
and thinking out loud about the specific details of their students’ dual lives. By
communicating with one another, educators had the opportunity to see how TLI students
were constantly negotiating the aforementioned mentioned variables in order to survive
the moves that constantly occurred in their lives.

Border Pedagogy professional development has the potential to help borderlands
educators transform their understandings of what it means to teach in the border region.
As a result of this awakening in their understandings, borderland educators changed their
perspectives about how to improve education in the region, such as agreeing to work
together to help students’ transition from one system to the other.

*Border Pedagogy professional development has the potential to transform the
pedagogical knowledge*

Second, Border Pedagogy professional development has the potential to transform
the pedagogical knowledge educators have about how best to educate TLI students. The Border Pedagogy conceptual model articulates a close relationship among teachers’ knowledge base, instructional practices, and curriculum planning (Cline and Necochea, 2003).

The power of Border Pedagogy professional development to transform pedagogical knowledge was in part an outcome of bringing together teachers from both sides of the border to collaboratively develop their pedagogical knowledge. BP professional development helped teachers transform their knowledge about the kinds of practices best suited to meet the specific needs of TLI students.

Educators from both sides of the border came to recognize the salience of strategies that facilitate academic confidence and cultural sensitivity, as well as the importance of primary language support and second language acquisition strategies. Because BP professional development helped educators recognize the consequences of the constant mobility of TLI students between two educational systems (Lopez Estrada, 1999; Sloat, Makkonen, and Koehler, 2007), they collaborated and conversed to figure out answers to the pedagogical questions this mobility posed. They collaborated on expanding their knowledge about the acquisition of a second language (English or Spanish, depending on the system). They recognized that it had to be a priority in the daily pedagogical practice of educators on both sides of the border due to the nature of second language acquisition and its role in academic success for TLI students (Romo, 2005). For example, teachers agreed that constant communication between teachers helps English learners acquire their second language with less stress because teachers looked at
students’ language acquisition needs as unique to each individual. In addition, Border Pedagogy helped educators in this study recognize the central role of the TLI students’ primary language as a scaffold or support in their learning process.

Educators in this study developed knowledge about the role of teachers to accept, value and use TLI students’ primary language. Halcón (2001) supports what educators on both sides of the border learned about the value of using a student’s primary language to mediate and support the acquisition of a second language. There was unanimous consensus of the participants that the use of primary language, as supported by Lindholm-Leary (2005), can make it easier for the TLI students to adapt themselves to a new educational system and achieve at grade level once they feel comfortable with the instructional language.

**Instruction and Curriculum**

A key pedagogical exploration for educators in this study was the kind of instruction and curriculum that would best serve TLI students. Border Pedagogy professional development has the potential to help borderlands educators explore the factors that foster or impede the academic development of TLI students and use the very best instructional practices based on authentic assessment and curriculum planning for TLI students. Educators noted that time spent on standardized testing detracted from curriculum planning and instruction. They noted that preparing students for the test had a negative effect on English/Spanish Learners because the focus on testing demanded that teachers “cramp the curriculum down” or compress curriculum and instruction in ways that were not appropriate for the developmental needs of TLI students. Educators also
agreed that instructional practices that push TLI students to perform on standardized tests as if English was their first language did not serve to improve the academic performance of TLI students in quality ways. These results have long lasting effects on closing the academic achievement gap (Santamaria, 2009; Sloat, et al., 2007; Valencia, 2002). TLI students, all attendees noted, have to be seen as individuals and they need to have their concerns and academic areas of need addressed as soon as they enter any classroom.

**Sensitivity to Educational Needs**

Sensitivity to the educational needs of students had frequently not been taken into consideration when planning and organizing classrooms for instruction. Sensitivity to the academic needs of students had not been researched as a critical part of educating TLI students. BP professional development seminars brought this issue to the attention of participants who noted, with surprise, that they had not thought that this issue was one that warranted special attention. It continues to be an area of concern because it is an important part of the whole child, and for TLI students, is an important part of understanding their academic achievement because they are transported to unknown and completely different learning environments.

*Border Pedagogy professional development has the potential to transform educators’ perspectives about how best to improve education*

Third, Border Pedagogy professional development has the potential to transform educators’ perspectives about how best to improve education in the border region. Border Pedagogy professional development has the potential to help many educators understand
how the unique characteristics of the borderlands should be considered in order to improve education for TLI students. Educators in this study developed the perspective that school improvement must be student centered, have a flexible curriculum and instructional practices that focus on the specific needs of TLI students (Reyes and Garza 2005; Cline and Necochea, 2004, 2006). Face-to-face conversations were a major contributor to this understanding. Teachers were able to exchange helpful information about student placement and academic progress and it is this exchange of information that convinced attendees of the value of the professional development activities and how each modeled strategy was student centered, the instruction and materials used in the curriculum flexible, and the interests, culture and language of students were at the center of the strategies of the curriculum.

By providing opportunities for educators to interact with teachers from the other side of the border, Border Pedagogy promoted a bi-national perspective about school improvement. Attendees found more similarities than differences between the educational systems in Mexico and the United States. As a result they saw the need to build bridges between the systems and started to develop educational activities that were exchanged between schools in the two countries (Cline and Necochea, 2004). Educational documents analyzed (Reading/Language Arts Frameworks for California Public Schools, 1999; and Programas de Estudio de Español: Educación Pimaria, 2000) in chapter two revealed ways in which the educational programs were very similar in terms of the content taught but differed in the manner in which content areas were addressed at different grade levels (Barrios, 2006). The literature supports the results in chapter four
that content standards for all grade levels in the educational programs in both systems are very similar. In addition to the materials used for comparison (the 1999 version of the Reading/Language Arts Frameworks for California Public Schools and the 2000 version of Programas de Estudio de Español: Educación Pimaria), a wordless picture book was added to support students’ cognition in a nonverbal manner. The development of a common lesson across grade levels that utilized educational strategies and similar content standards used on both sides of the border was used in teachers’ classrooms. Necochea and Cline’s (2003) findings regarding the lack of knowledge of the two educational systems on the part of educators on both sides of the border support the results in chapter 4 that a lack of systemic knowledge and understanding was detrimental to TLI students. Without systems knowledge, educators perceived students as having no knowledge of subject matter when they arrived in the other country. This obstacle became noticeable in the data. TLI students were consistently considered to be deficient in academic knowledge and instructional language. Therefore, the work of the Border Pedagogy professional development seminars initiated collaborative thinking about ways to close the academic achievement gap for TLI students.

**Research Question Two**

*In what ways did participants use modeled instructional practices used in the Border Pedagogy Professional Development Program to help transform current educational experiences for Latino immigrant and transnational students learning English and Spanish in the classroom?*
The results of this study answered this question by showcasing the efforts taken by educators on both sides of the border to transform educational experiences for TLI students. BP participating educators implemented BP instructional practices learned in Border Pedagogy activities. First, they changed their curriculum planning and used the modeled instructional practices to better meet the educational needs for their students. Educators changed their practices because the interactive activities of the seminars served to provide them with additional background knowledge about the cultures of their students. They saw the need to address issues of equity and social justice by developing democratic classrooms where all students’ voices were encouraged and respected.

Educators changed ways of assessing students, engaging in more authentic assessment to document students’ strengths and use their strengths to address areas of need. They took into consideration the prior academic experiences and linguistic knowledge of their transnational students. BP participants learned to let go of the authoritarian role of lecturer and took on the role of facilitator more frequently.

BP participants developed on-going relationships with educators on the other side of the border and utilized the knowledge learned from their colleagues to inform their instruction. These relationships gave rise to collaborative curriculum planning, supported by the literature in chapter two. Cline & Necochea, (2004), Quiocho et al. (2003), Reyes & Garza (2005) reported similar findings in their research.

**Curriculum and Instruction**

The results from video taped interviews and field notes revealed that participants felt the collaborative work and co-learning was a beginning in the process of transforming the educational experiences of their TLI students. They focused on insuring
that their curriculum planning and classroom instruction were culturally sensitive.

Analysis of the results from the interviews made it known that participants used literature that addressed the culture of their students. They selected stories and poems that showcased the experiences of children like their students in terms of interest and emotional growth. Students were encouraged to carry on discussions about their own experiences and write about them in both prose and poetry. The additional research of Cline & Necochea (2006) supports similar results as those of the Border Pedagogy Institute where participants also noted that using the literature that reflects the culture of students increased self-esteem of students and their effectiveness as leaders and learners.

The use of both languages was encouraged in student products to ensure that students could write and express themselves freely without concern of language becoming a barrier to self-expression. Primary language usage is supported by the literature as a means of supporting students’ freedom to express themselves in any language and in environments where both cultures are accepted, celebrated, and affirmed for the strengths they offer (McLaren, 1994; Nieto 1996; Cline & Necochea, 2004a; Reyes & Garza, 2005) as cited in Cline & Necochea (2006).

**Social Justice and Equity**

Participants in this study identified issues of social justice and equity in their dialogues. They emphasized that a culturally sensitive curriculum and equal access to the core curriculum for all students was central to any program designed for borderland students. They recognized the need to provide an equitable education for all students. *Cultural baggage* accompanies every student in each and every classroom here in the U.S., Mexico and the world. The job of the borderland educator, attendees agreed, is to
address the issue of culture to the best of his/her ability. Therefore, cultural sensitivity has to be part of educating borderland students. Understanding the culture of TLI students should help educators adopt a better disposition toward TLI students and not erroneously draw invalid conclusions about them without getting to know them and their cultures. Giroux (2004); Lopez Estrada, (1999); Martinez, (1994); McLaren & Jaramillo, (2006); Reyes & Garza (2005) found that culture as well as equity and access to the curriculum provides minority students with the skills and knowledge to succeed in school and close the educational achievement gap.

Analysis of the results of this study highlighted the need to pay close attention to the issue of cultural sensitivity. Results emphasized the constant adjustment that TLI students consistently have to make because they live in two worlds, two cultures, and learn in two educational systems. They have to negotiate these rapid changes several times each academic year. Reyes & Garza (2005); Santiago, (2008); Sloat, Makkonen, & Koehler, (2007) reported similar findings in their studies of border students. Living double lives was the effect of frequent mobility between two countries and affected the academic success of TLI students. Therefore, it is imperative that borderland teachers be culturally sensitive to their students.

Acknowledging their cultural experiences as unique is an important part of welcoming TLI students to the classroom. Allowing students to share the experiences they have had in the other country is another way students can learn about their culture and the culture of the country into which they have moved. A direct connection exists between background knowledge and cultural sensitivity.
The use of bilingual books and books in English and Spanish that are culturally sensitive provided BP participants the tools to integrate language acquisition into their instruction and publicly address the cultural needs of TLI students. Using bilingual, multicultural books provided a translation of key words and helped students make connections to their cultural backgrounds. Participants wanted to change their instructional practices and use more culturally sensitive instructional strategies after they saw the positive impact that the use of appropriate materials made on students’ motivation and engagement in learning. They saw the use of bilingual, multicultural literature as a way to help TLI students become a part of the U.S. or Mexican cultures while maintaining their own cultures. Connecting to culture through multicultural, bilingual books acknowledged the culture of all students in the classroom. BP participants also shared this strategy with other colleagues at their school sites.

Assessment and Instruction

Results from Chapter four showed that participants transformed the educational experiences for TLI students by changing their assessment and instruction to include the prior academic and linguistic knowledge of TLI students. Prior knowledge was an element to consider, agreed BP participants. The acceptance of and obtaining prior academic and linguistic knowledge about their students is an element that the Border Pedagogy Institute (Cline & Necochea, 2006) and “Teachers on the border region: In their words,” a study by Reyes and Garza (2005) found. Educators who participated in BP and the Reyes and Garza study emphasized that the need to obtain prior information about their TLI students was key to providing them with the appropriate educational program.
Educators understood that they needed to inquire about the academic knowledge students brought with them from their countries of origin. Through conversations and reflections, educators identified what they had in common as educators in the borderlands, and they used these conversation models in their classrooms to give their own students voice and to share their experiences with their classmates (Halcón, 2001; Cline & Necochea, 2006; McLaren & Jaramillo, 2006).

A common bond was created between educators on both sides of the border and this bond translated into instructional changes that benefitted their students. Not only did they use face-to-face conversations as in the café model of BP (Necochea, 2008; Boushey & Moser, 2009), they also used journals, think-pair-share activities, cooperative learning groups, and music as well as poetry to free the voices of their students who lived in two cultures. They realized that sometimes, the terminology of the instructional language is the only area in which TLI students might need help since they had already learned content concepts in prior schooling experiences. Acknowledging the prior knowledge of their TLI students when teaching similar subjects was helpful to TLI students in both educational systems, according to their teachers. Other strategies included the use of primary language to facilitate access to the language and academics at grade level. This supported Barrios’ (2006) findings when the curricula of both educational systems were compared.

**Role from Lecturer to Facilitator**

Results of this study (chapter 4) showed how participants transformed the educational experiences of their TLI students by letting go of the authoritarian role of
lecturer and taking on the role of facilitator more frequently. They incorporated active learning experiences more often into their instruction to engage students in constructing meaning. This result was not supported by the literature. Instead it was a feature of instruction stressed in BP seminars and activities that participants in this study commented on adopting in their own instructional practices. Interactive strategies were carried over to the classroom where teachers encouraged their students to be more active in their learning through group work and more responsible for their own learning. The dialogue that had occurred among participants during BP seminars was one strategy participants used in their classrooms to create interaction among students. Student interaction and taking responsibility for their own learning is supported by the literature in Chapter two. Reyes & Garza (2005) and Necochea, (2008) found that educators were implementing similar strategies to bring learning alive, to make it active and participatory instead of a passive act.

**On-going Relationships**

The results found in the data analysis of the interviews in Chapter four showed that participants transformed educational experiences for their TLI students by developing on-going relationships with educators on the other side of the border. Cline and Necochea (2006) and Reyes and Garza (2005) identified similar results in their studies. An exchange of ideas led to the infusion of different perspectives and strategies in curriculum planning and instruction. Educators visited each other’s classrooms and experienced teaching each other’s students. Classroom visits created unique opportunities for educators from one side of the border to teach in classrooms on the other side of the
border. These teacher exchanges were realized through an extension of the Border Pedagogy Initiative called Classrooms across the Border. Classrooms across the Border brought interested educators together to plan similar lessons, teach in each other’s classrooms, and share the results of the planning and lesson delivery. At the same time, students in the participating teachers’ classrooms exchanged correspondence with each other. Therefore, relationships were established between educators on both sides of the border as well as students on both sides of the border. The literature does not support this finding since Border Pedagogy’s Classroom across the Border was an activity that developed as a result of the dialogues between participants on both sides of the border. This result is supported by BP workshop agendas and video taped documentation.

**Implications for Implementing Border Pedagogy Framework**

Teachers who find transnational students in their classrooms should be aware of the strategies and methods highlighted in this study. Learning about and implementing these strategies will help to develop classrooms in which all students are accepted as valuable contributors to their learning environments. This result supports Freire’s (1970/1977) critical pedagogy where students participate in acquiring knowledge. They talk about, question and seek out more information about topics they are learning. Instead of receiving and memorizing information, students become active meaning makers and critical thinkers. Cline and Necochea’s (2008) dialogues held in BP activities between educators in the borderland fostered questioning of issues, motivation to explore and investigate all perspectives of an issue, and a call to action to solve common problems.
It is important that teachers make concerted efforts to insure that all students in their classrooms are learning from one another. The idea of creating an environment where teacher and students are co-learners is an important factor to consider when implementing the Border Pedagogy framework in any classroom.

The co-learner relationship can be fostered by encouraging all students to openly express themselves and share information and artifacts that represent who they are. Students can share something about themselves, their families, and the country from which they came along with pictures of themselves and their friends from the other country. Students can be grouped in ways to make the sharing of knowledge a requirement of the cooperative learning task, that is, where the task can only be completed because students are co-learners and interdependent. This would require that teachers model the language and social behaviors they wish to see their students learn and adopt.

Along with the modeling of language, social skills and expected behavior, the teacher also needs to constantly provide students with positive feedback, consistently clarifying the academic language students do not quite understand with the use of the student’s primary language. Repeated modeling has to be an integral part of creating an environment in which all students are co-learners because it is only with consistency and repeated modeling over time that students and teachers develop the habit of mind of co-learning.

Teachers also need to focus on the role of facilitator to help students understand that in a classroom of co-learners, knowledge is also co-created. In such an environment, students understand that they are the problem solvers and investigators who share
information and generalize from the information gained. The social skills of group participation teach students how to share, how to talk to each other, how to question and how to ask for more information. Students should be exposed to and shown how to use bilingual books in their investigations and explorations of topics and ideas and be guided to appreciate the cultures of different countries. Using bilingual books places English Learners in the role of experts who can explain and extend language as well as cultural concepts for their fellow students. Class books can be created, collections of poetry published, songs and chants written and performed, and journals shared with trusted friends. The products students create should be shared and celebrated as symbols of who they are.

Because it has been acknowledged in this study that transnational students are unique, it is imperative that teachers who teach borderland students challenge the curriculum of the status quo. They must become advocates for their students and find ways to integrate the interests, cultures, materials, and experiences of their students into the curriculum of their classrooms. It was Ladson-Billings (2009) who chronicled the leadership and academic success of minority students in a mixed class by noting that the cultures of the students in those successful classrooms were placed at the center of the curriculum. In addition to adapting the curriculum, the teachers in the Ladson-Billings (2009) study also modeled co-learning and honored the co-creation of knowledge and critical thinking in their classrooms. The materials used were culturally sensitive and appropriate. Academic improvement over time was significant, and as modeled in the BP seminars as well as in the Ladson-Billings study, it is through the use of these strategies
that access to the core curriculum and social justice becomes a way of life.

Teachers of transnational students must also get to know their students. It is important that borderland teachers become an integral part of the communities in which they teach and get to know the parents as well as the communities in which their students live. It is important that teachers develop relationships between themselves and their students. Attend the community festivals and become an active participant.

Teachers should encourage their students to write descriptions of Mexico and read the poetry of Francisco Alarcon (2005) who writes about his transnational experiences in the book entitled, *From the belly button of the moon and other summer poems*. Imagine how students will re-act when they return with a collection of self-authored poetry and the poems they have learned about their culture while in school across the border. Then, as emphasized in the voices of the participants in this study, there must be dialogue that occurs between teachers from both sides of the border. Seek out conferences and organizations that make this a reality.

Become involved in a movement like the Border Pedagogy Initiative as well as other efforts focused on fostering open communications about our borders and its people. In this time of political concerns about immigration, it is urgent that teachers of borderland students become active and learn as much as they can about the students they teach and the teachers on the other side of the border who teach their students.

**Limitations**

Several precautions should be considered before applying the findings of this
study. Epistemological and research methodologies for this study were not meant to produce generalizable data. This study was designed to explore the in-depth experiences of educators teaching TLI students in the Tijuana/San Diego border region. Limited literature about the experiences of educators educating TLI students called for qualitative methods (Creswell, 2008). Through the use of critical pedagogy epistemology and Border Pedagogy research, I filtered the data through my positionality and experiences in the Border Pedagogy Project and its activities. A conceptual model based on border pedagogy professional development activities emerged to explain the experiences of educators in a small section of the border of the U.S. and Mexico (Cline & Necochea, 2003, 2006) See figure 5.1.

![Figure 5.1 Border Pedagogy Conceptual Model (Cline & Necochea, 2003)](image)

Checking and using three forms of data increased the trustworthiness of this study (Creswell, 2008; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The study sought to explain the experiences of TLI students and the educators who interact with them in this region rather than
generalize to educators in other border regions.

The research setting and participants further limits the generalizability of the study’s results. The study explored the experiences of underserved students in one cultural center at one university. Researching the specific Tijuana/San Diego border region and purposeful sampling of the participants produced rich data that provided insight into the rich experiences (Creswell, 2008) of educators who participated in the Border Pedagogy Project. Experiences of educators in other parts of the U.S./Mexico border may provide different results and theories.

The experiences of educators of TLI students may also limit the application of the results to other border regions. Providing a similar project as the Border Pedagogy Project with different facilitators would produce divergent results and create different theories. The socioeconomic status of TLI students may question the application of the results of this study to other lower socioeconomic minority students. Many TLI students attend public schools in the U.S. because of their economical needs. On the other hand, the socioeconomic status of other TLI students, who come from a middle or upper socioeconomic status, may attend U.S. schools to be exposed to a better education. Socioeconomic status was not a factor of consideration in this study, but it could provide additional information about the income of TLI students’ parents. That factor could strengthen the results of this study by including parental participation in the education and success of TLI students as an additional factor.

The research setting also contributes to caution in generalizing this study’s results to other border regions. As noted in Chapter 4, conducting the paired interviews during
data collection created a coordination of time and meeting place convenient for all parties involved in the interviews. Having a central place and a set time for interviews may have produced different results.

**Recommendations for Future Research**

A need for leadership in continuing to look at educators and TLI students emerged from an inquiry of critical pedagogy methodology and the Border Pedagogy Initiative. Several findings from the data warrant further study. Application of different research methods and investigation of emerging themes from the study may provide further understanding of the results of this study.

Critical pedagogy and Border Pedagogy as the central or core category of this study calls for further examination of the Border Pedagogy Project. Results of this study contributed to the dearth of research on Border Pedagogy in the Tijuana/San Diego region (Cline & Necochea, 2003, 2006; Cline et al., 2003; Necochea & Cline, 2006; Quiocho, et al., 2003; Reyes & Garza, 2005). Using different qualitative methodological analyses to further understand the influence of the Border Pedagogy Project on the instructional practices of educators educating TLI students is recommended. A longitudinal study may generate an in-depth understanding regarding educators and their TLI students’ success while they are moving between educational systems (Grbich, 2007). Furthermore, a cross-case study analysis of educational programs and the leadership to implement a designed educational program to serve students in the U.S./Mexico border may further inform this study’s Border Pedagogy Project (Yin, 2009). Additional research on leadership from both systems coming together to develop a
common educational program to serve TLI students across the U.S./Mexican border and the impact of this curriculum on the academic success of TLI students may narrow the existing educational achievement gap.

Future research is needed to explore Border Pedagogy modeled instructional strategies to develop an educational program that will support educators and TLI student success to insure that we will be able to close the achievement gap that currently exists between TLI students and their classmates (Reyes & Garza, 2005; Necochea & Cline; 2008). The results in chapter 4 suggest the implementation and development of educational programs that empower TLI students through a process-oriented approach (Necochea & Cline, 1999; Romo, 2005).

A future inquiry for more conversations between educators in the border region may further influence educators and policy makers to value the relational existence of educational programs and the unique needs of educators and TLI students in the border region. Using the Border Pedagogy model, conversations will need to continue with consistency over time to insure that all voices are heard, knowledge and understanding of each others’ systems developed and data on student progress recorded and analyzed.

The closing of the academic achievement gap and equity for TLI students calls for further analysis of the phenomenon of Border Pedagogy in the borderlands. Future analysis may use the Cline and Necochea (2003) Border Pedagogy Conceptual model and a critical pedagogy framework (Freire, 1970/1977) and Giroux (1988, 1991) to guide the work. The border pedagogy concept and its definition as delineated by Anzaldúa (2007) and Giroux (1992) as well as their definitions of border and border crossing can provide
policy makers and borderland educators with a deeper understanding of the unique situations educators face in educating TLI students.

Exploring educational programs and how they influence the academic progress of TLI students in either educational program may impact the closing of the academic achievement gap and the achievement of social justice for TLI students. Further inquiries may provide the impetus for policy makers and educators in the borderlands to extend this study and actually make progress in closing the achievement gap.

Conclusion

Border Pedagogy (BP) was a project in which I participated since its inception. Border Pedagogy served as my connection to what educators were experiencing educating TLI students on both sides of the border. BP was my place to learn and help support my TLI students and build long lasting relationships with educators on both sides of the border. It also provided me the opportunity to plan for Border Pedagogy events, dialogue about diversity, educational, cultural, and identity issues. The comfortable environment of the BP seminars created a sense of freedom for me to share my own background and experiences with other educators about my concerns as a teacher of TLI students. BP helped me become a more successful teacher of TLI students. The BP founder and coordinators were passionate in raising our awareness of social justice, cultural sensitivity, and language issues by creating a welcoming environment for educators and participants from diverse cultures and foreign countries.

The results of this study enriched my experiences as an English learner and a
bilingual teacher in a California classroom. BP created a sense of community, a safe environment for open dialogue, and opportunities to understand the educational programs in which TLI students participate. I learned the importance of knowing the similarities and differences of different educational programs and that contributed to my understanding of why we struggle so hard to close the achievement gap for TLI students.

BP directors cared and their mentorship influenced my decision to conduct this research study to inform the educational community about my personal experiences and the experiences of other BP participants who teach TLI students. As one participant mentioned, “If it wasn’t for you and the Border Pedagogy activities, I would not have changed my instructional methods by learning about the students’ academic and cultural background knowledge.” That quote provided the flame for this inquiry into the Border Pedagogy Project and educating TLI students in the borderlands. As a result of this study, there is now awareness about the unique needs of educators and their TLI students to support Border Pedagogy in the Tijuana/San Diego borderland region.
APPENDIX A

Protocol for Individual interviews and Focus Groups

English Version

1) What attracted you or drew you to participate in the Border Pedagogy project?

2) If you were to describe Border Pedagogy to a friend, what would you say? What are its most important features? What does it make it unique?

3) How did your participation in Border Pedagogy affect you as an educator?
   a. What new insights did you gain about being an educator in the border region?
   b. In what ways, if any, did Border Pedagogy change or transform your views and perspectives as an educator?

4) I am interested in learning how Border Pedagogy might have affected your own pedagogy. Can you describe any thing that you experienced or learned in Border Pedagogy (events, or activities) that changed your instruction in the classroom in anyway?
   a. (ASK only if needed for elaboration or probing) If so, what specific strategies that you learned in Border Pedagogy are you using in your classroom?
   b. What prompted you to try out these new strategies?
   c. How are they different from what you did before?

5) This last series of question asks you to focus on the educational experiences of English language learner/Spanish language learner (ELL/SLL) in your classroom who are Latino and transnational students.
   a. As an educator in the borderlands, what are the central issues you face in the education of Latino immigrant and transnational ELL/SLL students?
   b. What impact have you noticed Border Pedagogy strategies have had on your ELL/SLL students? How has their learning been enhanced from your efforts? How do you know?
   c. In light of what you have learned through Border Pedagogy about education in the borderlands and effective instructional strategies, how has what you learned affected your teaching ELL/SLL in your classroom?
6) Perhaps ask a series of questions on School factors affecting Border Pedagogy.

   a. In light of what you have learned through Border Pedagogy about education in the borderlands and effective instructional strategies, what would be most important to share with your colleagues?

   b. Have you had an opportunity to share what you’ve learned and are trying in your classroom with other teachers in your school?

   c. In what ways has your administrator supported you in implementing Border Pedagogy approaches and strategies?

   d. Are there any school barriers that limit the implementation of Border Pedagogy strategies you have learned and feel would be more effective for immigrant and Latino students?

7) What recommendations would you make for strengthening the Border Pedagogy Initiative?
APENDIX B

Preguntas para la Entrevista Individual y de Grupo

Spanish Version

1) ¿Qué le(s) atrajo o le(s) animó a participar en el proyecto de la pedagogía fronteriza?

2) Si trataría(n) de describirle la pedagogía fronteriza a un amigo ¿Cómo lo haría(n)? ¿Cuáles serían las características importantes que hace a la pedagogía fronteriza única?

3) Como participante(s) en la pedagogía fronteriza ¿cómo le(s) ha afectado a usted(es) como educador(es)?
   a. ¿Qué conocimiento nuevo y profundo ha(n) adquirido debido a que usted es(son) un(os) educador(es) en región fronteriza?
   b. ¿De qué maneras, si hay alguna, la pedagogía fronteriza cambió o transformó sus perspectivas y puntos de vista como educador(es)?

4) Estoy interesado en saber como la pedagogía fronteriza pudo haber afectado su propia pedagogía. ¿Puede(n) describir cualquier actividad o actividades que aprendió o experimentó que le(s) hizo cambiar en alguna manera la enseñanza que imparte(n) en sus clases debido a los eventos y actividades de la pedagogía fronteriza?
   (ASK only if needed for elaboration or probing)
   a. Si es así, ¿cuáles son específicamente esas estrategias que aprendió(ieron) en la pedagogía fronteriza que esta(n) usando en sus clases?
   b. ¿Qué le(s) animó a tratar de usar estas estrategias nuevas?
   c. ¿Cómo son estas estrategias nuevas diferentes de las que usaba(n) anteriormente?

5) Este siguiente grupo de preguntas que siguen están enfocadas hacia las experiencias educacionales de estudiantes latinos inmigrantes y transnacionales que están en su salón de clases.
   a. Como educador(es) en la zonas fronterizas ¿Cuáles son los temas principales que encuentrará(n) usted(es) en la educación de estudiantes inmigrantes latino y transnacionales aprendiendo español?
b. Cuál es el impacto que ha(n) notado usando las estrategias de la pedagogía fronteriza para sus estudiantes? ¿Cómo el aprendizaje de sus estudiantes ha mejorado debido a los esfuerzos de usted(es)? ¿Cómo usted(es) sabe(n) que ha ayudado a sus estudiantes?

6) Debido a la efectividad de las estrategias aprendidas en la pedagogía fronteriza, acerca de la educación en la zonas fronterizas, ¿cuáles serían las estrategias más importantes que compartirían con sus colegas?

a. ¿Ha(n) tenido la oportunidad de compartir lo que aprendieron y lo esta(n) usando en su(s) clase(s) y con otros maestros en su(s) escuela(s)?

b. De que maneras los administradores le(s) ha(n) apoyado en la implementación de las estrategias de la pedagogía fronteriza?

c. ¿Ha(n) encontrado algunos obstáculos que limitan la implementación de las estrategias que usted(es) ha(n) aprendido y usted(es) piensa(n) que serían más efectivas para la enseñanza de los estudiantes imigrantes latinos y transnacionales?

7) ¿Cuáles serían algunas recomendaciones que usted(es) haría(n) para fortalecer la iniciativa de la pedagogía fronteriza?
# APENDIX C

## Border Pedagogy Case Study Demographic Questionnaire

**English Version**

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<th>Tel. Num.</th>
<th>e-mail Address</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Gender:** [  ] Male [  ] Female

**First Language:** ______________________

**Are you bilingual in Spanish and English?** [  ] yes [  ] no

If yes, rate your language proficiency level for each literacy skill
Mark with an “X” the corresponding number on the rating scale:
  1 = lowest and 5 = highest

**Spanish**
- Speaking and listening in Spanish [  ]1 [  ]2 [  ]3 [  ]4 [  ]5
- Reading in Spanish [  ]1 [  ]2 [  ]3 [  ]4 [  ]5
- Writing in Spanish [  ]1 [  ]2 [  ]3 [  ]4 [  ]5

**English**
- Speaking and listening in English [  ]1 [  ]2 [  ]3 [  ]4 [  ]5
- Reading in English [  ]1 [  ]2 [  ]3 [  ]4 [  ]5
- Writing in English [  ]1 [  ]2 [  ]3 [  ]4 [  ]5

**How frequently do you cross the U.S./Mexican border?**
- [  ] daily
- [  ] once a week
- [  ] once a month
- [  ] more than 5 times a year
- [  ] less than 5 times a year

**For what reasons do you cross the border?** (Check all that apply.)
- [  ] work related
- [  ] shopping
- [  ] to visit family
- [  ] other ________________________________

**Number of years teaching:** [  ] 1-5 [  ] 5-10 [  ] more than 10 yrs

**Current work position** ________________________________

**What subject(s) do you teach?** ________________________________

**What grade levels have you taught?**
- [  ] Pre-school
[ ] Primary (grades kinder – 2)
[ ] Elementary (grades 3 – 5)
[ ] Middle (grades 6-8)
[ ] High school (grades 9 – 12)

List any previous positions in education: _______________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

Have you used both Spanish and English in your instructional practice/teaching?
[ ] yes
[ ] no
If yes, explain how you have used Spanish and English both in your instructional practice.

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

How frequently do you work with transnational students in your position?
[ ] very often
[ ] often
[ ] sometimes
[ ] not often
[ ] very frequently
[ ] infrequently

How did you hear about Border Pedagogy?
[ ] administrator or professor
[ ] colleague
[ ] flyer announcement
[ ] other ___________

When did you attend Border Pedagogy? (check all that apply)
[ ] 2002 – 2003
[ ] 2004 – 2005
[ ] 2005 – 2006
[ ] 2006 – 2007
[ ] 2007 – 2008

How frequently did you attend Border Pedagogy Activities?
[ ] very frequently
[ ] often
[ ] sometimes
[ ] not often
[ ] very infrequently

What type of Border Pedagogy event did you participate in? (Check all that apply).
Which of these Border Pedagogy events:
[ ] Bi-national Literacy Institute
[ ] Monthly Seminars
[ ] Dual language Fall Mini-conference
[ ] Fall Bi-national Conference (in San Marcos)
[ ] Spring Bi-national Conference (in Tijuana)
[ ] Schools across borders Project
[ ] Other _________________

Why did you attend Border Pedagogy events? ____________________________________

What kind of activities did you do at Border Pedagogy events? (Please describe)

___________________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________________

In what other ways were you involve in Border Pedagogy?
[ ] Facilitator
[ ] Translator
[ ] Presenter
[ ] Other

Please tell about your experience: _____________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________________
APENDIX D

Encuesta Demográfica para un Caso de Estudio de la Pedagogía Fronteriza

Spanish Version

Nombre

Dirección

Ciudad __________________________ Código Postal __________________________ País

Número de teléfono __________________________ Dirección de e-mail __________________________

Género: [ ] Masculino  [ ] Femenino  Primer Lenguaje: __________________________

¿Es usted bilingüe en español e inglés? [ ] Si  [ ] No

Sí es así, evalúe su nivel de conocimiento en las siguientes áreas.

Ponga una “X” en el número que corresponda a su nivel de dominio del español e inglés:
1 = lo más bajo y 5 = lo más alto

**Español**

Hablando y escuchando en español [ ] 1 [ ] 2 [ ] 3 [ ] 4 [ ] 5

Leyendo en español [ ] 1 [ ] 2 [ ] 3 [ ] 4 [ ] 5

Escribiendo en español [ ] 1 [ ] 2 [ ] 3 [ ] 4 [ ] 5

**Inglés**

Hablando y escuchando en inglés [ ] 1 [ ] 2 [ ] 3 [ ] 4 [ ] 5

Leyendo en inglés [ ] 1 [ ] 2 [ ] 3 [ ] 4 [ ] 5

Escribiendo en inglés [ ] 1 [ ] 2 [ ] 3 [ ] 4 [ ] 5

¿Con qué frecuencia usted cruza la frontera entre los Estados Unidos y México?
[ ] diariamente
[ ] una vez a la semana
[ ] una vez al mes
[ ] más de 5 veces por año
[ ] menos de 5 veces por año

¿Cuáles son las razones por las que usted cruza la frontera? (Ponga una “X” en todas las que apliquen).
[ ] relacionadas con su trabajo
[ ] de compras
[ ] a visitar a su familia
[ ] otra razón ____________________________________________________________

Cuántos años ha estado enseñando: [ ] 1-5 [ ] 5-10 [ ] más de 10 años

¿Qué posición tiene en el escalafón en este momento ______________________________

¿Qué materia(s) enseña usted? __________________________________________________

¿Qué niveles escolares ha enseñado?
[ ] Pre-escuela
[ ] Primaria (grados kinder – 2)
[ ] Primaria (grados 3 – 5)
[ ] Secundaria (grados 6-8)
[ ] Preparatoria/Vocacional (grados 9 – 12)

Describa que otras posiciones previas ha ejercido en la educación:
________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

Ha usado usted ambos lenguajes (español e inglés) en sus prácticas instruccionales y de
enseñanza?
[ ] sí [ ] no

Sí es así, explique usted como ha usado ambas lenguas (español e inglés) en sus prácticas
instruccionales.
________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

¿Qué tan frecuente usted trabaja con estudiantes transnacionales en su nombramiento?
[ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ]
todo constantemente ocasionalmente de vez en cuando raramente el tiempo

¿Cómo escuchó acerca de la pedagogía fronteriza?
[ ] administrador o professor
[ ] compañero de trabajo
[ ] folleto/volante
[ ] otro ___________

¿Cuándo asistió usted a la pedagogía fronteriza? (Marque con una “X” todos los que le
apliquen)
[ ] 2002 – 2003
[ ] 2004 – 2005
[ ] 2005 – 2006
¿Qué tan frecuentemente usted asistió a las actividades de pedagogía fronteriza?
[ ] todo tiempo 
[ ] constantemente 
[ ] ocasionalmente 
[ ] de vez en cuando 
[ ] raramente 
[ ] el tiempo

¿En qué tipo de actividades de pedagogía fronteriza usted participó? (Marque todas las que apliquen).
Cuáles de estas actividades de pedagogía fronteriza:
[ ] Bi-national Literacy Institute
[ ] Seminarios Mensuales
[ ] Dual language Fall Mini-conference
[ ] Conferencia Binacional de Otoño (en San Marcos)
[ ] Conferencia Binacional de Primavera (en Tijuana)
[ ] Proyecto de Escuelas Entre Fronteras (Schools Across Borders Project)
[ ] Otras ________________

¿Porqué asistió a los eventos de la pedagogía fronteriza? ________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

¿Qué tipo de actividades hizo usted en los eventos de la pedagogía fronteriza? (Por favor describálas) _________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

¿En qué otras maneras estuvo usted envuelto en la pedagogía fronteriza?
[ ] Facilitador
[ ] Traductor/Interprete
[ ] Presentador
[ ] Otras

Describa sus experiencias: ________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
APENDIX E

Consent to Participate in Research

English Version

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Invitation to Participate

Gilberto D. Barrios, a researcher/graduate student at California State University San Marcos is conducting a study on the instructional strategies learned by border pedagogy seminars participants and the impact the strategies have had on their students and everyday instructional practices. You are invited to participate in this study because you are a teacher who has participated twice or more times in the Border Pedagogy Seminars.

Purpose

This study has two objectives:
1. To better understand how border pedagogy professional development transformed your educational practices in the classroom.
2. To learn how the practice used in the border pedagogy program helped transform current educational experiences for Latino immigrant and transnational students who are learning English and Spanish in the classroom.

The interviews will last from one and a half to two hours.

Description of Procedures

If you agree to participate, you will be interviewed either individually or in groups. The conversational style interview will take approximately one and a half to two hours and, with your permission, will be audio and/or videotaped. The interviews will take place in a convenient time and place for you in Tijuana, Baja California, Mexico and San Diego, California, USA.

Risks and Inconveniences

There are some potential risks attached to this study. Participants may feel a loss of time if the interviews are conducted longer than the specified time. Participant teachers may be uncomfortable in the site where the individual and focus group interviews are conducted. Participants may feel that their confidentiality will not be safeguarded.

Your interview and contact data will be kept confidential and will remain in the researcher’s sole possession. The main risk of confidentiality is that the researcher’s computer is lost or stolen there is the potential that unauthorized individuals may access the data. To protect against this possibility the researcher’s computer will remain in his possession at all times or under lock and key, and at all times be password protected.

For transcription of audio data, the researcher will only use a company or companies who specialize in transcription services. Only the audio recordings will be provided to transcribers. The researcher will use the video recording to check the transcriptions for accuracy.

If the length of the interview is inconvenient for you, you may stop the interview at any time without any consequence to you.
Benefits
This study will shed light on how border pedagogy strategies provided a new lens for teacher who participated in the border pedagogy seminars teaching in the border region Tijuana/San Diego. There may be a direct benefit to participant teachers in both side of the border studied in that review of the final dissertation findings may help them gain insights in how they are helping borderland students to achieve things in their lives. A digital copy of the final study will be available to you and your schools upon its completion.

Confidentiality
Your interview tapes will be placed in a secure place such as a locked cabinet or password-protected computer. Only the researcher, his advisor, and a reputable transcription service company will have access to the information you provide. The analysis and reporting of the results will not identify participants by name. Call contact information, such as email addresses, will be kept in a safe, password-protected computer. There will be no follow-up interviews session, but you may be contacted in the future by via email and or telephone.

You should know that the Cal State San Marcos Institutional Review Board (IRB) may inspect study records as part of its auditing program, and these reviews only focus on the researchers and the study, not on your responses or involvement. The IRB is a committee that reviews research studies to make sure that they are safe and that the rights of participants are protected.

Voluntary Participation
Participation is voluntary. You do not have to participate in this study if you do not want to. If you agree to be in this study, but later change your mind, you may withdraw at any time. If the length of the interview is inconvenient for you, you may stop the interview at any time without any consequence to you. There are no consequences of any kind if you decide you do not want to participate. Your employee standing will not be affected if you choose not to participate.

Economic Considerations/Incentives
For participating in this study, you will receive a $20.00 Starbucks gift card.

Questions
If you have any questions about this study I will be happy to answer them now. If you have questions about the study, you may direct those to the researcher, Gilberto D. Barrios at 1-760-716-3237 or the researcher’s advisor, Alice Quicoche at 1-760-750-4035. If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact our Institutional Review Board at 1-760.750.4029.

☐ I agree to participate in this research study.
☐ I agree to be videotaped

Participant’s Name

____________________________

Participant’s Signature

____________________________

Researcher’s Signature

Date

This document has been approved by
Institutional Review Board at
California State University San Marcos

Expiration Date: 2/24/2011
APENDIX F

Consent to Participate in Research

Spanish Version

CONSENTIMIENTO PARA PARTICIPAR

Invitación para participar
Gilberto D. Barrios es un investigador/estudiante de posgrado en la Universidad Estatal de California San Marcos, y está conduciendo una investigación sobre las estrategias aprendidas por participantes en los seminarios de la pedagogía fronteriza y el impacto que las estrategias han tenido en sus estudiantes y en la instrucción cotidiana impartida en el salón de clase. Usted ha sido invitado a participar en este estudio porque usted es un docente que participó por lo menos dos veces en los Seminarios de la Pedagogía Fronteriza.

Propósito y descripción del procedimiento
Este estudio tiene dos objetivos:
1. Comprender mejor cómo los seminarios de mejora profesional han transformado sus prácticas educativas en el salón de clase.
2. Aprender cómo las enseñanzas prácticas presentadas en el programa de la pedagogía fronteriza ayuda a cambiar las experiencias educativas de los latinos que son estudiantes inmigrantes y transnacionales que están aprendiendo inglés y español en los salones fronterizos.
Las entrevistas tendrán una duración de una hora y media a dos horas.
Si usted está de acuerdo a participar, usted participará en entrevistas personales y/o entrevistas en grupo. Las entrevistas serán como una conversación que durarán aproximadamente una hora y media a dos horas. Con su permiso, las entrevistas serán grabadas y/o filmadas. Las entrevistas se llevarán a cabo en el lugar y hora que le sea conveniente para usted en Tijuana, Baja California, México y San Diego, California, USA.

Riesgos e inconveniencias
Hay la posibilidad de algunos riesgos en esta investigación. Los participantes quizás sientan que están perdiendo su tiempo si las entrevistas toman más del tiempo especificado. Docentes participantes podrían sentirse incómodos en el lugar en donde se realicen las entrevistas individuales y las del grupo. Participantes pueden tener desconfianza en cómo se mantendrá su privacidad y confidencialidad.
Sus entrevistas e información confidencial serán guardadas por el investigador y las mantendrá en sus posesión todo el tiempo. El riesgo principal con esta información confidencial es que la computadora del investigador se pierda o que sea robada con la posibilidad de que algunas personas no autorizadas puedan tener acceso a la información. Para proteger la información de esta posibilidad, el investigador mantendrá la computadora en su posesión todo el tiempo y bajo llave, y además la computadora será protegida por medio de claves.
Para transcribir la grabación de las entrevistas, el investigador usará solamente compañías especializadas que proveen servicios de transcripción. Solamente enviará la grabación auditiva.
El investigador usará grabación en video para asegurarse de que las transcripciones son correctas.
Si el tiempo que está durando la entrevista es inconveniente para usted, usted puede parar la entrevista en cualquier momento sin recibir ninguna consecuencia personal o profesional.
**Beneficios**

Esta investigación iluminará las estrategias usadas en los seminarios de la pedagogía fronteriza proveyendo un punto de vista diferente para los docentes que enseñan en la frontera entre Tijuana/San Diego. Puede haber un beneficio directo para los docentes participantes en ambos lados de la frontera que se va a estudiar, y que, al revisar los resultados escritos en la tesis, pueda ayudarlos a recibir información de cómo ellos están ayudando a sus estudiantes fronterizos a tener éxito en sus vidas. Una copia digital de la tesis estará disponible para cada uno de los participantes y sus escuelas en cuanto haya terminado el estudio.

**Confidencialidad y participación voluntaria**

Las cintas grabadas de su entrevista estarán siempre en un archivero con llave y la computadora será protegida usando claves para tener acceso. Solamente el investigador, su consejero y una compañía que de transcripción de confianza tendrán acceso a la información que usted provee. El análisis del reporte no identificará a los participantes por nombre. La información personal, como dirección de email, se mantendrá en la computadora que requiere claves para tener acceso. No habrá entrevistas después de las entrevistas programadas, pero a usted se le puede contactar en el futuro por email y/o por teléfono.

Usted necesita saber que la Junta Directiva Institucional (IRB) en la Universidad Estatal de California San Marcos puede inspeccionar los documentos de la investigación como parte de una auditoría del programa, y estos estudios solamente se enfocarán en los investigadores y la investigación y no en sus respuestas o participación. La IRB es un comité que revisa las investigaciones que se están haciendo para asegurarse que son seguras y que los derechos de los participantes estén protegidos y respetados.

Su participación es voluntaria. Usted no tiene que participar en esta investigación si usted no quiere. Si Ud. está de acuerdo en participar en este estudio, pero después cambia de opinión, usted puede dejar de participar en cualquier momento. Si la duración de la entrevista es más del tiempo que tiene disponible, usted puede parar la entrevista en cualquier momento sin que tenga alguna consecuencia para usted. No hay ningún tipo de consecuencia para usted si decide no participar en el estudio.

**Consideraciones e incentivos económicos**

Por su participación, usted recibirá una tarjeta de $20.00 de Starbucks.
Preguntas

Si usted tiene alguna pregunta acerca del estudio, yo puedo contestar sus preguntas aquí inmediatamente. Si tiene más preguntas acerca del estudio, usted puede comunicarse con el investigador Gilberto D. Barrios al 1-760-716-3237, gilbarrios@sbcglobal.net, o a su consejera Dra. Alice Quirocho al 1-760-750-4035, aquidocho@csusm.edu. Si usted tiene preguntas acerca de sus derechos como participantes en este estudio, usted puede dirigirlas a la Junta Directiva al 1-760.750.4029, www.csusm.edu/irb.

☐ Estoy de acuerdo en participar en el estudio de investigación
☐ Estoy de acuerdo en que ser video grabado.

__________________________________________
Nombre del participante

__________________________________________
Firma del participante

__________________________________________
Firma del investigador

Fecha

This document has been approved by
Institutional Review Board at
California State University San Marcos
Expiration Date: 2/24/2011
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http://www.languagepolicy.net/archives/impact.htm


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www.ncela.gwu.edu/policy/1_history.htm


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