

" En Español es Distinto": Translanguaging for Linguistic Awareness and Meaningful Engagement with Texts

Author: Marcela Ossa Parra

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Boston College
Lynch School of Education

Department of Teacher Education, Special Education,
and Curriculum and Instruction

Curriculum and Instruction Doctoral Program

**"EN ESPAÑOL ES DISTINTO:" TRANSLANGUAGING FOR LINGUISTIC
AWARENESS AND MEANINGFUL ENGAGEMENT WITH TEXTS**

Dissertation by

MARCELA OSSA PARRA

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Abstract

“En Español es Distinto:” Translanguaging for Linguistic Awareness and Meaningful Engagement with Texts

Marcela Ossa Parra

Dr. Patrick Proctor, Chair

English immersion education policies in the United States deprive immigrant-origin bilingual students from using their home languages to learn. However, a growing body of research emphasizes the importance of promoting heteroglossic classroom language practices to enhance bilingual students’ learning. Drawing on translanguaging pedagogy (García, 2009; Lewis, Baker & Jones, 2010), this study explored the flexible use of English and Spanish in bilingual students’ language and literacy development. To achieve this, translanguaging instructional strategies were infused into an English language and literacy curriculum to investigate how a group of third grade bilingual students, with varied proficiencies in English and Spanish, used their entire linguistic repertoire to engage in the literacy practices proposed in the curriculum. These literacy practices encompassed reading and discussing culturally-relevant texts, and participating in explicit text-based language instruction in the areas of semantics, morphology, and syntax. Conversation and discourse analysis techniques were used to analyze the lesson videos, and to understand the role

of translanguaging in participants' interactions, and in their discourse about semantics, morphology, and syntax. Findings regarding the role of translanguaging in participants' interactions, indicate that they strategically and pragmatically used their languages to ensure their meaningful engagement in these lessons, and to perform their bilingual identities. In terms of the role of translanguaging in participants' discourse about the linguistic constructs targeted in the reading curriculum, results indicate that bilingual language instruction engaged students in cross-linguistic analyses that enhanced their linguistic awareness. Based on these findings, a model for translanguaging pedagogy in language and literacy instruction is proposed, and implications for translanguaging theory, pedagogy, social justice, and future research are discussed.

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Chapter 1. Introduction

Students need authentic opportunities to engage in academic literacy practices at school. These academic literacy practices include participation in text-related activities in which students are stimulated to engage in the analysis, discussion, and production of different types of texts (Mercer, 2000; Rogoff, 1999; Wells, 2007). To develop their expertise in these academic literacy practices, students also need to learn how language works (Brisk, 2015; Schleppegrell, 2006). Opportunities to meaningfully participate in these practices are limited for bilingual students in English-only instructional contexts. These students are marginalized from these academic literacy practices until they have developed the adequate English language proficiency. English immersion also hinders these students from using their prior knowledge to understand the linguistic features of their new language and to enhance their linguistic awareness (Cummins, 2013, van Lier, 2004). In addition to limiting immigrant-origin students' academic growth, English immersion erodes their bilingual skills and identities.

Theoretically, instruction that supports the flexible use of two or more languages within a lesson enables students with different language proficiencies to actively engage in meaning making, to use their prior knowledge to understand texts and learn the new language, and to develop their bilingual identities (Cummins, 2009, García, 2009; Hornberger, 2005). There is a wealth of ethnographic research on language practices in classrooms serving bilingual students that has shown that these students and their teachers spontaneously use all of their linguistic resources to engage in meaning making. In contrast, studies that explore the affordances of instructional strategies that promote the flexible use of two or more languages to support language and literacy development are limited. In order to expand the understanding of how the use of two languages supports bilingual students' language and literacy development, it is necessary to design

curricula in which students' languages are deliberately and strategically integrated, and analyze the affordances of concurrent language use in student learning. The study of more structured interventions is necessary in order to inform educational policies and practices for bilingual students in the United States that foster the integration of all of their languages to support their learning. This is a key step to stimulate an ideological shift from monoglossic to heteroglossic ideologies in this country.

This dissertation drew on translanguaging pedagogy (García, 2009; García, Ibarra Johnson, & Seltzer, 2017) to infuse Spanish into an existing English language and literacy curriculum in order to explore the affordances of translanguaging in students' engagement in meaning making about texts, and their salient features in the areas of semantics, morphology, and syntax. To achieve this, two sets of 6 translanguaged lessons were designed, and taught to a group of five 3rd/4th grade bilingual students with varied proficiencies in English and Spanish. The lessons were video-recorded and analyzed using Erickson's (2006) video analysis framework, and discourse and conversation analysis techniques (Gee, 2012; Auer, 1984) to characterize how the availability of English and Spanish influenced the interactions that took place in these lessons, as well as students' talk about the target language constructs taught in these lessons (e.g. semantics, morphology and syntax).

In this chapter translanguaging pedagogy is defined and situated in the context of the changing linguistic landscape in the 21st century, which in the field of education has challenged the predominance of monolingual instructional approaches. This is followed by a brief characterization of different initiatives regarding bilingualism and the education of immigrant-origin students which suggest that, despite the prevalence of monolingualism in education in the United States, there are current initiatives that are consistent with the more complex linguistic

needs of the 21st century. After this the potential role of translanguaging pedagogy in supporting students' meaningful engagement with texts and their linguistic features is discussed, and a brief overview of the research on this instructional approach is presented. At the end of the chapter the dissertation's purposes, research questions, and potential significance are introduced, and its chapters are outlined.

Translanguaging Pedagogy

Translanguaging has been conceptualized as a pedagogical approach and a theory of bilinguals' language practices (García & Leiva, 2014). Translanguaging as a pedagogical approach proposes that bilingual students' learning is enhanced by flexibly using their languages in the classroom. The recognition of the importance of promoting flexible language use during a lesson is currently gaining acceptance (Cenoz & Gorter, 2015; Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012). However, the “monolingual bias” (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011; Cummins, 2013), in which only one language is allowed as the medium of instruction, is still the predominant approach in second and foreign language instruction, as well as in bilingual education programs. The decision to enforce strict language separation may be based on the purposes of teaching the language (e.g. focus on L2 to ensure assimilation to the dominant culture or focus on L1 to protect the heritage language), or on beliefs regarding language learning (e.g. students will get confused if exposed to two languages at the same time, or students need to only be exposed to the L2 to be able to start thinking in it) (Baker, 2010).

Translanguaging pedagogy challenges the “monolingual bias,” and instead advocates for heteroglossic language practices in the classroom. There are two perspectives informing translanguaging pedagogy. The first one was proposed in Welsh bilingual education programs, and defines translanguaging pedagogy as an instructional strategy to encourage students' deeper

engagement with subject matter by presenting content in one language (e.g. English), and then asking them to talk or write about it in the other language (e.g. Welsh) (Baker, 2010). The second perspective, theorizes translanguaging pedagogy as the promotion of flexible language practices in classrooms serving immigrant-origin bilingual students (García, 2009; Creese & Blackledge, 2010). It broadens the notion of what languages count as acceptable tools to engage in meaning making in academic contexts. This involves encouraging students to use their home language practices in the process of learning new ways of using language. These flexible language practices support the development of heteroglossic language ecologies that enable students to fluidly use multiple languages and language varieties to meaningfully participate in class (García, 2014; García & Leiva, 2014; Gort & Sembiante, 2015).

Based on these two perspectives, two dimensions of translanguaging pedagogy are proposed in this dissertation: discursive and instructional. The discursive dimension focuses on language use, and is aimed at promoting heteroglossic language ecologies in the classroom. The instructional dimension focuses on the deliberate design of instructional practices in which two languages are integrated. In this study, the discursive dimension of translanguaging pedagogy was addressed by promoting flexible language use. The instructional dimension was addressed by presenting bilingual texts and using bilingual language instructional strategies. These bilingual instructional strategies encompassed explicit instruction in which target language structures were presented concurrently, and students were engaged in guided practice and independent practice activities that included both languages.

Background and Context

As a theory of bilinguals' language practices, translanguaging is situated in the context of the Multilingual Turn in linguistics. The Multilingual Turn highlights immigrant communities'

fluid and complex language practices, and challenges the idea that languages can be conceived as separate bounded codes, and that monolingualism is the norm (García, 2014; May, 2014; Ortega, 2014). This fluid conception of language proposes an heteroglossic perspective in which language users integrate multiple languages and modes of expression in their communication.

Translanguaging theory highlights how bi/multilingual immigrant communities achieve new ways of expressing themselves in bilingual performances in which they merge their languages (Flores & García, 2014; García, 2014). This language merging is conceptualized as translanguaging. This term was proposed to capture the seamless movement between languages in which people flexibly use their entire linguistic repertoire (García, 2009). These are bi/multilingual performances through which bilinguals index their belonging to particular communities, and open new possibilities for cultural and knowledge production (García, 2014; García & Leiva, 2014; García & Wei, 2014).

Translanguaging is proposed as a more encompassing concept that replaces code-switching (García, 2011a; García & Wei, 2014). Code-switching has been defined as a speech style in which bilinguals use their two languages within a sentence, or between sentences (MacSwann, 2017). According to translanguaging theory, code-switching does not capture bilinguals' fluid and complex language use, since it presupposes the existence of two separate codes. Rather than having two separate codes, bilinguals are conceived in translanguaging theory as having a single integrated linguistic repertoire (García, 2014; García & Wei, 2014).

Along with translanguaging, different concepts have been proposed in the context of the multilingual turn to characterize bilinguals' language use as a fluid, flexible and complex process in which they integrate their languages. Some of these concepts are: flexible bilingualism (Creese & Blackledge, 2011), translingual practice (Canagarajah, 2013), hybrid discourse practices

(Kamberelis, 2001; Gutiérrez, 2008), and transidiomatic and transcultural practices (Pennycook, 2007). These approaches all share the perspective that meaning making is not confined to a single language (Pennycook, 2007), and focus on the individuals' agency in using, creating and interpreting signs (Blackledge, Creese, & Takhi, 2014). Although there is a long history of texts and talk that have mixed languages, recent globalization has made this language mixing more visible (Canagarajah, 2013).

The Linguistic Landscape in the Global 21st Century

The greater mobility of people, capital, information, and resources in the context of globalization and technological developments has changed the linguistic landscape throughout the world, enhancing opportunities to communicate across borders and languages (Canagarajah, 2013; Cenoz & Gorter, 2015; García, 2009). Immigrant communities in the late 20th century and early 21st century, are rooted socially, culturally, and economically in more than one nation-state (Schmalzabauer, 2004). These communities are in some degree de-territorialized, since they belong to a complex network of transnational relations.

Languages have been used to demarcate national borders by establishing a dominant language that unifies a group under a nation state (Canagarajah, 2013; García & Leiva, 2014; Flores & García, 2014). These top-down language impositions have made invisible the language practices of historically marginalized indigenous and immigrant communities. In the current context of globalization, these practices have become especially palpable in large urban centers in immigrant receiving countries such as the United States, Canada, and the United Kingdom, where people from diverse linguistic, cultural and ethnic backgrounds coexist (Canagarajah, 2013; Cenoz & Gorter, 2015; Creese & Blackledge, 2011; García, 2009; Wei, 2011 a). These urban centers have

turned into contact zones characterized by multilingual ecologies in which diverse languages are used to negotiate everyday life.

Not surprisingly, within these multilingual contact zones, public schools are serving an increasingly multilingual population. In the United States, recent statistics indicate that students who speak a home language different from English grew from 4.7 million students (10%) in 1980 to 11.2 million students (21%) in 2009 (National Center for Education Statistics, 2011). In large school districts in urban centers such as the one where this study was done, students speak more than 84 different languages as their home language, yet Spanish is the top language spoken in this district, as well as across the country (United States Census Bureau, 2015). The number of Spanish speakers is growing as reflected in the fact that the enrollment of Hispanic students has increased from 7.7 million to 11.4 million (this is from 16% to 23%) students between the fall of 2000 and the fall of 2010, and it is projected that by 2021 there will be 14.2 million Hispanic students (27%).

While the linguistic landscape in schools in the United States has changed, the predominant monolingual approach to education, that establishes Standard English as the norm, remains in place. Immigrant origin students have a broad and complex linguistic repertoire, which is “ignored or dismissed as impoverished by those who demand that it be limited to Standard English, instead of expanded to include Standard English, Standard Spanish, and all the dialects of the community” (Zentella, 1997, p. 265). If these students’ linguistic resources were embraced and put in the service of learning, opportunities for learning English, as well as developing bilingual and biliteracy skills would be opened (García & Leiva, 2014; García & Silvan, 2011; Zentella, 1997). Furthermore, these bilingual and biliteracy skills are essential in the 21st century globalized world (García, 2009).

The Search for Equitable Education for Immigrant Origin Students

This new multilingual linguistic landscape has raised awareness of the need to rethink language separation policies that limit students' access to their available linguistic resources. The need to promote more flexible language use in classrooms has recently gained momentum as an urgent equity issue that calls for the recognition of multilingual communities' language practices, and for providing equal opportunities for immigrant origin students to access the curriculum and participate in class (Cummins, 2009; Flores & García, 2014; García, 2014; García & Leiva, 2014; Sayer, 2013). This call for ensuring the recognition and meaningful participation of immigrant origin students in education is historically situated in the struggle for bilingual education in the United States. There has been much debate about the most appropriate language programming for educating immigrant origin bilingual students in this country (August, Goldenberg, & Rueda, 2010).

The recognition of immigrant origin students' language rights has fluctuated in the past sixty years. Their language rights gained momentum during the Civil Rights era in which Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA), also known as the Bilingual Education Act (BEA), was passed (Gándara & Hopkins, 2010; Hakuta, 2011). The BEA established a federal policy for bilingual education in which funding was made available to support bilingual education programs (Gándara & Hopkins, 2010). In 1974, the *Lau vs. Nichols* class action law suit led by a Chinese mother in San Francisco, set a precedent that required school districts to take affirmative steps in order to ensure bilingual students' access and meaningful participation in education (Hakuta, 2011). However, the BEA was gradually amended between the late 1970's and the mid 1990's, and the approach to the education of bilingual students shifted from providing opportunities to learn in their two languages, to a focus on English as a second language

instruction. In 1994, Title VII was renamed Improving America's School Act (IASA), and the Office of Bilingual Education was renamed Office of English Language Acquisition, Language Enhancement, and Academic Achievement for Limited English Proficient Students (Gándara & Hopkins, 2010; García, 2009).

Along with this change in Title VII came an English-only movement that argued that bilingual education had not been successful in supporting immigrant-origin students' academic development, and proposed replacing these programs with English-only programs. These English-only programs are known as "Structured English Immersion" in which students' are expected to develop their second language skills as they learn new academic content and skills in English (Gándara & Hokins, 2009) In the late 1990's and early 2000's bilingual education programs were banned and replaced with structured English immersion programs in three states: California, Arizona and Massachusetts. Furthermore, the accountability policies established in the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) in 2000, have created a trend towards homogenization, which have weakened bilingual education programs in the states that have not banned them (Menken, 2013).

Despite the relentless move toward monolingual educational programming, bilingual learners in the US too often struggle on achievement indicators (Gándara & Hopkins, 2010). Perhaps in response, a new wave in the search for more equitable education for immigrant origin students is now taking place. The pervasive monolingual ideologies that have limited bilingual education in the United States are being challenged in the context of the multilingual turn in which multilingualism, rather than monolingualism, is recognized as the new homogeneity. In this context, there is a call for opening new ideological spaces in which bilingualism and biliteracy are recognized as assets that need to be developed in order to equip students with the appropriate tools for functioning in a globalized world (Flores & Shissel, 2014; García, 2014; Hornberger, 2005).

Policy initiatives that protect immigrant-origin students' language rights are now regaining momentum thanks to the new language needs generated in the context of globalization (Flores & Shissel, 2014; García, 2009). Three promising initiatives that advance the development of programs that recognize and enhance bilingual students' linguistic resources are: (1) the New York State Bilingual Common Core State Initiative led by the New York State Education Department (<https://www.engageny.org/resource/new-york-state-bilingual-common-core-initiative>), (2) the Seal of Biliteracy initiative led by the National Association for Bilingual Education (<http://sealofbiliteracy.org>), and (3) the growth of dual language programs. The Bilingual Common Core Initiative developed new English as a Second Language and Native Language Arts Standards aligned to the Common Core. These standards present tools to develop instruction for students with varying levels of language proficiency and literacy, and provide a pathway to develop bilingual Common Core skills for all students. The Seal of Biliteracy is an award granted to students who have attained proficiency in two or more languages when they graduate high school. This award, which is granted by the school district, is promoting the establishment of programs that support the development of biliteracy during the students' trajectory from preschool to high school. Dual-language programs are bilingual programs in which English-native speakers and speakers of another language (e.g. Spanish) are enrolled. These programs are different from the bilingual programs that were promoted with the BEA in which only students who spoke the minority language were enrolled.

These initiatives address the need to support all students in the United States in developing the language skills necessary to actively participate in a globalized world. While they open opportunities for protecting immigrant origin students' language rights and ensuring their equitable education, they also create the risk of shifting the focus from language rights to language as a

commodity in which dominant groups enhance their access to valuable linguistic resources, at the expense of historically marginalized groups (Pimentel, 2011). However, the opportunity to place bilingual education in policy conversations is worth this risk.

In the context of this new wave in the search for more equitable education for immigrant origin students, the focus of the discussion about bilingual education in the United States is shifting from defining the most appropriate medium of instruction, to thinking about instructional practices that support students in using their full linguistic repertoire to participate in meaningful learning activities (Brisk, de Jong, & Moore, 2015; Flores & Schissel, 2014; García & Sylvan, 2011). “To move the field forward, there is a need to change the paradigm of research questions: rather than ask whether to use mother tongues and for how long, the integration of students’ languages and cultures should be taken as a given. More important is to inquire how to use these languages and the second languages in the school, curriculum, classroom practices, and assessments to enhance education” (Brisk et al., 2015, p. 329). This is a fertile context to advance the knowledge about translanguaging pedagogy, and its potential contributions to the development of the currently valued bilingual and biliteracy skills.

Research on Translanguaging in Classroom Contexts

Research on translanguaging has predominantly focused on its discursive dimension by documenting flexible language practices in classroom contexts. This research has shown that despite the strict language separation policies promoted in different academic contexts, such as bilingual programs, English medium classes, or heritage language programs, students spontaneously engage in translanguaging to make meaning of texts, as well as produce them (Blair, 2016; Cenoz & Gorter, 2011; Daniel & Pacheco, 2016; de la Luz Reyes, 2012; García, 2011; Gort, 2008; Link, 2011; Martín-Beltrán, 2010; Soltero-González, 2009; Velasco & García, 2014; Zhang

& Guo, 2017). Furthermore, this research has made evident how teachers navigate and resist restrictive language policies to support their students learning (Creese & Blackledge, 2011; Durán & Palmer, 2014; Esquinca, Araújo & de la Piedra, 2014; Flores & García, 2014; Gort & Sembiente, 2015; Lin & Wu, 2015; Palmer, Mateus, Martínez & Henderson, 2014; Probyn, 2015; Sayer, 2013; Schwartz & Asli, 2013; Zabala, 2015). Flexible language practices enable students to use their full linguistic repertoire to access complex content, articulate ideas, express understanding, make conceptual connections across languages, and make connections with their own backgrounds. Furthermore, these flexible practices affirm and enhance students' bilingual identities since they are encouraged to use their home language practices.

There is much more limited research on the instructional dimension of translanguaging pedagogy. There are a few exploratory intervention studies that have provided evidence that the use of two languages in literacy instruction supports reading comprehension (Borrero, 2011; Hopewell, 2011), linguistic awareness (Jímez et al., 2015; Horst, White & Bell, 2010), and writing development (Martín-Beltrán, 2014; Stewart & Hansen-Thomas, 2016). There are also some illustrative case studies that illustrate how translanguaging pedagogy has the potential to engage students in critical literacy practices in which they have the opportunity to develop their awareness about the relationships between language, power and identity (Flores & García, 2014; García & Leiva, 2014; García et al. 2017).

While current research has focused on documenting naturally occurring practices within classrooms, more research is needed to learn more about how these practices can be deliberately promoted with targeted instructional strategies. A greater focus on the learning processes that takes place when students are engaged in translanguaging is also missing in the current research. It is necessary to document how students participate in these translanguaging practices in order to

determine the opportunities and challenges of translanguaging as pedagogical approach, and to gain insights in order to refine it. Furthermore, research on translanguaging pedagogy in both its discursive and instructional dimensions has predominantly taken place in bilingual education programs. It is necessary to learn more about how translanguaging pedagogy looks like in other contexts serving bilingual students, such as English-only programs.

The Present Study

In this dissertation, an exploratory intervention study was designed to determine the affordances of translanguaging pedagogy in language and literacy instruction. Translanguaging pedagogy was operationalized in this study as the promotion of flexible language practices, the use of bilingual texts, and the enactment of bilingual language instruction. It was proposed that translanguaging pedagogy supported bilingual students' language and literacy development by stimulating their meaningful participation in academic literacy practices, and supporting their linguistic awareness and bilingual identity development.

The intervention consisted of two translanguaged lesson cycles based on the "Comprehension, Linguistic Awareness, and Vocabulary in English for Spanish speakers" (CLAVES) curriculum, which is a supplemental multi-component English language and literacy curriculum (Proctor, Silverman & Haring, 2014). A lesson cycle is defined in this curriculum as a set of 6 lessons organized around a text. During these lessons students read and discuss the text, and are engaged in explicit text-based language instruction in the areas of semantics, syntax, and morphology. These lesson cycles are grouped in three thematic units covering the following topics: immigration, rights and nature.

The translanguaged lesson cycles designed for this study followed the organization and instructional principles proposed in the CLAVES curriculum, but included instruction in English and Spanish. One of the lesson cycles focused on immigration, and the other one on workers' rights. Translanguaging pedagogy was infused into the design of these lessons by including bilingual texts, and bilingual language instruction. Additionally, flexible language use was promoted during the implementation of the lessons.

The lessons were implemented with a group of five 3rd/4th students belonging to a Structured English Immersion classroom during the last three months of the spring semester, and the first two months of the fall semester of 2016. These students had varied language proficiencies in English and Spanish. Three of them had recently arrived in the United States from their home countries in Colombia and El Salvador, and two of them were born in the United States, but their parents came from El Salvador.

The data for this study consisted of the video-recordings of the lessons. In total 7.87 hours of video data, distributed in 16 lessons each averaging about 30 minutes, were recorded. Although each cycle was 6 lessons each, two additional introductory lessons were included, and the initial lessons took longer than planned. The videos were analyzed drawing on video-analysis (Erickson, 2006), and conversation and discourse analysis techniques (Auer, 1984; Gee, 2012). An ethnomethodological approach (Garfinkel, 1967) was adopted to determine the meaning of participants' (teacher and students) translanguaging as locally constructed by them in their interaction with each other, and in their talk about the target language structures. The following research questions guided this analysis:

- What interactional work does translanguaging do during these lessons?

- How is translinguaging manifested in participants' talk about semantics, morphology, and syntax?

These questions provided an analytic lens to characterize the affordances of translinguaging pedagogy as reflected in the interactions and talk that took place during these lessons. This analysis sought to determine whether and how the availability of English and Spanish during these translinguaged lesson cycles supported participants' meaningful engagement with texts and the target language constructs taught.

Study Significance

The study of translinguaging pedagogy has focused on its discursive dimension, while its instructional dimension has been underdeveloped (Baker, 2010; Canagarajah, 2011). This study is unique in the sense that translinguaging pedagogy was deliberately infused into a language and literacy curriculum in order to deepen the understanding of the interactional and learning processes that take place when students have their two languages available. This research is key in order to provide empirical evidence to support the affordances of translinguaging pedagogy in supporting immigrant origin bilingual students' academic success, and position it as a feasible instructional approach. This evidence should inform the design of translinguaged language and literacy curricula, as well as teacher professional development initiatives that support teachers in leveraging all of their students' linguistic resources to enhance their language and literacy development. The knowledge gained in this study serves as the groundwork of a research agenda aimed at informing the design, implementation and evaluation of language and literacy curricula based on translinguaging pedagogy.

Dissertation Outline

This dissertation is organized in six chapters. The next chapter presents a theoretical framework in which translanguaging theory is characterized and, since there is ambiguity between translanguaging and code-switching, the similarities and differences between these two theories are discussed. This is followed by section that presents a more detailed characterization of translanguaging pedagogy than the one provided in this chapter, and explains the rationale for this pedagogical approach in language and literacy instruction. This is followed by a review of the literature on the discursive and instructional dimensions of translanguaging pedagogy. After this, the conclusions of this literature review are presented and the current study is situated in the context of this literature.

Chapter 3 starts with a description of the study's research design and an explanation for the rationale for the research approach taken. This is followed by a description of the CLAVES curriculum, and the presentation of the translanguaged lesson cycles designed for this study. After this the study setting and participants are described, followed by a description of the informed consent process, the data sources and collection procedures, and the analytic plan. This chapter closes with a reflection on the researcher's positionality.

Chapter 4 focuses on the discursive dimension of the translanguaged lesson cycles and in so doing addresses the first research question: What interactional work does translanguaging do during these lessons? The chapter is divided in two main sections. The first section presents the results of a turn by turn analysis in which the teacher and her students' language choices during these lesson cycles is characterized. This characterization was found necessary in order to situate participants' translanguaging practices in the context of the broader language ecology that emerged

in these lessons. The second section presents the results of the sequential analysis in which the role of participants' translanguaging in their interactions with each other is unpacked.

Chapter 5 focuses on the instructional dimension of the translanguaged lesson cycles and in so doing addresses the second research question: How is translanguaging manifested in participants' talk about semantics, morphology, and syntax? The chapter is divided in three sections each focusing on the three areas of language instruction in these lesson cycles: semantics, morphology, and syntax. Each section presents the results of the sequential analysis in which student talk was analyzed to determine how the use of English and Spanish was reflected in the ways they engaged with the content being taught.

Chapter 6 synthesizes the results of this study in a translanguaging model of language and literacy instruction that presents the affordances of translanguaging pedagogy in bilingual students' language and literacy development. This is followed by a discussion of the implications of this study for translanguaging theory, pedagogy, and social justice. After this, the study's limitations are discussed, and future research implications are proposed.

Chapter 2: Theories and Research on Translanguaging Pedagogy

Translanguaging is both a pedagogical approach, and a theory of language use focused on immigrant community's language practices (García, 2009). As a theory of language use, translanguaging is informed by a critical and transformative perspective that argues for the recognition of the languages practices of historically marginalized groups (García, 2014; Flores & García, 2014; Poza, 2017). This theory seeks to make these practices visible and accepted in contexts in which they have been traditionally ignored (e.g. schools).

This theory defines translanguaging as a fluid, complex, and integrated linguistic performance in which bilinguals flexibly draw from all of their linguistic resources in their communication with others (García & Leiva, 2014). Translanguaging has been proposed as an alternative to code-switching, which is another theoretical perspective explaining linguistic performances in which bilinguals alternate between languages. Although clear-cut distinctions between translanguaging and code-switching have been established (García, 2011; García & Wei, 2014), the difference between these two concepts remains ambiguous to many in the fields of education and linguistics.

This chapter starts with a characterization of translanguaging as an immigrant language practice in order to situate its pedagogical dimensions in the broader socio-linguistic context. After this, a brief characterization of code-switching theory is presented in order to establish distinctions and similarities between these two different theoretical perspectives. This is followed by the characterization of translanguaging as a pedagogical approach. In this dissertation, this pedagogical approach is characterized as having two distinct dimensions: discursive and instructional. The discursive dimension refers to

classroom talk that incorporates diverse language practices and supports flexible language use. The instructional dimension refers to the deliberate design of bilingual curriculum and instruction. These dimensions and the research informing them are presented to characterize translanguaging as a pedagogical approach.

Translanguaging in Immigrant Communities

Translanguaging theory is situated in the context of the Multilingual Turn (May, 2014) in linguistics in which bilingual language practices are understood from the perspective of the user. Users do not necessarily assign labels (e.g. English or Spanish) to the codes they use, but instead they fluidly use their linguistic resources, and engage in integrated linguistic performances through which they perform their bilingual identities. This theory challenges monoglossic language ideologies, and colonial structures that have sought to demarcate and dominate new territories by establishing a single national language (Flores & García, 2014; García & Leiva, 2014; García, 2014). Under these monoglossic ideologies, monolingualism is established as the only legitimate way of communicating in official contexts, such as schools, overlooking the fact that more than half of the people in the world use more than one language in their daily communication (Canagarajah, 2013; May, 2014; Ortega, 2014).

These monoglossic ideologies have traditionally informed the understanding of bilingualism and bilingual education. Translanguaging theory adds a critical perspective to prior theories of bilingualism that have questioned the appropriateness of theorizing bilingualism by considering each language independently from each other, and established the need to consider the integrated nature of bilingual functioning (Cook, 2001; Grosjean, 1989). Translanguaging theory adopts a heteroglossic approach that integrates multiple

voices and perspectives to conceptualize the complex, fluid and flexible nature of bilinguals' language practices (Flores & García, 2014; Flores & Shissel, 2014). Under this perspective, the notion of language as a bounded system is rejected. Rather than having access to two distinct languages, bilinguals are conceived as having a single integrated linguistic repertoire that they adapt according to the context and their communicative purposes (Blommaert, 2010; Canagarajah, 2013; García, 2009; García & Wei, 2014; Pennycook, 2007).

In immigrant communities translanguaging captures the experience of living in contact zones where diverse languages and cultures are brought together (Canagarajah, 2009; García, 2009; García & Leiva, 2014). These culturally and linguistically diverse contact zones open new possibilities for identity construction in which the flexible and fluid use of diverse linguistic resources expresses belonging to a bilingual community. These identities are different from those with which people in their countries of origin or in the receiving country are associated (Creese & Blackledge, 2010, 2011; García & Leiva, 2014; Wei, 2011b). Through translanguaging bilinguals in immigrant receiving countries seamlessly draw from their entire linguistic repertoire to navigate their complex ethnic, cultural, and linguistic affiliations and experiences, and challenge the monolingual constraints that establish the expectation to keep languages as distinct and separate codes (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Jonsson, 2013; Makalela, 2014; Wei, 2011b).

Translanguaging theory proposes a social justice agenda that advocates for the recognition and inclusion of immigrant-origin bilingual children's home language practices in order to ensure their equal participation in education (García & Leiva, 2014). The need to promote more flexible language use in classrooms has recently gained

momentum as an urgent equity issue that calls for the recognition of multilingual communities' language practices, and for providing equal opportunities for emergent bilinguals to access the curriculum and participate in class (Cummins, 2009; García & Leiva, 2014; Sayer, 2013). Achieving more equitable opportunities for immigrant-origin bilingual children implies disrupting power structures within society and schools in which monolingual arrangements prevail. As will be discussed in the section on translanguaging pedagogy, great part of the research on translanguaging in classroom contexts has sought to challenge monolingual arrangements by exposing how students and teachers naturally draw on their full linguistic repertoire to engage in teaching and learning.

Code-Switching

Dating back to the middle of the twentieth century, code-switching is the antecedent of translanguaging in validating, and exposing the complexity of bilinguals' language practices. Defined as a "speech style in which bilinguals alternate between or within sentences" (MacSwan, 2017, p. 168), code-switching theory challenged deficit perspectives on bilinguals' language practices. These deficit perspectives posited that language mixing was a random process that reflected confusion and lack of language development in both languages (MacSwan, 2017). There is extensive theory and research on code-switching that has demonstrated that bilinguals' language alternation is systematic and strategic.

Code-switching has been studied from three perspectives informed by different linguistic theories (Auer, 1998; Gardner-Chloros, 2009). The first one is the grammatical perspective that studies the syntactic and morphological restrictions on switching from one language to another (e.g. Sankoff & Poplack, 1981). The second one is the sociolinguistic

perspective that studies in which situations and for what purposes bilingual communities code-switch (e.g. Scott-Myers, 2006). The last one is the interactional perspective (Auer, 1984, 1998), which is concerned with the meaning/function of individual instances of language alternation in a conversation. This last perspective will be discussed in more detail below since it informed the analytical approach adopted in this dissertation.

Drawing on ethnomethodology (Garfinkel, 1967), which focuses on unpacking how people understand everyday experiences by analyzing their interaction, the interactional perspective on code-switching is aimed at understanding how bilinguals strategically use their languages to manage their interaction (Auer, 1984; Wei, 1998). This perspective proposes that the meaning of code-switching is locally constructed by conversation participants, rather than determined by external aspects such as power or ideology. Although these aspects may play a role in conversation participants' language choices, conversationalists are not bound by these societal categories, but instead negotiate the conditions of their conversation as it unfolds.

Auer (1984) proposed two broad dimensions to approach the interpretation of code-switching within a conversation: discourse-related and participant-related code-switching. Discourse-related code-switching refers to language alternations that signal a new footing in the conversation. This new footing is related to the notion of contextualization cue (Gumperz, 1972), which encompasses paralinguistic (e.g. tone, pauses, speed) and non-verbal (e.g. gaze, posture) actions that play key roles in how the conversation unfolds, and how participants relate to each other. Bilinguals may strategically use code-switching as an additional resource to manage the conversation, and establish positions for themselves and their conversation participants. Participant-related code-switching refers to bilinguals'

strategic language alternation based on their knowledge of their co-participants language skills. In these cases, participants may strategically engage in code-switching to redefine participation structures by either changing to a language that everyone understands in order to include a participant, or, on the contrary, exclude one of the participants, by using the language that he/she does not understand.

Distinctions Between Translanguaging and Code-Switching

Current theory and research on translanguaging has sought to distinguish its approach to bilinguals' language practices from the prior literature on code-switching. Two main approaches to this conceptual distinction have been proposed. In the first approach translanguaging is established as a broader and more complex concept that encompasses code-switching, among other bilingual language practices (García, 2011a; García, 2011b). In the second approach, code-switching is rejected, since it is argued that this perspective on language alternation compartmentalizes languages into two separate systems. According to translanguaging theory, establishing distinctions between the alternated languages is an arbitrary external imposition, since bilinguals fluidly use their linguistic repertoire in an integrated manner (García, 2014; García & Wei, 2014).

Translanguaging theory argues for understanding language from the bilingual user's perspective, rather than using external linguistic categories to explain bilinguals' language practices. As mentioned in the above section, there are different research traditions in the field of code-switching, which have contributed to the understanding of language alternation from diverse perspectives that range from analyzing the grammar of code-switching, to understanding the situated meaning of language alternation within a conversation. Auer's (1984, 1988) interactional approach to code-switching addresses the

performative nature of language use by studying bilingual language practices as they are locally enacted in everyday conversation. As in translanguaging, this approach to code-switching seeks to understand bilinguals' language practices from the user's perspective.

The differences between translanguaging theory and interactional code-switching theory lie on how each theory conceives the relationship between bilinguals' languages, and operationalizes typical communication among bilinguals. Translanguaging theory proposes that bilinguals have a single integrated linguistic repertoire, while code-switching theory establishes that there are instances in which it is possible to identify two clearly defined languages in a conversation. The latter theory recognizes that there are also instances in which bilinguals do not distinguish their languages, and have referred to these instances as code-mixing (Auer, 1998). Regarding the way each theory defines typical communication among bilinguals, interactional code-switching theory is based on the assumption that monolingual conversations are the unmarked way of communicating, and that bilinguals strategically alternate their language to achieve particular interactional purposes within the context of their conversation (Auer, 1984). In contrast, translanguaging theory adopts an heteroglossic approach in which the boundaries between languages are blurred, and thus translanguaging itself reflects bilinguals' unmarked way of communicating. (Creese & Blackledge, 2015; García & Leiva, 2014; Wei, 2011a).

These distinctions are theoretical rather than practical, since context determines bilinguals' language practices. For example, translanguaging is not a pragmatic choice in a conversation that includes monolinguals since there is a risk of not being understood. It may also not be pragmatic for bilingual immigrant parents to enforce monolingual conversations in the heritage language at home, since their children may be more fluent in

the societal language and would rather not engage in conversation if they may not use their preferred language. In these cases, a bilingual conversation would be a pragmatic option that enables intergenerational communication. In this sense, bilinguals establish firm or permeable boundaries between their languages according to the context of their interaction, and both translanguaging and code-switching theories provide relevant insights to understand these language practices.

Translanguaging Pedagogy

Translanguaging pedagogy proposes a shift from monoglossic to heteroglossic ideologies in the education of bilingual students. The education of bilingual students has traditionally been expected to take place monolingually. Despite the fact that bilingual programs are aimed at promoting bilingualism and biliteracy, they are based on language arrangements which ensure that each language is addressed separately (García, 2009). Language programs (e.g. foreign language, English as a second language, heritage language), are based on a monolingual principle (Cummins, 2013) in which the use of any language other than the target language is rejected to ensure exposure and practice in the target language. This monolingual principle also applies in contexts in which the medium of instruction is different from the child's home language, such as in the case of immigrant receiving countries like the United States, or in multilingual countries like South Africa. Translanguaging pedagogy challenges the strict language separation fostered in these different types of programs.

In its original version, translanguaging pedagogy was proposed in Welsh bilingual education programs as an instructional strategy in which the languages of input (reading/listening) and output (writing/speaking) are systematically alternated (Baker,

2010; Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012). This pedagogical approach is based on the assumption that students will be stimulated to engage more deeply with the content if they are asked to listen or read it in one language, and then discuss or write about it in the other language, since they have to reformulate content in their own words using the other language (Baker, 2010). García (2009) proposed a more expansive conceptualization of translanguaging pedagogy focused on the development of heteroglossic language ecologies that support bilingual students in flexibly using their full linguistic repertoire in their learning process (García & Sylvan, 2011). This more expansive approach argues for the recognition and inclusion of bilingual students' language practices in the classroom.

Based on these two approaches, it is proposed in this dissertation that translanguaging pedagogy has two distinct dimensions: discursive and instructional. The discursive dimension of translanguaging pedagogy refers to the language practices that emerge in an instructional context in which students are encouraged to use their full linguistic repertoire in their learning process (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; García & Sylvan, 2011). This dimension has been defined “as the dynamic discursive exchanges in which teachers and students engage as they draw on and choose from multiple languages and language varieties” (Gort & Sembiante, 2015, p. 9). Students home language practices are recognized and invited to the classroom in order to build a rich linguistic context in which students feel free to draw from all of their available language tools to interact with their teachers and peers, and make sense of the concepts and texts addressed in the curriculum (García et al., 2017). In its discursive dimension, the planned curriculum is not necessarily bilingual. Translanguaging spontaneously takes place in the enacted curriculum, and is dependent on the teacher and students' language choices.

In contrast, the instructional dimension of translanguaging pedagogy refers to the deliberate design of bilingual curricula. It is defined as “process of making meaning, shaping experiences, gaining understanding and knowledge through the use of two languages” (Baker, 2011, p. 288). By incorporating both languages in the curriculum, students are encouraged to use their languages in an integrated manner to expand their understanding of new content. In language and literacy instruction, translanguaging pedagogy promotes biliteracy practices that open diverse entry points to texts and knowledge by integrating students’ languages and providing multiple modes of representation (Hornberger & Link, 2012; García, 2009). Furthermore, it informs the design of activities in which students’ languages are placed alongside each other, thus highlighting the relationships between languages (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011; Cummins, 2013).

The next section presents the perspective on language and literacy instruction adopted in this dissertation. This is followed by an explanation of the rationale for translanguaging pedagogy in language and literacy instruction. After this the discursive and instructional dimensions of this pedagogical approach are characterized by presenting a review of the research that has been done on each of these dimensions. The chapter closes with the conclusions of the literature review, and a presentation of the implications for the present study.

This Study’s Approach to Language and Literacy Instruction

This study adopted a sociocultural perspective from which language and literacy are viewed as meaning making and knowledge building activities that enable humans to understand and act in their world (Gee, 2012; Van Lier, 2004; Vygotsky, 1978). Language and literacy are socially situated processes in which learners are socialized into a particular

community's meaning making practices (Mercer, 2000; Rogoff, 2003; Wells, 2007). Students bring their home and community language practices to school, and their education is aimed at expanding these practices to include general academic practices, as well as specific disciplinary practices.

Socialization in these academic and disciplinary practices involves the development of new identities (Wenger, 1998). These identities are conceptualized as Discourses with capital "D" to differentiate them from discourse as talk (Gee, 2012). Discourse as an identity is defined as the way in which people use language to signal their belonging to particular community. Their Discourse conveys the values, knowledge, and ways of being of that community. In order to participate in, for example, the scientific community it is necessary to develop the Discourse of scientists. This is also the case for becoming part of a soccer team or of an online video-game community. Students who are learning a new language are also in the process of developing or expanding their bilingual identities as they integrate new language practices into their linguistic repertoire (García, Makar, Starcevic, & Terry, 2011; García & Sylvan, 2011). Immigrant origin students schooled in English-only contexts in the United States are expected to appropriate different academic Discourses, at the same time that they learn English language and literacy skills.

Socialization in these discourses is supported by explicit language and literacy instruction that enables students to understand how language works (Brisk, 2015; Schleppegrell, 2006). This understanding is necessary in order to equip students with the necessary tools to participate in academic literacy practices. For example, explicit linguistic awareness instruction in areas such as semantics, syntax and morphology has been found to support reading comprehension skills in bilingual students (Carlisle, 2000; Lesaux,

Kieffer, Kelley, & Harris, 2014; Proctor, 2011). Instruction that combines the development of specific language and literacy skills, with engagement in valued literacy practices has the potential to support bilingual students' language and literacy development (Proctor, Silverman, & Harring, 2014).

Translanguaging Pedagogy in Language and Literacy Instruction

Based on the above conceptualization of language and literacy development, it is proposed in this dissertation that translanguaging pedagogy has the potential to support bilingual students' language and literacy development in three interrelated aspects: identity, meaning making, and linguistic awareness (View Figure 2.1). The potential affordances of translanguaging pedagogy in supporting these three aspects of literacy development are discussed below.

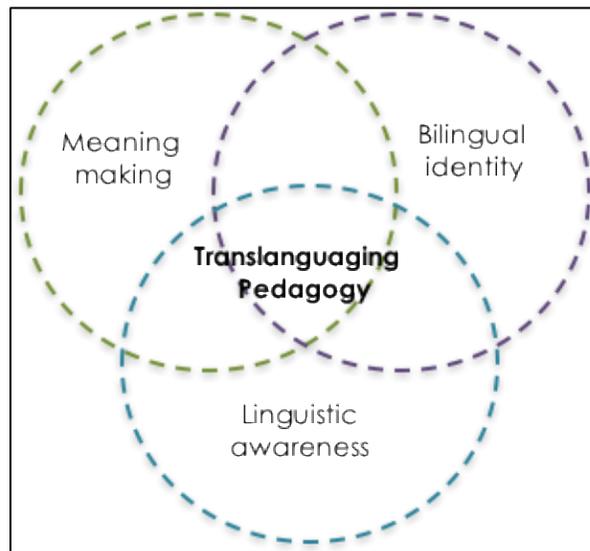


Figure 2.1. Conceptual Framework for Translanguaging Pedagogy in Language and Literacy Instruction

Meaning making. Students' home language is a fundamental meaning making tool that provides access and supports engagement in academic language and literacy practices (Brisk & Harrington, 2007; van Lier, 2004). Bilingual students' learning is maximized when they are able to draw on all of their linguistic resources instead of being constrained to using one single language. Translanguaging pedagogy enables students to use their full linguistic repertoire to engage in cognitively challenging activities through which they appropriate academic Discourses, and build their language and literacy skills as they participate in academic literacy practices (Brisk & Harrington, 2007; García & Leiva, 2014; García & Silvan 2011; Hakuta & Santos, 2013; van Lier, 2004). In addition to providing access to students' full linguistic repertoire, translanguaging pedagogy enables them to use their prior knowledge, which is the point of departure in making meaning of new knowledge (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000).

Bilingual identity. Translanguaging pedagogy opens "Third Spaces" (Gutiérrez, 2008) that bridge students home language practices with academic language practices (García, 2009). "Third Spaces" are contexts in which academic Discourses and home and community Discourses intersect enabling students to draw from multiple linguistic and cultural funds of knowledge. The discursive dimension of translanguaging pedagogy fosters heteroglossic language ecologies that make students' languages available to fluidly move between these different Discourses. These heteroglossic language practices support the accomplishment of safe and stimulating environments where students feel empowered to take risks and engage in critical and creative learning processes in which their identities as bilingual readers and writers are expanded (García & Leiva, 2014; Wei, 2011a).

Linguistic awareness. Bilingual students have interdependent language and literacy skills that they can transfer across languages (Cummins, 1979), but they need to be aware of how to use these skills to support the acquisition and development of their weaker language (Dressler, Carlo, Snow, August, & White, 2011; Genese, Geva, Dressler, & Kamil, 2008; Proctor & Mo, 2012). Translanguaging pedagogy can potentially support teaching and learning for transfer across languages, by placing students' languages alongside each other. Placing students' languages alongside each other raises students' awareness of how they can use their prior linguistic skills in their language learning (Horst, White & Bell, 2010).

Furthermore, translanguaging pedagogy can possibly support students' linguistic awareness by highlighting the relationship between their languages (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011; Horst, White & Bell, 2010; Jiménez et al., 2015). Having access to both languages is an affordance to pay closer attention to the structural features of language by comparing and contrasting these features across languages. Translanguaging pedagogy may leverage the cross-linguistic connections that learners naturally establish when learning language (Cummins, 2013; Walqui & van Lier, 2010), and achieve a more cognitively engaged learning process. By enabling students to experience their languages simultaneously, translanguaging pedagogy leverages bilinguals' metalinguistic advantage (Adescope, Lavin, Thompson, & Ungerleider, 2010; Barac & Byalistok, 2011; Kuo & Anderson, 2010). This metalinguistic advantage has been attributed to a greater sensibility in bilinguals to language, since learning and maintaining two different languages enables them to distance themselves from the context of language use, and develop a more abstract representation of its structure and function (Kuo & Anderson, 2010).

Literature Review

This literature review was aimed at deepening the understanding of translanguaging pedagogy by characterizing how its discursive and instructional dimensions have been enacted in classroom contexts. It sought empirical evidence documenting the benefits and/or limitations of using more than one language within a lesson. Although the search focused on studies on translanguaging pedagogy, it was expanded to include studies on translation and code-switching in classroom contexts. These other studies were included in order to provide a broader overview of current approaches to studying the use of more than one language within a lesson. This broader overview helped delineate the similarities and differences between these different approaches.

Translanguaging pedagogy is a more recent approach than code-switching and translation. Most of the publications addressing translanguaging are from the past 8 years (Poza, 2017), while code-switching and translation have longer research traditions. In order to situate these older research traditions in the current conversations in the context of the Multilingual Turn (May, 2014), only articles on code-switching and translation published during the last 10 years (2007 – 2017) were included. Articles were searched in different data bases using the following key words: “translanguaging pedagogy,” “code-switching in classrooms,” and “translation in classrooms.” Studies focusing on teaching and learning processes among K - 12 students in instructional contexts in which two or more languages were used were selected for review. Studies situated in higher education contexts were not included in the pool of articles. Reference lists in the selected articles were reviewed in order to trace back other relevant studies. Since the focus of the review was on translanguaging pedagogy, emphasis was placed on achieving an exhaustive review

of the literature on this approach, while a smaller set of relevant research on code-switching and translation was considered.

Discursive Dimension of Translanguaging Pedagogy

Research on the discursive dimension of translanguaging pedagogy has grown in the past years, and raised awareness about the complex language ecologies in classrooms serving bilingual students, which need to be recognized and capitalized in the service of learning (Brisk, de Jong, & Moore, 2015; Creese & Blackledge, 2010; García & Sylvan, 2011; Wei, 2011). This research is predominantly ethnographic, and has typically been done in bilingual education programs. Altogether this research is consistent in showing that despite the strict language separation policies in these programs, bilingual students and their teachers flexibly use their languages to negotiate meaning and to achieve different communicative purposes. The discursive dimension of translanguaging pedagogy is conveyed in the literature across two themes: (1) listening to the translanguaging *corriente*; and (2) fostering translanguaging practices. These themes are discussed in the next two sections.

Listening to The Translanguaging *Corriente*

García and her colleagues (2017) proposed the translanguaging *corriente* as a metaphor to convey students' unacknowledged language practices in the classroom. The *corriente* refers to the flow of a river. If viewed from above, a river's *corriente* may appear still, but when experienced from within its movement becomes evident. This metaphor captures the underlying fluidity, resistance, and creativity in students' language practices in which they draw from their full linguistic repertoire.

Listening to the translanguaging *corriente* was proposed as a category to characterize the research that has focused on the language and literacy practices that take place in the classroom when students are working independently or in groups. These language and literacy practices are situated in classroom contexts in which translanguaging is not a sanctioned practice. This research informs the discursive dimension of translanguaging pedagogy, since it raises awareness of students translanguaging practices, and suggests that regardless of the official classroom language policy, bilingual students make pragmatic language choices to maximize their learning and meaningfully interact with their peers. Table 2.1 presents the studies classified under this category and the contexts in which these studies took place.

Table 2.1. *Contexts of the Studies Addressing the “Translanguaging Corriente”*

Study	Type of Program	Context	Languages	Observed Instruction	Grade	# Focal Students/ Sample size
1. Blair (2016)	1.English-only 2.Developmental Bilingual Program	USA	Spanish & English	Language and literacy	4 th grade	6
2. Daniel & Pacheco (2016)	Afterschool program in an English-only school	USA	Multiple languages	NA	Middle & High School	4
3. Cenoz & Gorter (2011b)	Basque Immersion Program	Basque Country (Spain)	Basque/Spanish/English	Writing	Middle School	165
4.	Transitional Bilingual Program	USA	Spanish & English	Language and literacy	Kindergarten – 1 st grade	2

de la Luz
Reyes
(2012)

5.

García (2011)	Two-Way Bilingual Program	USA – New York	Spanish & English	Throughout the day	Kindergart en	37
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6.

Gort (2008)	Dual Language Program	USA – North East	Spanish & English	Writer’s workshop	1 st grade	6
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7.

Jonsson (2013)	International Boarding School	Swede n	Swedish & English	Throughout the day	High School	6
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8.

Link (2011)	English-only	USA	Spanish & English	Throughout the day	Kindergart en & first grade	5
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9.

Martín- Beltrán (2010)	Dual Language Program	USA	Spanish & English	Writing	5 th grade	8
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10.

Soltero- González (2009)	English-only	USA	Spanish & English	Language & Literacy	Pre- kindergarte n	1
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11.

Velasco & García (2014)	Dual Language Program	USA – New York	Spanish & English; Korean & English	Writing	Kindergart en – 4 th grade	5
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12.

Zhang & Guo (2017)	Bilingual Program	Canada	Mandarin English	& English and Mandarin Language	5 th grade	8
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As illustrated in table 2.1, most of this research was done in bilingual education programs. Although, the terminology used to refer to these programs varies, they all promote bilingual education in different degrees (view García, 2009 for a characterization of these programs). The differences between these programs are related to the contexts, purposes, and populations they serve. These different programs had language separation policies in place in which teaching and learning were expected to take place monolingually. Only four of the studies found were situated in English-only contexts in which students did not have the opportunity to experience instruction in their other language (Blair, 2016; Daniel & Pacheco, 2016; Link, 2011; Soltero-González, 2009). Most of these studies were done in the United States with students whose home language was Spanish.

In general, this research adopted an ethnographic approach in which focal students' language and literacy practices were observed. The data for most of these studies was drawn from the observation of students' naturally occurring talk while participating in different literacy practices in their classrooms. Two studies drew their data from students' writing products (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011b; Velasco & Garía, 2014), and two used students' self-reports as well as observations (Daniel & Pacheco, 2016; Jonsson, 2013).

The translinguaging *corriente* was revealed in observations of student-led work in which the teacher yielded control of talk to students. In these contexts, students had the autonomy to engage in translinguaging since the teacher did not regulate their interactions. Teachers adopted a *laissez faire* approach regarding their students' language use in these contexts (Link, 2011; Soltero González, 2009). They did not forbid home language use, but did not encourage it either.

Different expressions of the translanguaging *corriente* in which students used their full linguistic repertoire in their meaning making about and around texts were documented in these studies. Some examples are: drawing from all of their linguistic resources to discuss a text during group work, supporting each other in understanding a text by translating unknown words or paraphrasing difficult ideas in their stronger language, scaffolding each other's writing by discussing word meanings across languages, and using both languages to negotiate the meaning of texts (Blair, 2016; Daniel & Pacheco, 2016; de la Luz Reyes, 2012; Gort, 2008; Martín-Beltrán, 2010; Link, 2011; Soltero-Gonzalez, 2009). Another example of the translanguaging *corriente* presented in these studies is language play, such as singing a traditional song in their home language, but including words in English, making up jokes, and telling rhymes that include both languages (Jonsson, 2013; Link, 2011; Soltero González, 2009; Zhang & Guo, 2017). The studies that focused on students' writing revealed that students use their full linguistic repertoire during the different stages of the writing process to plan their writing and solve problems (e.g. finding words) (Velasco & García, 2014), and creatively integrate words/phrases from their home languages in their final products (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011; Velasco & García, 2014; Zhang & Guo, 2017).

By listening to the translanguaging *corriente* this line of research suggests that students naturally draw on their full linguistic repertoire to negotiate meaning in the classroom. Students are also language policy makers (Link, 2011) who forge implementation spaces (Hornberger, 2005) in which they resist restrictive language policies. However, the value of these practices is undermined by its unofficial nature. If these translanguaging practices are not officially sanctioned at schools, these students will

become increasingly socialized in English-only language practices. This research suggests that it is necessary to give official status to these practices in order to deliberately leverage students' home language practices in the service of learning. Teachers, who recognize the need to support their students in using their full linguistic repertoire to learn, do not only informally accept their students' translinguaging, but also join them in forging implementation spaces for translinguaging. The research presented in the next section characterizes these practices.

Fostering Translinguaging Practices

Fostering translinguaging practices was proposed as a category to characterize studies that convey interactions in which teachers supported their students in using their full linguistic repertoire to learn. These studies highlight classroom talk in which students and teachers used their different languages and language varieties in the teaching and learning process. As in the above section on the translinguaging *corriente*, the translinguaging practices observed in these studies were not institutionally sanctioned, but rather emerged as the natural way of using language to mediate learning. Table 2.2 presents the studies classified under this category, and the contexts in which these studies took place.

Table 2.2. *Contexts of the Research on Translinguaging Practices*

Study	Type of Program	Context	Languages	Observed Instruction	Grade
1. *Bonacina-Pugh (2013)	Induction classroom for newly arrived immigrants	France	Multilingual	French as a second language	Multigrade (6 – 11 years old)

2.	Creese & Blackledge (2011)	Heritage Language Program	UK	Gujarati/Chinese/Turkish & English	Heritage language class	Not reported
3.	*De Oliveira, Gilmetdinova & Peláez-Morales (2016)	English medium	- USA	Spanish - English	Throughout the day	Kindergarten
4.	Durán & Palmer (2014)	Two-Way Program	USA Texas	- Spanish & English	Bilingual Centers	1 st grade
5.	Esquinca, Araujo & de la Piedra (2014)	Two-Way Program	USA Texas	- Spanish & English	Science	4th grade
6.	*Fennema-Bloom (2009)	Transitional Bilingual Program	USA New York	- Madarin - English	Science	High School
7.	Flores & García (2014)	International High School	USA New York City	- Spanish & English	ELA	9th & 10th grade
8.	*Gort & Pontier (2013)	Dual Language Program	USA Florida	- Spanish & English	Show & Tell	Pre-school
9.		Dual Language Prgram	USA Florida	- Spanish & English	Show & Tell	Pre-school

Gort & Sembiante (2015)						
10.						
*Jiang, García & Willis (2014)	Transitional Bilingual Program	USA		Mandarin – English	Chinese Language Arts	3 rd – 5 th grade
11.						
Lin & Wu (2015)	English as a Foreign Language	Hong-Kong		Cantonese & English	Science	7 th Grade
12.						
Palmer, Mateus, Martínez, & Henderson (2014)	Dual Language Program	– USA Texas	–	Spanish & English	Throughout the day	Pre-Kindergarten & 1 st Grade
13.						
Probyn (2015)	English medium	– South Africa		isi-Xhosa & English	Science	8 th grade
14.						
Sayer (2013)	Transitional Bilingual Program	USA Texas	-	Spanish-TexMex-English	Throughout the day	2 nd grade
15.						
Schwartz & Asli (2013)	Bilingual Program	Israel		Hebrew & Arab	Circle Time	Kindergarten
16.						
*Wei (2011b)	Heritage Language Program	UK		Chinese - English	Chinese Class	Not reported
17.						
	ESL pull out	USA		Spanish - English	ESL	9 – 11 years old

*Welch
(2015)

18. Zabala (2015)	Intercultural Bilingual Education Program	Perú	Quechua - Spanish	Quechua language class	Not reported
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* These studies used the concept of code-switching.

The studies marked with an asterisk used the concept of code-switching, rather than translanguaging, to characterize these practices. They were included in this section, since their findings and conclusions overlap. While studies informed by code-switching emphasized the use of students' stronger language as a scaffold to support learning in the weaker language, those informed by translanguaging pedagogy emphasized the relevance of translanguaging practices in the development of students' bilingual identities. Overall, regardless of the theoretical approach, this research highlighted how enabling students to use their stronger language enhanced teaching and learning.

Similar to the studies on the translanguaging *corriente*, Table 2 shows that most of the research documenting classroom interactions in which teachers promote translanguaging practices has been done in bilingual education programs. In terms of research done in other instructional contexts, six studies situated in language programs were found in this review. Within this group of studies, three documented language practices in heritage language programs (Creese & Blackledge, 2010, 2011; Wei, 2011b) two in second language programs (Bonacina-Pugh, 2013; Welch, 2015) and one in a foreign language program (Lin & Wu, 2015). Additionally, two studies situated in English-only programs serving bilingual students were found. One of these programs served a multilingual population (De Oliveira, Gilmetdinova & Peláez-Morales), while in the other

one, students shared at least one language in addition to English (Probyn, 2015). Although most of this research has been done in the United States, there is also a growing body of research on translanguaging in the international context (Bonacina-Pugh, 2013, Creese & Blackledge, 2010, 2011; Lin & Wu, 2015; Probyn, 2015; Schwartz & Asli, 2013; Wei, 2011b; Zabala, 2015).

Most of these studies have taken place in classrooms serving young students (pre-kindergarten – 2nd grade), and have either focused on the language practices in specific activities (e.g. show & tell, circle time, centers) or characterized language practices throughout the school day. There are fewer studies in the upper elementary or secondary levels. Of these studies, four focused on science instruction (Esquinca, Araujo, & de la Piedra, 2014; Fennema-Bloom, 2009; Lin & Wu, 2015; Probyn, 2015), and two on English instruction (Flores & García, 2014; Welch, 2015). Finally, five studies documented language practices in heritage language instruction (Creese & Blackledge, 2010, 2011; Jiang, García, & Willis, 2014; Wei, 2011b; Zabala, 2015).

Most of the teachers participating in these studies spoke their students' stronger language, and they allowed the use of this language to support teaching and learning. These studies documented interactions in which teachers accepted students' contributions in their stronger language, regardless of the allocated medium of instruction. These interactions enabled students to articulate and share their ideas (Esquinca et al. 2014; Lin & Wu, 2015; Probyn, 2015), and engage in academic language and literacy practices, which otherwise would have been restricted to their emerging language skills in the target language (Sayer, 2013). Furthermore, by enabling students to use all of their available linguistic resources, these teachers created opportunities for students to bring in their home language practices,

and engage in identity performances in which their bilingualism was affirmed and expanded (Creese & Blackledge, 2010, 2011; Jiang et al. 2014; Palmer et al. 2014; Sayer, 2013; Welch, 2015; Wei, 2011b). Although in their interactions with students, teachers typically used the allocated language of instruction, there were also instances in which they used their students' stronger language as a means to: (1) scaffold and differentiate instruction for students with different language proficiencies, (2) check or reinforce understanding, and (3) model translanguaging practices for their students (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Durán & Palmer, 2014; Fennema-Bloom, 2009; Gort & Pontier, 2013; Gort & Sembiante, 2015; Jiang, García, & Willis, 2014; Palmer et al, 2014 Schwartz & Asli, 2013; Zabala, 2015).

Research on translanguaging practices in which teachers do not speak students' stronger language, or serve a multilingual population is scarce. Only three studies situated in classroom contexts with these conditions were found. Two of these studies adopted a code-switching perspective to document how teachers strategically used their students' stronger languages to support learning. One of these studies revealed how a monolingual teacher encouraged her multilingual students to share their prior vocabulary knowledge to scaffold the teaching of new vocabulary in the target language (Bonacina-Pugh, 2013). Another study illustrated the case of a teacher who used her emerging Spanish skills to scaffold instruction for her kindergarten students (de Oliveira, Gilmetdinova, & Pelaez-Morales, 2016). The last study addressing how monolingual teachers foster translanguaging practices, also documented the case of a teacher who did not speak her students' stronger language (Spanish), but took risks using this language to model translanguaging practices for her students (Flores & García, 2014).

In summary, research on classroom talk in which translanguaging practices are encouraged underscores the need of embracing students' language practices, and leveraging them in the service of learning. This conclusion is also valid for the studies that adopted a code-switching perspective included in this review. Although, there are theoretical differences regarding how language is conceived in these two approaches, the recent research on code-switching in classroom contexts also conveys practices in which teachers use all of the available linguistic resources to support their students' learning. In the classroom context, in which teachers are faced with the challenge of teaching students with varied language proficiencies, translanguaging and code-switching are different labels to characterize interactions in which more than one language is used.

The research on these bilingual interactions reveals that teachers have the intuition and the awareness to engage in translanguaging practices when they are needed to leverage their students' learning. Furthermore, these teachers encourage their students to use any of their languages to meaningfully participate in the different academic practices that are valued the classroom. Yet, there is no previously planned instruction aimed at deliberately supporting students in concurrently using their two languages during the lesson. The instructional dimension of translanguaging pedagogy, discussed in the next section, goes beyond promoting flexible language practices in the classroom by proposing the deliberate integration of two languages in the design of curriculum and instructional practices.

Instructional Dimension of Translanguaging Pedagogy

Translanguaging pedagogy, was initially proposed in Welsh bilingual education programs, as an instructional approach to support cognitive engagement and understanding by integrating students' languages within a lesson (Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012; Williams,

1996). Translanguaging pedagogy in the Welsh tradition was conceived to develop bilingualism and subject area knowledge, not to teach language. The scope of this approach has been expanded to include language and literacy instruction, based on the assumption that integrating languages supports more efficient and targeted instruction since students are able to compare and contrast their languages, and draw on their prior linguistic knowledge and skills (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011b; Cummins, 2013). Furthermore, translanguaging pedagogy has been proposed as an instructional approach that supports biliteracy development (Hornberger, 2012), and engagement in critical literacy practices in which students have the opportunity to reflect about the role of language in defining identities and power structures (Flores & García, 2014; García & Leiva, 2014).

This review focuses on the research that has addressed the deliberate use of two languages in the curriculum to support language and literacy development. Two research approaches were identified in this literature. The first approach encompasses small exploratory intervention studies that investigate instructional designs based on the use of two languages to support language and literacy development in bilingual students. The second approach encompasses illustrative cases that convey how teachers can deliberately design instruction that integrates their students' languages.

Translanguaging pedagogy is used in this review as an umbrella term that encompasses research on instructional approaches that require students to use their two languages to make meaning about texts. Although they do not draw on the literature on translanguaging, studies on translation (Borrero, 2011; Jiménez, et al., 2015), and cross-linguistic awareness (Horst, White & Bell, 2010) were included because the interventions

designed for these studies engaged students in using their two languages to enhance their understanding of how language and texts work.

Intervention Studies

As presented in Table 2.3, only 7 intervention studies on the instructional dimension of translanguaging pedagogy were found. Most of these studies were process-oriented in which an innovative instructional practice, that integrated students' both languages, was tried out to determine how students engaged in these instructional practices. Only two of the reviewed studies used outcome measures to determine the impact of engaging students in the proposed translanguaging practices (Borrero, 2011; Hopewell, 2011).

Table 2.3. *Contexts of the Intervention Studies*

Article	Intervention	Context	Languages	Grade	# Focal Students/Sample Size
1. *Borrero (2011)	Young Interpreters Program	USA - California	Spanish & English	7 th & 8 th grade	53
2. Hopewell (2011)	ESL literature group	USA	Spanish & English	4 th grade	45
3. *Horst, White & Bell, 2010	Cross-linguistic awareness activities	Canada	French & English	4 th & 5 th grade	48
4. *Jiménez et al (2015)	TRANSLATE	USA	Spanish & English	Middle school	4

5.						
Martín-Beltrán (2014)	&	Language Ambassadors Program	USA	Spanish English	&	High school 24
6.						
Stewart Hansen-Thomas (2016)	&	Translanguaging in ELA instructional unit	USA	Spanish English	&	High school 1
7.						
Vaish Subhan (2015)	&	Translanguaging in Learning Support Program	Singapore	Malay English	&	2 nd grade Not reported

* Studies that did not define their approach as translanguaging

In the instructional practices addressed in these studies students were encouraged to use their two languages to engage in different ways with texts. The studies on translation focused on developing students' natural ability to move between their languages to enhance their reading comprehension skills. For example, in the "Young Interpreters Program" students were prepared to serve as language brokers in their school by teaching them translation skills, such as paraphrasing oral and written texts. Students' performance in the state language arts test improved after participating in this program, and they also developed an increased awareness of the value of their bilingual skills (Borrero, 2011).

TRANSLATE (Teaching reading and new strategic language approaches to English learners) is another example of a program in which students' home languages were used to support the development of their reading comprehension skills. In this intervention students were asked to work together to translate English text passages to Spanish. These

translation activities engaged students in close reading of the texts and in the analysis of the differences in semantic and syntactic features between English and Spanish, which have the potential to support the development of their linguistic awareness (Jiménez et al. 2015). Horst and her colleagues (2010) proposed another approach to supporting linguistic awareness by engaging students in explicit language instruction in which they were encouraged to make cross-linguistic connections, and found that students and teachers responded well to the instructional activities.

Regarding the studies that have used a translanguaging framework, three explored biliteracy instruction (Hopewell, 2011; Martín – Beltrán, 2014; Stewart & Hansen-Thomas, 2016), and one explored the infusion of translanguaging practices into the mandated English language curriculum (Vaish & Subhan, 2015). Hopewell (2011) adopted the Welsh approach to translanguaging pedagogy to determine the affordances of enabling bilingual students to use their home language to make meaning about English texts (Hopewell, 2011). In this study a within-groups repeated-measures design was used to compare students' performance in reading comprehension in English-only and translanguaging conditions. The sample consisted of 49 Latino(a) fourth graders who were given four different English texts to read, and were asked to write a recall and discuss two of the texts in English-only and two in either English/Spanish or both. Students recalled more of the texts in the bilingual condition, thus providing evidence to suggest that bilingual students may comprehend much more than what they can actually produce (Hopewell, 2011). Based on these results, the study concluded that the distance between what students are capable of comprehending and what they are able to produce conveys an equivocal message of their reading comprehension skills. Furthermore, the analysis of the

discussions in which students could use Spanish and English revealed that teaching and learning opportunities were expanded in this condition. For example, students were able to identify and discuss cognates, and polysemous words in English that contrasted with Spanish since distinct words were used for each concept. Furthermore, increased student talk during the bilingual discussion enabled the instructor to identify misunderstandings, and scaffold learning.

The other studies have documented different approaches to deliberately integrating translanguaging into instruction by, for example, pairing students with different language expertise to support each other in their writing (Martín – Beltrán, 2014), providing bilingual texts and enabling students to write in both of their languages (Stewart & Hansen-Thomas, 2016), and pointing out areas in the mandated curriculum in which translanguaging pedagogy may be used to support learning (Vaish & Subhan, 2015). For example, Martín-Beltrán’s (2014) study on the “Language Ambassadors Program” contributed evidence on how translanguaging supports problem solving during the writing process. In this program reciprocal teaching was promoted by linking English experts with Spanish experts to support each other in their writing. Students were asked to write in English or Spanish and then worked with their partner on editing their text. Discussion about their texts were usually initiated with the question “What do you want to say?” Students engaged in translanguaging to discuss this question in which they addressed issues regarding word choice and similarities and differences between their languages.

In summary, these intervention studies have focused on exploring instructional practices in which bilingual students’ languages are integrated. This research suggests that language and literacy instruction that deliberately integrates students’ languages supports

their reading comprehension, linguistic awareness, and writing development. These studies focused on instructional strategies, rather than on curriculum design. Research on the instructional dimension of translanguaging pedagogy, has not yet studied the design, implementation, and evaluation of curricula that integrates students' languages.

Illustrative Case Studies

These illustrative studies portray how, through translanguaging pedagogy, students are socialized in academic Discourses and literacy by reading different types of texts, fluidly using their languages, and bridging home and academic knowledge. Furthermore, these case studies illustrate the potential of translanguaging pedagogy to promote critical literacy practices in which historically silenced voices are brought into the classroom to stimulate students' reflection about their identity, and challenge power structures that perpetuate inequality. In contrast with the studies presented in the above section, this research does not present student outcomes or describe students' meaning making processes, but rather describe the teachers' instruction to illustrate how translanguaging pedagogy may be enacted. Some examples of these teaching practices are described below.

“Cuéntame Algo” is an example of a critical literacy practice in a fourth-grade classroom in a bilingual education program in New Mexico that promoted strict language separation (García, et al, 2017). In this space, the teacher encouraged her students to use their entire linguistic repertoire to discuss stories from bilingual books. In these bilingual stories authors used translanguaging in their writing, which served as an affordance to critically analyze why authors chose to include words in the other language in their texts, and stimulate reflection about the author's and their own bilingual identity.

“Hip-Hop Monday” is another example in which the teacher designed critical literacy practices during her English Language Arts class to engage her recently arrived Latino(a) immigrant students with unconventional texts that addressed complex and relevant issues (Flores & García, 2014; García & Leiva, 2014). For example, the teacher stimulated reflection about oppressive policies such as deportation, by having students analyze hip hop lyrics in which translanguaging was used to communicate hopeful and empowering messages (García & Leiva, 2014). These lyrics served as starting points to encourage students to talk about their own histories and ideas. Furthermore, the teacher designed different activities around these texts in which students were asked to translate excerpts of the lyrics, make cross-language comparisons and analyze language choices.

These illustrative case studies suggest the potential of translanguaging pedagogy to engage students in critical literacy practices. These critical literacy practices are aimed at liberating historically silenced voices by guiding students in the exploration of oppressive power structures, and stimulating them to disrupt these structures by creatively and critically using their languages to participate in these academic Discourses and literacy practices. These illustrative case studies have not addressed how engagement in these critical literacy practices impact students’ understanding of themselves, and their contexts.

Conclusions and Implications for the Present Study

Research on translanguaging pedagogy has predominantly focused on its discursive dimension. Knowledge about this dimension has been built through the ethnographic study of naturally occurring translanguaging practices in classroom contexts serving bilingual students. This research has zoomed in on translanguaging practices to expose a phenomenon that has been traditionally ignored. In so doing, this research has brought the

translanguaging *corriente* forth (García et al. 2017), and revealed how bilingual students use all of their linguistic resources when they negotiate the meaning of texts, as well as produce them. This research has also exposed how teachers resist language separation policies, and foster heteroglossic language ecologies to support their students' learning. Translanguaging practices create safe spaces where students' bilingual identities are validated, and they feel empowered to take risks and creatively use their linguistic resources.

Less is known about the instructional dimension of translanguaging pedagogy. Only 7 small-scale intervention studies and 2 illustrative case studies were found in which instruction was deliberately designed to engage students in biliteracy practices in which they needed to use their two languages to negotiate and produce texts. These studies provide evidence to suggest that students' linguistic awareness (Horst et al., 2010; Jiménez et al., 2015) and reading comprehension (Borrero, 2011; Hopewell, 2011) are enhanced with instruction that encourages students to use their two languages to engage with texts. Furthermore, translanguaging pedagogy has the potential to foster critical literacy (Flores & García, 2014; García & Levia, 2014; García et al., 2017), and enhance meaningful engagement when reading and producing texts (Martín-Beltrán, 2014; Stewart & Hansen-Thomas, 2016).

More research is needed on the instructional dimension of translanguaging pedagogy in order to build an evidence base to inform teaching and learning in which two or more languages are used within a lesson. Furthermore, it is also necessary to learn more about the discursive dimension of translanguaging pedagogy in contexts other than bilingual programs, since most research has been done in these contexts. This exploratory

intervention study addressed these two research gaps by investigating the discursive and instructional dimensions of translanguaging pedagogy in a language and literacy curriculum implemented in an English-only context. Specifically, the discursive dimension was addressed by characterizing the role of translanguaging in participants' interactions, and the instructional dimension by analyzing student talk to determine how translanguaging supported them in making meaning about semantics, morphology and syntax.

Chapter 3: Methodology

In the previous chapters, it has been argued that although translanguaging pedagogy is a promising instructional approach to support bilingual students' language and literacy development, more research on curriculum and instruction that integrates translanguaging pedagogy to serve immigrant origin students in English-only programs is needed. It is necessary to provide further evidence of how the inclusion of two or more languages as the medium of instruction supports teaching and learning in order to achieve a shift from monoglossic to heteroglossic ideologies in education. This dissertation is an exploratory intervention study in which translanguaging pedagogy was infused in two lesson cycles derived from an existing language and literacy curriculum. In this curriculum, a lesson cycle was defined as a set of six text-based lessons in which students were engaged in discussion about the text, and received explicit text-based language instruction. An ethnomethodological approach (Garfinkel, 1967) was adopted to deepen the understanding of the discursive and instructional dimensions of translanguaging pedagogy as manifested in participants' (teacher and students) talk and interaction during these lesson cycles. The following research questions were addressed:

- What interactional work does translanguaging do during these lessons?
- How is translanguaging manifested in participants' talk about semantics, morphology, and syntax?

The first question was aimed at examining the discursive dimension of translanguaging pedagogy by uncovering the meaning of translanguaging practices as locally constructed by participants in their interaction. The second question sought to develop an understanding of the instructional dimension of translanguaging pedagogy by

exploring how translanguaging was manifested in participants' talk about the content taught in these lessons. A combination of conversation analysis (CA) and classroom discourse analysis (DA) methodologies were used to analyze the situated meanings of translanguaging in these lessons.

This chapter first presents the research design in which the rationale for the study, and for the methodological approach adopted is explained. This is followed by a description of CLAVES, the language and literacy curriculum into which translanguaging was infused. After this, the proposed theory of change of a translanguaged CLAVES curriculum is presented and its relationship with the original curriculum is explained. Then, the study setting and participants are presented, followed by a description of the informed consent process, the data sources and collection procedures, and the analytic plan. Finally, a reflection on the researcher's positionality is presented.

Research Design

In this exploratory intervention study two sets of translanguaged lesson cycles were designed based on the CLAVES curriculum. To deepen current understandings of the role of translanguaging pedagogy in bilingual students' language and literacy development, an ethnomethodologically fine-grained analysis of participants' discourse and interaction in these translanguaged lesson cycles was conducted. Ethnomethodology focuses on uncovering the tacit mechanisms that participants use to organize their interaction based on their local understandings of what is happening in it (Garfinkel, 1967; Liddicoat, 2007). Rather than using predefined categories, this approach follows an inductive process to theorize interaction based on the detailed analysis of naturally occurring conversations. In this sense, the analyst seeks to characterize how participants' understandings of what is

going on are enacted in their interaction with each other. These understandings may be uncovered with analytic techniques such as Conversation Analysis (CA), and some approaches to Discourse Analysis (DA). These techniques are described in detail in the section on data analysis. The following section characterizes the translanguaging intervention designed for this study.

The CLAVES Curriculum

CLAVES is a multi-component language and literacy curriculum for Spanish-English bilinguals who are acquiring language and literacy in English. This curriculum is based on: (1) explicit, text-based linguistic awareness instruction in semantics, syntax, and morphology; (2) small group discussions designed to enhance authentic opportunities to practice language and promote engagement with texts; and (3) supports for bilingual students such as cognates and non-verbal scaffolds (Proctor, Silverman & Harring, 2014). The theory of change informing this curriculum proposes that the combination of these three dimensions will promote the development of linguistic awareness, which will in turn improve students' reading comprehension.

This curriculum is intended for bilingual students who have been classified in levels 3, 4, or 5 on the state-level ACCESS test designed to measure English language proficiency (WIDA, 2017, nd; <https://www.wida.us/assessment/ACCESS20.aspx>). Students in these levels are competent English users, but may still be hesitant in the use of English for academic purposes. This curriculum is organized in three units about the following topics: immigration, rights, and the relationship between humans and nature. Each unit is divided in two lesson-cycles each focused on a text related to the unit topic. The lesson cycles consist of 5 lessons during which students discuss the text and relevant issues raised in it,

and participate in explicit text-based language instruction in the areas of semantics, morphology, and syntax. At the end of each unit there are two culminating writing lessons in which students use the language learned during the unit to write an argumentative essay in which they address the issues discussed during the unit.

Infusing Translanguaging Pedagogy into the CLAVES Curriculum

The theory of change informing the decision to infuse translanguaging pedagogy into the CLAVES curriculum is based on theorizations of the fluid relationship between bilinguals' languages (García, 2009; Canagarajah, 2013; Creese & Blackledge, 2010), and on the potential affordances of translanguaging identified in the literature review presented in chapter two. Figure 3.1 illustrates how the supports for bilingual students established in the CLAVES theory of change were expanded in this translanguaged version by incorporating bilingual texts and bilingual language instruction (i.e. the content taught in the areas of semantics, morphology and syntax was presented in English and Spanish), and encouraging students to use the language of their preference to participate. In this sense, the discursive dimension of translanguaging pedagogy was accomplished by establishing flexible language practices that encouraged participants to use their full linguistic repertoire to engage in teaching and learning, while its instructional dimension was achieved by incorporating bilingual materials, and designing bilingual instructional activities aimed at promoting a deeper understanding of the content by fostering connections across languages. It was expected that the infusion of translanguaging pedagogy, would enhance opportunities for bilingual students to meaningfully participate in the lessons, affirm and enhance their bilingual identities, and increase linguistic awareness development by promoting cross-language comparisons. Additionally, it was expected that this

translanguaged version would make the CLAVES curriculum accessible to more experienced Spanish-English bilinguals, as well as to emergent bilinguals.

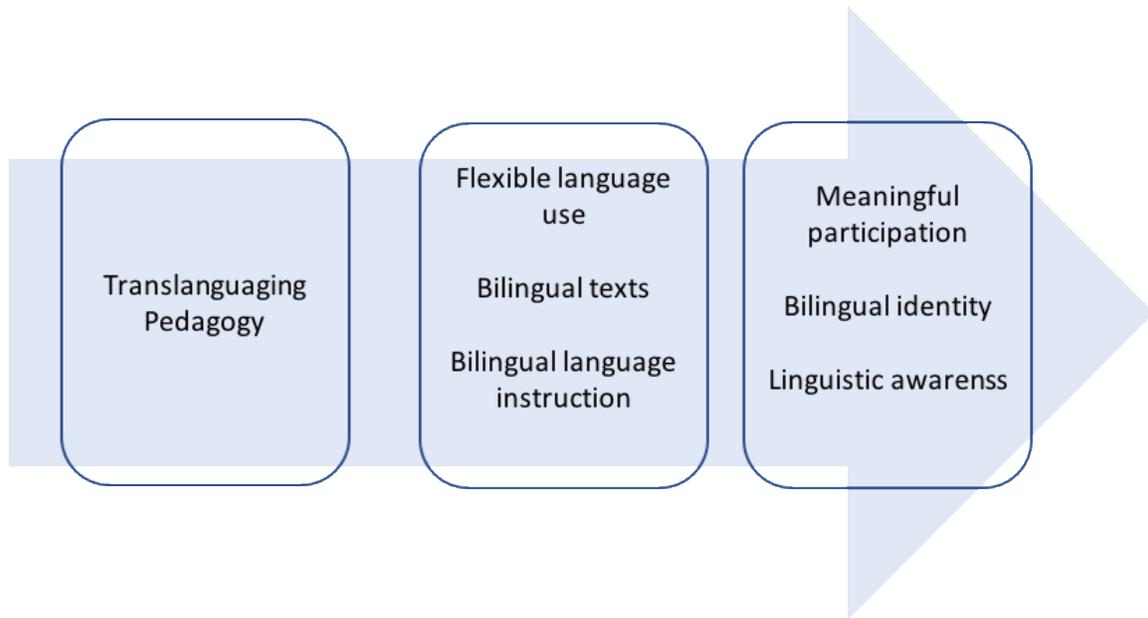


Figure 3.1. Theory of Change for the Translanguaged CLAVES Curriculum

Two translanguaged lesson cycles based on bilingual texts were designed following an initial CLAVES curriculum organization, which slightly differs from the organization described in the section above. When these translanguaged lesson cycles were designed, the writing component of the curriculum was integrated to each cycle, rather being the culminating unit activity described above. This is why the translanguaged lesson cycles consisted of six lessons, instead of five.

Cycle 1 was situated in the context of the CLAVES Immigration Unit, and Cycle 2 in the Rights Unit. Cycle 1 was based on the bilingual poetry book *My Name is Jorge* by Jane Medina (1999) in which a Mexican boy's experience of adjusting to his new life in the United States is conveyed. Cycle 2 was based on the bilingual book *Yes, We Can!* by

Sarah Cohen (2002), which presents the successful story of a hotel janitor strike in Los Angeles. *Yes, We Can!* is part of the original CLAVES curriculum, while *My Name is Jorge* was selected for this translanguaged version, since the original curriculum did not include bilingual texts in the Immigration Unit.

Bilingual texts were a key component of the approach to translanguaging pedagogy proposed in this study since they provided access to complex content to students with varied language proficiencies in English and Spanish. These were culturally-relevant texts that presented complex issues related to the unit theme. Additionally, students had the opportunity to engage in biliteracy practices in which they displayed their literacy skills in the language of their preference, and also took risks reading in their weaker language. These texts also provided rich language to engage students in cross-linguistic comparisons.

Table 3.1 presents a summary of the content of the translanguaged lesson cycles, which reflect the different components of the CLAVES curriculum. Each lesson cycle addressed these components distributed in the following way: 2 semantics lessons, 1 morphology lesson, 1 syntax lesson, 1 dialogic reasoning lesson and 1 writing lesson. The language content for the semantics, morphology and syntax components was extracted from the bilingual texts.

Table 3.1. *Content of Lesson Cycles*

	Cycle 1	Cycle 2
Topic and Text	Immigration – <i>My Name is Jorge</i> by Jane Medina	Workers’ rights – <i>Yes, We Can!</i> by Diana Cohn
Semantics	Vocabulary: Turn polysemy contrasts	– Vocabulary: with janitor/ <i>conserje</i> ,

	Spanish (<i>voltear, convertir, turno</i>)	union/ <i>sindicato</i> , vote/ <i>votar</i> , strike/ <i>huelga</i> , march/ <i>march</i> , promise/ <i>promesa</i>
	invisible/ <i>invisible</i> , disappear/ <i>desaparecer</i> , citizen/ <i>ciudadano</i> , power/ <i>poder</i>	
Morphology	-ful, -less (<i>-ado/ada,-ido,-oso/asa</i>)	er, or (<i>-ista, -dor/dora, -or/ora</i>)
Syntax	Adjective placement in English and Spanish	Subject pronouns in English and Spanish
Dialogic reasoning	Should Jorge change his identity to fit in his school?	Should the janitors have gone on strike?
Writing	Opinion paragraph about whether Jorge/they/someone they know should change his/her identity to fit in a new place.	Place themselves in Carlito's position and write a letter to the company's president requesting better work conditions for mamá.

The following sections describe these components of the CLAVES curriculum, and explain how bilingual language instruction was integrated.

Semantics

Semantics instruction in the CLAVES curriculum is aimed at supporting students in developing their knowledge about word meanings and the conceptual relationships between words (Proctor, 2011). These relationships encompass different types of connections. For example, connecting target words to related words (e.g. synonyms,

antonyms, and homonyms); and to other words, images and other multisensory features. It also encompasses considering the different connotations of the target words. An important aspect supporting bilingual students' semantic knowledge is their awareness of cognate relationships across languages (Carlo et. al. 2004; Proctor, 2011). A cognate is a word that has similar semantic and orthographic features in two languages (e.g. *different/diferente*; *coffee/café*; *verb/verbo*) (Proctor, 2011).

Cognates are a linguistic resource that provides access to the meanings of words across languages. Spanish and English share many morphological (e.g. the prefix *pre-* in *preexist/preexistir*, or the suffix *-ion* in *education/educación*), and lexical cognates in academic language since many of these words have the same Latin roots (Dressler, et al., 2011). Furthermore, there are many high frequency words in Spanish that are cognates for low frequency words in English (e.g. *tranquil/tranquilo*, *rapid/rápido*) (Proctor, 2011). Cognate awareness supports Spanish-English bilinguals' vocabulary development and reading comprehension if they are aware of the existence of cognates (Jiménez, García, & Pearson, 1995; Kelley & Kohnert, 2012; Sheng, Lam, Cruz, & Fulton, 2016). A way to support cognate awareness is by explicitly teaching students to use their knowledge of their first language to infer word meanings in their second language (Dressler, et al., 2011; Kelley & Kohnert, 2012; Proctor & Mo, 2012).

In the translanguaged lesson cycles, target words for semantics instruction were selected based on their relevance to understanding the text, their potential use in discussions, and their affordances for establishing cross-linguistic relations. Semantic bilingual language instruction encompassed activities such as cognate identification, bilingual definitions, and the discussion of polysemy in English and its contrast with

Spanish (for example, there are three words in Spanish for the different meanings of the word “turn”/*turno, voltear, convertir*). In addition to working with the target vocabulary, semantic instruction also encompassed discussions regarding word choices. For example, although all the poems in *My Name is Jorge* were presented bilingually, there were also instances in which the author used Spanish words in the English version. These were affordances to engage in discussions about the author language choices, and the meanings she conveyed by including these words in Spanish.

Morphology

Morphology instruction in the CLAVES curriculum is aimed at supporting the development of morphological awareness. Morphological awareness refers to the ability to reflect on and manipulate morphemes, and employ word formation rules to construct and understand morphologically complex words (Kuo & Anderson, 2006; Ramírez, Chen, Geva, & Kieffer, 2010). An understanding of morphologically complex words entails knowing the meaning of different affixes, being able to segment words in their root and affixes, and understanding how these affixes change the word’s meaning and part of speech. In general, morphological awareness supports word reading and reading comprehension (Carlisle, 2000).

In the case of Spanish-English bilingual students, morphological awareness in either Spanish or English has been found to be positively related to their English word reading skills (Ramírez, Chen, Geva, & Kiefer, 2010), and English vocabulary skills (Ramírez, Chen, and Pasquarella, 2013). These findings suggest that bilingual students apply their Spanish morphology skills to decode words in English. In the case of English

vocabulary, morphological cognate awareness enables them to use their Spanish morphology skills to figure out word meanings in English.

The translanguaged lesson cycles sought to promote students' morphological awareness in English and Spanish, by engaging them in bilingual morphology instruction. The English and Spanish version of two derivational suffixes was studied: adjective forming suffixes *-ful*, *-less/-ado/ada, -ido, -oso/osa* during Cycle 1, and noun person forming suffixes *er, or/-ista, -dor/dora, -or/ora* in Cycle 2. Affordances to discuss greater derivational variability in Spanish, and explore contrasting word formation rules in Spanish and English were created by presenting these suffixes bilingually. Bilingual morphology instruction encompassed activities such as discussing PowerPoint presentations in which the target suffixes in English and Spanish were placed alongside each other, using the knowledge of the suffix to figure out word meanings in both languages, and engaging students in morphological derivation in both languages.

Syntax

Syntax instruction in the CLAVES curriculum seeks to enhance students' syntactic awareness. Syntactic awareness refers to the ability to define if a sentence is grammatically correct (Foursha-Stevenson & Nicholadis, 2011), and to use semantic and morphological knowledge in a syntactic context (Proctor, 2011). This entails being able to understand how a word in its different connotations is used in a sentence, for instance distinguishing that the word "turn" is a noun in "We have to take turns using the tablet", and verb in "The caterpillar turned into a butterfly."

Research on syntactic awareness in bilingual students suggests that structures that differ across languages may motivate them to analyze these differences, thus helping them

to become more sensitive to morphological and syntactic structures, and develop a deeper understanding of how syntax works (Foursha-Stevenson & Nicoladis, 2011; Kuo & Anderson, 2010; Reder et al., 2013;). Based on this research, syntax instruction in the translanguaged lesson cycles focused on contrasting syntactic structures in English and Spanish. For example, adjective placement, discussed in Cycle 1, is different in these languages, since adjectives are placed before the noun in English, and after the noun in Spanish (i.e. cold water/*agua fría*). Pronoun use, discussed in Cycle 2, also contrasts in these languages, since in Spanish the verb conjugation contains information about the subject, making pronouns redundant in some cases (i.e. We stopped working/*Dejamos de trabajar*). Bilingual syntactic instruction encompassed activities such as analyzing contrasting syntactic features in texts, making grammatical judgements in both languages and discussing PowerPoint presentations in which the target structures were presented alongside each other.

Dialogic Reasoning

The CLAVES curriculum seeks to promote engagement in meaningful talk about texts by engaging students in dialogic reasoning discussions. Dialogic reasoning is defined as a small group student-led discussion in which students are asked to adopt a stance about an issue presented in the lesson cycle text, and discuss the issue with their peers using text evidence and their personal experiences to support their stance. These discussions are aimed at considering different perspectives on an issue, rather than on defending a position in a debate-like manner. In addition to dialogic reasoning, the CLAVES curriculum supports student talk throughout all of the lessons by encouraging the use of open ended

questions that stimulate deeper cognitive engagement with the texts and content being taught.

In the translanguaged lesson cycles, students were further stimulated to engage in talk by presenting the content and questions bilingually and encouraging them to use the language they felt most comfortable in to participate. Regarding the dialogic reasoning discussions, during Cycle 1 students were prompted to consider whether Jorge (the character in the poems) should change his identity to fit in at his school, and during Cycle 2 they were prompted to propose their position regarding whether workers should go on strike.

Writing

The writing component in the CLAVES curriculum is conceived as a culminating activity in which students are asked to write a brief argumentative text based on their dialogic reasoning discussion, and they are encouraged to try using the target language taught during the lesson cycle in their writing. As mentioned before, the writing lessons were expanded in the newer version of the curriculum in order to better scaffold the writing process by providing time to plan, write and revise. The translanguaged lesson cycles proposed for this study were based on the initial version of the curriculum in which only one lesson during each cycle was dedicated to writing.

In this translanguaged lesson cycles students were encouraged to write in the language of their preference, and to consider possibilities of integrating their two languages in their texts. The writing process was approached differently in each cycle, since the writing lesson in Cycle 1, did not provide enough opportunities for students to actually write. In Cycle 1 a model paragraph, was presented and deconstructed to illustrate its

different components: thesis, reasons and evidence. This model was written in English, but included some words in Spanish, to encourage students to reflect on how they could use their languages creatively in their writing. After discussing the model, students were asked to co-construct a paragraph. The paragraph co-construction was challenging, since students had different ideas that could not be easily integrated into a single text. In cycle 2, students were asked to write their own text, and a more authentic writing task was proposed by asking them to place themselves in the character's place, and write a letter to the hotel manager asking for a better salary for their mom.

Setting and Participants

This research took place in a public K-8 school located in an ethnically diverse neighborhood that has historically been populated by immigrants. Currently, its largest immigrant group comes from Central and South American countries such as El Salvador, Colombia, Mexico, Guatemala, Honduras, and Brazil. About half of this neighborhood's population was born outside the United States, and most of the foreign-born people come from El Salvador, followed by Colombia. This is the neighborhood with the largest concentration of Spanish speakers in the city. More than half of its population reports living in households where Spanish is spoken, and among these 70.6% report that they speak English less than well. There are many ethnic restaurants and grocery stores, as well as beauty shops and small retail stores, in which Spanish is the language used to do business. The neighborhood's central square is a contact zone where these small businesses coexist with large chain stores and restaurants that represent consumer culture in the United States. This neighborhood is also going through a gentrification process. During the past 5 years,

its waterfront in the bay facing the city's downtown has been transformed with the construction of large up-scale buildings.

The school where this study took place serves a predominantly Hispanic student body (77.3%), and about half of the students (47.3%) are classified as English Language Learners. The students who are in the process of learning English are placed in structured English immersion (SEI) classrooms. This school was one of the sites in which the CLAVES curriculum was developed and tested. During the development phase, that took place between school years 2014 – 2015 and 2015 – 2016, research assistants taught the curriculum during RISE¹. This is a 30-minute block established by the school during which teachers, students and staff are dedicated to their literacy support and acceleration initiative. Additionally, teachers were engaged during this development as consultants in Teacher Working Groups (TWG) in which they provided feedback about the curriculum design and implementation. During the evaluation phase, in school year 2016 – 2017, the fourth-grade teachers implemented the lesson cycles with their students during centers in the literacy block, or during RISE. Outcome data was collected from these students, as well as from a control group, before and after the intervention to determine the impact of the curriculum in students' language and literacy development.

The translanguaged lesson cycles were implemented in the spring and fall of 2016. The SEI third grade teacher selected five Spanish – English bilingual students with varied language and literacy proficiencies in English and Spanish to participate in these lesson cycles. This teacher was one of the CLAVES teacher working group (TWG) participants,

¹ This name was changed to ensure anonymity.

but her students had not participated in the CLAVES lessons since these were aimed at fourth grade students. She had been looking forward for her students to participate in these lessons, and considered that during the spring semester they would be prepared to benefit from this work. In addition to selecting the group of students, she reviewed the lesson plans in order to ensure that their content was developmentally appropriate for the students. She also supported the implementation of the lesson cycles by providing feedback about behavior management, and designing strategies to address behavioral issues.

During the fall of 2016, all of the participants, except Joseph who was transferred to a “mainstream” classroom, continued in the 4th grade SEI classroom. Each student’s profile is characterized below, and Table 3.2 presents a summary of this information.

Table 3.2. *Student Description*

Pseudonym	Place of Birth	of Descent	Year of Arrival in US	WIDA Level	Spanish Literacy
Johanna	USA	Salvadorian	NA	3.5	Can decode text
Valentina	Colombia	Colombian	2015	1	Yes- grade level
Roberto	Colombia	Colombian	2014	3	Yes – grade level
James	El Salvador	Salvadorian	2015	1	Yes – grade level
Joseph	USA	Salvadorian	NA	4	Can decode text

Johanna was born in the United States, and her family was Salvadorian. She was 9 years old in the spring of 2016 and her English Language Development (ELD) level was

3.5. This ELD level indicates that she was comfortable using English to learn in her classroom and to communicate with her teachers and peers, but needed support using English for academic purposes. She translated instructions for students who had recently arrived to her school from Spanish speaking countries, and also established friendships with some of these students. She hadn't received formal literacy instruction in Spanish, but her cousin had taught her to read in that language at home. Her teacher described her as eager to learn and work, and that was also the case during the translanguaged lessons. She fluently communicated in English and Spanish during the lessons, and sought opportunities to read in Spanish although it was challenging for her to read in this language.

Valentina was a Colombian 8-year-old girl who had arrived in the United States during the summer before the 2015 – 2016 school year. During the 2016 spring semester her ELD level was 1 which indicates that she was just starting to become familiar with the English language. Her teacher described her as very bright and eager to learn. She considered that Valentina was learning English rapidly, since she understood much of what was happening in their classroom, although she was not ready to participate in English. During the translanguaged lesson cycles she read fluently in Spanish and talked insightfully about the readings. She understood instructions in English, but always made sure that the texts were read in Spanish to be able to fully understand them. She mostly used Spanish during these lessons, and avoided reading in English until the end of the spring semester, when she started taking risks reading in this language.

Roberto was a Colombian 9-year-old boy who had arrived in the United States in 2014. By the time he participated in this study, his ELD level was 3 indicating that he was comfortable speaking and learning in English, but was still developing fluency and English

for academic purposes. His teacher described him as eager to learn, and said he had a special interest in vocabulary. This interest was made manifest in a notebook that he kept in his classroom where he wrote all the new English vocabulary words that he learned. She also described him as being comfortable using English to learn in his classroom and to communicate with his teachers and peers, and as a very talented interpreter for his recently arrived immigrant classmates. This was also observed during his participation in the lesson cycles in which he frequently acted as an interpreter for Valentina and James. During these lessons, he also demonstrated that he could read fluently in English and Spanish.

James was a Salvadorian 9-year-old boy who had arrived in the United States during the summer before the 2015 – 2016 school year. During the 2016 spring semester his ELD level was 1 indicating that he was just starting to become familiar with the English language. His teacher described him as “aggressive and angry, but also adorable and sweet.” It was possible to learn during the work in these lesson cycles that his aggressiveness masked the vulnerability he felt while he adjusted to the changes that he was experiencing during that year. He adopted a defensive attitude to cope with the fear of being treated unfairly. He valued the chance to learn in Spanish in this small group, and found opportunities during the readings and discussions to talk about his immigration journey and his life in El Salvador. He read fluently in Spanish, and made sure that texts and instructions were provided in that language. As Valentina, he avoided reading in English until the end of the spring semester in which he started taking some risks reading in that language.

Joseph was born in the United States, and his family was Salvadorian. He was 8 years old during the spring of 2016, and in that time his ELD was 4 which indicates that he

was a fluent English speaker, but still had to develop English for academic purposes. His teacher described him as very bright. During the spring semester, he found in these translanguaged lessons an opportunity to practice his Spanish speaking and literacy skills. He said that he wanted to improve his Spanish, and sought opportunities to read in this language. He communicated more fluently in English, but was also able to convey his ideas in Spanish when he chose this language, or when he was asked to translate what he had said to his peers. Joseph was reticent to participate during the fall sessions. He remained aloof during the lessons, and, in contrast, with the spring semester, was not so eager to read or speak in Spanish.

Informed Consent

This project was covered by Boston College (BC) and the school district's Institutional Review Boards' (IRB) approvals for CLAVES research during both academic years (2015-2016 and 2016 – 2017), since the proposed data sources and procedures were similar to those used in CLAVES. The teacher's consent to participate in this study was sought, but she did not have to sign an additional consent form since the one she had signed in the context of CLAVES contemplated the activities (e.g. observations, interviews, surveys) in which she was invited to participate in this study. Initial contact with parents was established by sending a consent form that informed them about the research project, the nature of their children's participation, how confidentiality would be ensured, and the risks and benefits of their participation. This consent form also established that participation in the project was voluntary, and that they or their children could decide to stop participating in the project at any time. Students', whose parents authorized them to

participate, were asked to sign an assent form that provided the same information that parents received in a child friendly manner.

Data Sources

The data sources used to address the two research questions were the video and audio recordings of the lessons. In total, 7.87 hours of video/audio data were recorded, distributed in 16 lessons each averaging about 30 minutes. Table 3.3 summarizes the date, topic, and duration of each lesson. Although each lesson cycle consisted of 6 lessons, lesson cycle 1 took 10 lessons. There were more lessons in the first cycle because an introductory lesson, and a lesson on general immigration vocabulary and background knowledge were included. Additionally, the semantics lessons took longer than planned.

Table 3.3. *Data Sources*

	Lesson Number	Date	Duration in minutes	Topic
Cycle 1	1	3/14/16	26	Introduction
<i>My Name is Jorge</i>	2	3/23/16	17	Immigration vocabulary & background knowledge
	3	3/28/16	30	Semantics Part 1
	4	4/4/16	34	Semantics Part 2
	5	4/11/16	27	Semantics Part 3
	6	4/25/16	35	Semantics Part 4
	7	5/2/16	25	Morphology Part 1
	8	5/9/16	31	Morphology Part 2 & Syntax Part 1
	9	5/13/16	38	Syntax Part 2 & Dialogic Reasoning

	10	5/23/16	30	Writing
Cycle 2	11	5/24/16	23	Semantics Part 1
Yes, We Can!	12	6/6/16	28	Semantics Part 2
	13	10/19/16	31	Dialogic Reasoning
	14	10/26/16	31	Morphology
	15	10/28/16	36	Syntax
	16	11/2/16	30	Writing

Data Collection

As in the CLAVES project, the translanguaged lesson cycles were implemented during RISE. The RISE block provided an ideal space for this work, since it contributed to the school’s literacy support initiative, and did not interrupt students’ learning time. In this sense, these lesson cycles fitted in the school’s overall pedagogical initiative to provide individualized academic support to students in their specific areas of need by providing an enrichment language and literacy activity outside the regular English-only curriculum. The researcher enacted the translanguaged lesson cycles during the spring semester of 2016. She taught a weekly 30-minute lesson starting in mid-March until early June. Since cycle 1 took longer than planned, it was necessary to reconvene the group during the fall semester to finish cycle 2. The lessons were video-taped and audio-recorded to ensure that students’ talk was captured.

Data Analysis

The lesson videos were analyzed drawing on Conversation Analysis (CA) and Discourse Analysis (DA) techniques. CA and DA were selected as the analytic techniques for this study since they provide a lens through which to look closely at how participants

deploy their linguistic resources to accomplish different interactional purposes. On one hand, CA was used as an analytic lens to unveil how translanguaging was used as an interactional tool to manage particular aspects of the conversation. On the other hand, DA focused the analysis on how participants engaged in translanguaging to achieve particular purposes such as performing their bilingualism, and engaging in meaningful talk about the content being taught.

Conversation Analysis (CA)

Conversation analysis (CA) provides an analytic lens and a technique to study talk-in-interaction (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008; Liddicoat, 2007, Ten Have, 1999, Schegloff, 2007). CA was developed in the field of sociology as an alternative to research approaches that use predefined theoretical categories in the study of social processes. In contrast, CA follows an inductive process to theorize interaction based on the detailed analysis of naturally occurring conversations. Through this analysis it seeks to understand the ways in which people produce their own talk and understand that of others (Liddicoat, 2007). In everyday conversations and in those that take place in institutional settings such as hospitals, courtrooms, and classrooms the participating parties locally organize and regulate their interaction in order to achieve their purposes (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008).

There are three main ways by which interaction is organized in conversations: turn – taking, sequences and repair (Ten Have, 1999). Turn-taking organization is the foundation of talk-in-interaction since it provides the structure through which participants share understandings and organize their participation (Liddicoat, 2007). Turns are grouped in sequences. The most basic sequence is the adjacency pair, which is composed of a first pair part (e.g. *How are you?*) and a second pair part (e.g. *Fine, thank you*). This basic

sequence may be expanded by adding pre-sequences, making insertions between the first pair part and the second pair part, or making post-expansions. Repair is the mechanism through which problems that arise in the conversation are dealt with (Liddicoat, 2007).

Research on classroom interaction has revealed that student participation is typically organized in a three-turn interactional sequence known as Initiation-Response-Feedback (Greeno, 2015; Mehan & Cazden, 2015). The IRF sequence enables teachers to orchestrate discussions by asking a question in the initiation, which is followed by one or more student responses, and these are then evaluated or commented by the teacher. The basic version of this sequence is used to engage students in recitations in which the teacher asks a known-answer question, the student typically provides a single word response, and the teacher evaluates the response (Mehan & Cazden, 2015). This sequence may be expanded to promote reasoning, rather than recitation, by asking open-ended questions, which may be responded to by more than one student, and providing non-evaluative comments to students (Greeno, 2015; Mehan & Cazden, 2015).

The study of language alternation from an interactional perspective is based on Auer's (1984, 1998) seminal work on code-switching. This work drew on CA to reveal the locally constructed meanings of language alternation within a bilingual conversation (i.e. a conversation in which participants use two languages). Rather than explaining code-switching behavior in relation to different social categories, such as group affiliation, Auer proposed that conversation participants co-construct the meaning of their language alternations in their interaction as their conversation unfolds. These meanings are accomplished through verbal and non-verbal behavior such as tone, pauses, and overlaps, among others. The analyst unveils the meaning of participants' language alternations by

analyzing the verbal and non-verbal aspects of their interaction in the context of the conversation sequence. Auer (1984) proposed two broad dimensions to guide the analysis of bilingual conversations: participant-related and discourse-related code switching.

Participant-related code-switching refers to instances in which participants use the knowledge of the other parties' language skills to make decisions about their language alternation. This dimension of code-switching illuminates how bilinguals use their available linguistic resources to include or exclude participants in a conversation. For example, if there are three people in a conversation, and one of them is not bilingual, one of the bilingual participants may decide to exclude the monolingual participant by switching to the language that is unknown to this participant.

Discourse-related code-switching draws on the notion of contextualization cues (Gumperz, 1982) to conceptualize the discursive functions of language alternation. In monolingual conversations contextualization cues are resources such as intonation, rhythm, gesture and posture that participants use to signal their orientation to each other, organize their talk, and support the co-construction of meaning. In bilingual conversations language alternation is an additional resource to perform these conversational processes. For example, a participant may signal the introduction of a new topic by changing the language of interaction, or may signal lack of understanding by switching language in order to have their interlocutor convey the message in the other language.

Discourse Analysis (DA)

There are multiple approaches to DA in classroom contexts. In this dissertation DA informed the analysis of identity as discursive performance (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005; Gee, 2012; Harre & Lagehove, 1991). Identity is performed in discourse through particular word

and grammatical choices that index membership to particular communities. As discussed in chapter 1, these discursive choices are encompassed in a Discourse through which identity is performed. Discourse as an identity is written with capital “D” to distinguish it from discourse as talk, and is defined as “a socially accepted association among ways of using language and other symbolic expressions, of thinking, feeling, believing, valuing, and acting, as well as using various tools, technologies, or props that can be used to identify oneself as a member of a socially meaningful group or ‘social network’, to signal (that one is playing) a socially meaningful ‘role’ or to signal that one is filling a social niche in a distinctively recognizable fashion” (Gee, 2012, p. 158).

By engaging in translanguaging, bilinguals enact a Discourse that identifies them as members of a bilingual community (Canagarajah, 2011; Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Garcia, 2009; García & Leiva, 2014). Rather than a mental state, bilingualism is displayed in interaction by using two languages. This bilingual performance has been characterized as “doing being bilingual” (Auer, 1984; Zentella, 1997). Flexible language use in classroom contexts stresses individual agency, and the use of all available linguistic resources to perform these bilingual identities (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Duran & Palmer, 2014).

In addition to indexing belonging to a community, the study of identity as a discursive performance focuses on how identity is fluidly negotiated in interaction (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005; Harre & Lagehove, 1999). In their utterances, participants are not only providing information about the conversation topic, but also about the way they want to be recognized and the way they perceive their interlocutors. In this sense, during a conversation, participants negotiate different positionings for themselves and their

interlocutors. This is a dynamic and relational process through which fluid roles are adopted and assigned (Harre & Lagehove, 1999). These positionings range from adopting diverse roles (e.g. listener-speaker, questioner-respondent) (Zimmerman, 1998), to negotiating identities (e.g. expert, bilingual) in the interaction. In this sense, identity as a discursive performance is not an individual accomplishment, but rather achieved through negotiation in interaction with others.

CA and DA in the Current Study on Translanguaging Pedagogy

These two analytic frameworks provided the following tools to explore how translanguaging was performed in this study: participant and discourse related language alternation (Auer, 1984), IRF participation structures (Greeno, 2015; Mehan & Cazden, 2015), and identity as a discursive performance (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005; Gee, 2011; Harre & Lagehove, 1999). The participant and discourse related dimensions of language alternation guided the analysis of what participants were accomplishing in their interaction through their engagement in translanguaging moves. The IRF participation structures enabled a deeper analysis of the role of translanguaging in the way interaction was organized in these lesson cycles. Identity as a discursive performance oriented the analysis of the role of participants translanguaging moves in accomplishing their bilingual identities.

These analytic tools were lenses that helped focus the analysis of the role of translanguaging in the interactions and language learning that took place in these lesson cycles. Although an ethnomethodologically informed study is aimed at unpacking participants understandings of the interaction as performed in their conversation (Garfinkel, 1967), it is necessary to adopt specific lenses in order to focus the analysis on

the features that are relevant to this approach. Rather than imposing a predefined categorization, these lenses provide a theoretical context to situate the analysis.

Analytic Procedure

The above mentioned analytic techniques provided relevant conceptual lenses to answer the two research questions proposed for this study, and guided the design of the analytic procedure. As established in the introduction to this chapter, these were the research question guiding this study:

- What interactional work does translanguaging do during these lessons?
- How is translanguaging manifested in participants' talk about semantics, morphology, and syntax?

The lesson videos were the principal data source to address these questions, and this was complemented with audio-recordings to ensure that students' voices were fully captured. The design of the analytic procedure was also informed by Erickson's (2006) video analysis framework. This framework establishes an inductive process to address the video data, which starts with a bird's-eye view of the data, and gradually zooms in on interactional details. This involves multiple video viewings which enable the analyst to uncover the relevant interactional processes to analyze in the context of the study's research questions. In this study, this inductive process encompassed the following phases: preparing the data, defining the unit of analysis, characterizing translanguaging moves across transcripts, and taking a closer look at translanguaging moves. These phases were not followed linearly, but in an iterative process through which prior decisions and analyses were refined as the understanding of participants' translanguaging moves evolved.

Preparing the Data. This phase was aimed at gaining familiarity with the videos and achieving a written version of the discourse that took place in them. As mentioned before, the researcher also adopted a teacher role, since she taught the lesson cycles. After each lesson, she viewed the videos and took notes in the form of field notes. This activity enabled her to view the lessons from another perspective in which she was observing herself and her students as she taught. These field notes provided a description of the lesson as enacted. These field notes were expanded into longer more detailed descriptions of the videos in order to deepen the understanding of how English and Spanish were being used in these lessons by characterizing participants contributions in terms of their language choices.

These descriptions were useful to gain familiarity with the data, and review it in an open-minded manner to determine what would be worthwhile to analyze more deeply. However, there was too much information in the videos that distracted the attention from the research focus on translanguaging moves. In order to follow these translanguaging moves more closely, the researcher transcribed the videos word-by-word. The transcriptions created a text that more clearly conveyed participants' language choices. These texts were color-coded to make the use of Spanish and English in these lessons more explicit. The transcript excerpts illustrating the results are presented in two lines when participants used Spanish. The first line contains the Spanish version, which is presented in grey font, and the translation is presented below it. This translation is enclosed in quotations, and is written in black font in italics. When participants used English, the transcript is presented in only one line using black font. Figure 3.2 illustrates the color codes for each language and the translation conventions. Furthermore, this figure has

additional conventions, drawn from the conversation analysis approach (Jefferson, 2004), which reflect the interactional detail added to the transcript in the fourth phase of the data analysis. These are further explained in the section “Taking a closer look at translanguaging moves” and are presented in Table 3.4.

3.14.16 Introduction (8:40 – 8:55)	
1. JO:	Cómo:::?. (.) <i>escribes Honduras?</i> “How do you spell Honduras?”
2. T:	Honduras con H. “Honduras wit[h H.”
3. V:	[You don’t know that? ((looks at him in a surprised way))
4. (3.0)	
5. JO:	((To T)) Umju
6. T:	H o (.) n d (.) u (.) r (.) a s. (.) ☒

Figure 3.2. Example of Color-Coded Transcript Excerpt According to Language

Defining the Unit of Analysis. The unit of analysis was defined as a sequence encompassing a stretch of talk focused on a topic initiated by a participant’s question or comment, and including the different turns related to this question or comment. These topic-based sequences could contain one or more IRF sequences. The sequence as a unit of analysis enabled the characterization of the stretches of talk in the conversation, but it was also relevant to characterize participants’ language choices within their turns. The turn was used as an additional unit of analysis in order to characterize participants language choices (e.g. English or Spanish monolingual, or translanguaging), and achieve a more comprehensive portrayal of each participant’s contributions to the language ecology.

These units of analyses were defined after reading the video transcriptions several times to determine how the discourse could be segmented in relevant sequences that captured participants’ translanguaging moves. These initial transcript readings revealed that only focusing on the translanguaging moves would leave long stretches of monolingual

discourse unaccounted for. Although the focus was on the translanguaging moves, it was necessary to account for this monolingual discourse to provide a comprehensive characterization of the language practices in these lesson cycles. Figure 3.3 illustrates how the turn as a unit of analysis enabled the characterization of each participants language choice, while the sequence as the unit of analysis captured longer stretches of talk in which it was possible to situate particular translanguaging moves.

4.4.16 Cycle 1 Semantics Part 2 2:21 – 3:06	
1. T:	Joseph what do you remember from this poem?
2. JO:	It's about Jorge (.) he doesn't like his name (.) And one time a girl went outside she saw him and then she called him (0.2) [Jorge?] (.) Like something like that.
3. J:	[George]
4. JO:	Yeah, George↑
5. T:	But does Jorge doesn't like his name?
6. J:	[No]
7. JO:	[He] does not like it.
8. J:	The the name of George (.) but he likes his (.) likes his real name.
9.T:	He likes his real name. James, yes.
10.JA:	Yo recuerdo que dice acá (.) que (.) él no quiere ser un estornudo porque (.) no sabe su nombre en inglés↑ "I remember that it says here that he does not want to be a sneeze because he does not know his name in English"
11.T:	Aja "Umhu"
12.JA:	Es Chorg, Chorg "It is Chorg, Chorg"
13.JO:	[George]
14.T:	[No le gusta] porque no lo sabe pronunciar. [¿Y Y có cómo] le suena Chorg? ¿Cómo suena? "He doesn't like it because he does not know how to pronounce it. And and how does Chorg sound? How does it sound?"
15.JO:	[Pero a veces] "But sometimes"
16.JA:	Como un estornudo. "Like a sneeze"
17.T:	Como un estornudo. "Like a sneeze"
((the sequence continues in Spanish))	

} English sequence

} Spanish sequence

Figure 3.3. Example of Transcript Excerpt that Contains Stretches of Monolingual Discourse

As will be discussed in chapter 4, translanguaging could take place within a turn (intra-turn) or between turns (inter-turn). The excerpt presented in Figure 3.3 conveys a topic-based sequence divided in two subsequences. The first sub-sequence takes place in English and focuses on Joseph's response to the question that initiated the topic-based

sequence (“Joseph, what do you remember from this poem?”). The second subsequence started with an inter-turn translanguaging move in which James changed the language of interaction in order to contribute his response to this question in Spanish.

Characterizing Translanguaging Moves and Language Choices Across Transcripts. As illustrated in figure 3.3, the transcripts were parceled in sequences which were characterized as Spanish or English monolingual, or as bilingual. Bilingual sequences were further analyzed to determine what interactional work participants were doing with their translanguaging moves. Codes that indicated an interactional process (e.g. addressing participant, clarifying) were assigned to these sequences. Additionally, these translanguaging moves were associated to each participant in order to characterize how each person in the group engaged in these flexible language practices. Rather than establishing frequencies, this coding process sought to locate similar instances across transcripts in order to develop a more robust understanding of the role of translanguaging in the interactions taking place in these lessons.

This coding procedure was done in a qualitative analysis software that enabled quick retrieval of codes and sequences to which they were assigned in order to review and revise codes in light of new data. This was an iterative process in which new evidence enabled the critical consideration of prior analytic decisions regarding code assignment. When the lesson transcripts were all coded, the sequences were further reviewed to refine the codes and establish more encompassing categories. This analytic process yielded the analytic categories to characterize the role of translanguaging moves in participants’ interaction, and in their talk about semantics, morphology and syntax.

Taking a Closer Look at Translanguaging Moves. A set of illustrative sequences were selected to deepen the understanding of these translanguaging moves by adding more interactional detail. The transcriptions were expanded with the CA transcription conventions (Jefferson, 2004) relevant to the analysis of these translanguaging moves (See Table 3.4). These new transcriptions provided additional interactional evidence to expand and refine the analytic categories established in the initial analysis. These excerpts were interpreted and presented in two results chapters; one focused on the discursive dimension of translanguaging pedagogy, and the other focused on its instructional dimension.

Table 3.4. *CA Transcription Conventions*

Symbol	Meaning
[]	Overlapping talk
(0.0)	Length of silence in tenths of a second
(.)	Micropause less than 2/10 of a second
.	Falling intonation
?	Full rising intonation
!	Preceding talk was uttered loudly compared to its surrounding speech (it is not a grammatical marker)
::	Prolongation of the preceding sound
=	Contiguous utterances, no gap between turns
<u>Word</u>	Marked stress
(Word)	Transcriber's unsure hearing
()	Unintelligible talk to the transcriber
“Word”	Quieter than the surrounding talk
>word<	Speech delivery that is quicker than the surrounding talk
<word>	Speech delivery that is slower than the surrounding talk
↑	Marked rising shift in intonation

\$word\$	Smiley voice
((Word))	Transcriber's comment
[...]	Lines were taken out of the original conversation
<i>“Line in cursive below Spanish utterances”</i>	Translation to English of a Spanish utterance

Researcher Positionality

As has been discussed in this chapter, this study drew on different theoretical and methodological frameworks to focus the video analysis on aspects that were relevant to achieving a deeper understanding of the interactional processes taking place in the lesson cycles. In addition to these explicitly defined frameworks, it is pertinent to also be as explicit as possible in presenting relevant aspects of the researcher's intersecting identities (Cole, 2009; Crenshaw, 1991), since these influenced her interactions with her participating students, and her students' interactions with her. These intersecting identities influenced the interactions during the lesson cycles, that, is data collection, and throughout the video-analysis. This positionality statement seeks to provide a more complex understanding of this study's methodology by introducing the researcher/PhD candidate/teacher who did this work, and wrote this text (Bradbury Huang, 2010) and discussing how her positionality was deployed.

In contrast with the passive and third person voice adopted in this text, this section will shift to first person. The reflection on my positionality, has made me aware that my decision regarding voice in this text is not only a matter of style, but also reflects the ways in which I negotiated the different roles that I played in this study, and grappled with my developing identity as a scholar in the United States. In terms of the roles played in this

study, my decision regarding voice responded to my interest in detaching myself as much as possible from the teaching experience in order to gain an observer perspective on the video data. Impersonal discourse gives research its academic authority by establishing distance between the writer and the ideas and processes that are being presented (Schleppegrell, 2006). In writing this dissertation, this distance blurred the layered and complex relationships that were established with the participating students and with the video data (Charmaz, 2009; Reinharz, 1997). This distance is an idealization of all scientific research and, in this particular study, I am aware of how the data and interpretations for these studies were co-constructed through my various positionalities and roles assumed in this study. These different roles and the identity positions associated with them were a liability in some cases, and a strength in other cases as will be discussed in the rest of this section.

In terms of my identity, this work will officially ratify my entrance to the long-aspired Discourse (Gee, 2012) (i.e. identity) of education scholars. I chose to be apprenticed in this Discourse in a borrowed language and in a foreign country, thus making my process much more challenging. Although it was a voluntary choice, I also uncritically responded to expectations in my country in which the knowledge produced in the United States is considered more valuable. As a Colombian Spanish-English bilingual, I have worked hard to become passionate about relevant educational problems in the United States, and learn the Discourse that will make me a member of this community of scholars. At the same time, I have grappled with different questions regarding my language and identity in this country.

In this dissertation, I addressed an U.S. educational problem that was intrinsically connected to my own challenges doing my PhD studies in the U.S. My interest in designing and understanding instruction that enabled students to use all of their linguistic resources enabled me to use all of my linguistic resources in my research. With this research interest, I was addressing a challenge that I shared with my students. This shared challenge, in addition to our common linguistic and cultural background, provided a fruitful context to establish rapport with my students. Our Latin American roots united us as members of a Latino community in the U.S in which the ethnic borders defined in our countries of origin became more fluid (Flores & Garcia, 2014). However, I and the students who had recently arrived in the country, still wrestled with this Latino identity.

Identifying as a Latina has been part of my acculturation process, and I was able to observe some aspects of this process in Valentina, James, and Roberto. I have experienced this acculturation as a process of developing a more layered and complex identity. In my case, during my first years in the U.S. I described myself as Latin American, rather than Latina in order to distance myself from the U.S. Latino community. My identifications have shifted as I have gained more experiences in this country, and established relationships with the Latino community. In my students' case, I noticed that those who had recently arrived in the U.S. did not recognize their Latino peers' complex identities. When Joseph and Johanna, who had been born and grown up in the United States, positioned themselves as both UnitedStatesians and Salvadorians, the students who had recently arrived in the U.S. rejected this hybrid identity and instead established that they were from El Salvador. This view of their peers also reflected the view of themselves as nationals from other countries, which was also my case when I arrived here.

Our immigration status was another aspect related to our identities in the U.S. that influenced the way we positioned ourselves and each other during these lessons. In my case, I fluctuated between positioning myself as an immigrant or as a visitor to the U.S. These fluctuations reflect my current uncertainty regarding my future status in this country. In my teaching, these fluctuations positioned me as part of their group when I identified as an immigrant, and as an outsider when I said I was a visitor. Johanna, one my students, made a comment in one lesson, which revealed to me that the way I positioned myself regarding my immigration status influenced my students' perspectives. In her comment, she wanted to confirm whether I was an immigrant to present me as an example of someone who was able to maintain her Spanish, and also speak English. This comment made me aware that my students not only related to me as their language teacher, but also as a role model to affirm and develop their bilingual identities.

I was able to understand Johanna's comment regarding my immigration status after viewing the videos and reading the transcriptions multiple times. During the data analysis, I shifted between my teacher and researcher roles. I did not only see the aspects related to my research questions, but also became aware of missed teaching opportunities. In these missed teaching opportunities, I realized that despite my theoretical understandings of contemporary approaches to more fluid boundaries between nations and languages, there were diverse instances in which I established rigid boundaries inconsistent with these approaches. For example, when we discussed the word "citizen," we predominantly focused on its legal and territorial dimensions. It was disappointing to analyze that video and transcript segment since I realized that I alienated my recently arrived students. As I

reflect about this, I find that I projected my alienation on them, since I'm still working on figuring out how to be a citizen as an immigrant/foreigner in the U.S.

There were other instances in which I established the language boundaries that I was seeking to blur. Joseph typically sought opportunities to read in Spanish in order to practice his literacy in this language. I realized in the analysis, that although I granted him these opportunities sometimes, there were other instances in which I perpetuated monolingual ideologies by denying his request, and asking him to read in English. I allocated reading turns and languages, based on students' reading fluency, and privileged Spanish speaking students' preferences. In this sense, I would have Valentina, who usually avoided reading in English, read in Spanish, rather than giving that turn to Joseph who also wanted to read in Spanish, but could read in the following turn in English as well. My decisions during the lesson were focused on practical matters, but during the analysis I realized that I was not only administrating turns but also reifying language differences.

These experiences from different phases of this dissertation provide a sense of the different layers in my interaction with the study participants and the data for this study. In summary, my own process in enhancing my linguistic, cultural and ethnic identity in the U.S. shaped my interaction with my students in multiple and sometimes contradictory ways. In general, these experiences enabled the establishment of a close working relationship with them. However, there were also missed teaching and learning opportunities that only became evident during the close interpretive processes afforded by data analysis. My double role as a teacher and an analyst enabled me to become aware of these missed opportunities and to develop a more nuanced understanding of the complexity of promoting a flexible language environment and of negotiating the complexities of being

a teacher and a researcher in a classroom process. I became aware of the need to address my deeply ingrained beliefs regarding language, culture and identity that orient me toward establishing rigid boundaries, despite my interest in establishing more fluid and complex language practices in the classroom.

Chapter 4. The Discursive Dimension of Translanguaging Pedagogy:

Translanguaging as an Interactional Tool

As has been proposed in the prior chapters, the discursive dimension of translanguaging pedagogy encompasses the establishment of flexible language practices that encourage teachers and students to use their full linguistic repertoires in the teaching and learning process (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; García & Sylvan, 2011; Gort & Sembiente, 2015). This chapter addresses this discursive dimension by characterizing how participants used their available linguistic resources in their interactions during the lessons studied in this dissertation. In so doing it answers the first research question: What interactional work does translanguaging do during these lessons? Interactional work in the context of this research question means the strategic use of English and Spanish to organize interactions (i.e. managing turn-taking, including/excluding participants) during a conversation (Auer, 1984).

Two analyses were done to address this research question. The first one used the turn as the unit of analysis to characterize each individual's contribution to these lesson cycles' language ecology. The second one drew on conversation analysis (CA) and discourse analysis (DA) techniques to analyze conversation sequences in order to uncover how participants used English and Spanish strategically to locally manage their interaction (Garfinkel, 1967; Liddicoat, 2007).

This chapter is divided in two main sections. The first section focuses on the turn by turn analysis in order to characterize participants' language choices. This characterization is comprised by an analysis of the frequencies in which participants used the available languages in these lesson cycles, and a characterization of participant's translanguaging within their turns. The second section focuses on the sequential analysis in order to characterize how participants strategically used translanguaging in their interaction with each other. The two principal ways in which participants used translanguaging as an interactional tool during these lesson cycles are presented in this section. These ways are: (1) negotiating the language of interaction, and (2) performing bilingual identities.

Participants' Language Choices in the Context of Their Turns

The purpose of this first analysis was to obtain an overview of each participant's contribution to the language ecology that emerged in these lesson cycles. To achieve this their language choices were characterized by using the turn as the unit of analysis. Transcripts were color-coded to distinguish utterances in each language: English was coded black, and Spanish grey. If considered from a fluid understanding of language use in which bilinguals flexibly draw from all their linguistic resources without making linguistic distinctions (García, 2009), this approach to language classification may be considered an analytic imposition. However, this classification was warranted in this context, since participants used their languages distinctly.

Three ways of using language to participate in these lessons were identified: participates in Spanish, participates in English, and intra-turn translanguaging. Intra-turn translanguaging was defined as an instance in which a participant used both languages

within a turn. Each participant's contribution was coded according to these language choices. Figure 4.1 below presents the percentages in which each participant used these language choices in relation to the other participants.

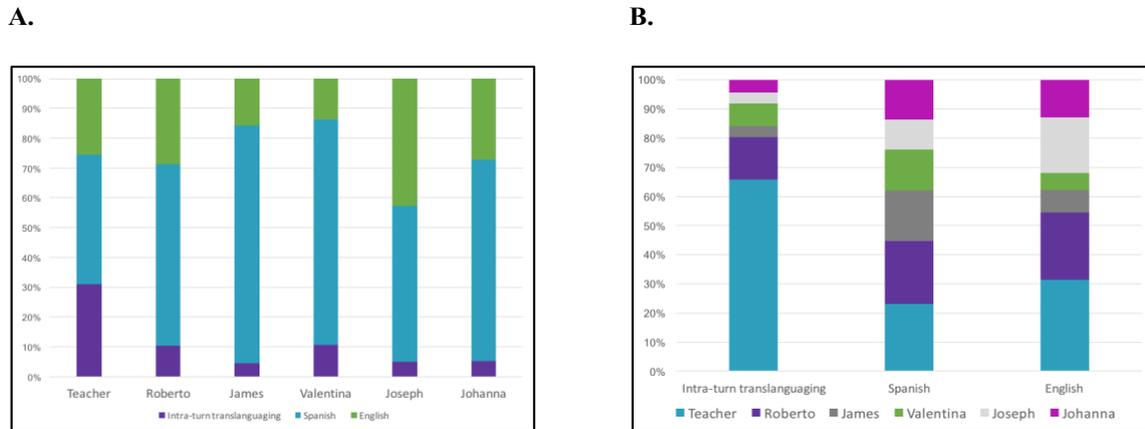


Figure 4.1. Participants' Language Choices

Figure 4.1A shows the relative frequency with which each participant used the available language choices (intra-turn translangauging, Spanish or English). It can be seen that Spanish was the language most frequently used by all participants in these lesson cycles. Translangauging was mostly used by the teacher, while in students its use was always marginal. Figure 4.1B shows the information presented in figure 4.1A grouped by language choice. It makes clear the teacher's predominant use of intra-turn translangauging, who was responsible for approximately two-thirds of the times this language choice was used, while the 5 students were responsible for the remaining third. Spanish use was more evenly distributed among participants. In regards to English, its use was dependent on speakers' bilingual development. For example, James and Valentina,

who were the students with less experience using English, rarely used English and mostly used Spanish. Roberto and Johanna used English and Spanish in a relatively balanced way, while Joseph used English twice as much as Spanish. In relation to students, the teacher used more English than Spanish.

Intra-Turn Translanguaging

The analysis of the turns in which participants alternated languages (i.e. intra-turn translanguaging) revealed two different approaches to using both languages within a turn: (1) use of borrowed terms, and (2) talk related to teaching and learning. In the first approach, participants inserted a lexical item from the other language in a monolingual sentence (Auer, 1984). In the second approach, the teacher engaged in intra-turn translanguaging to present content and instructions. There were also instances in which students used both languages within a turn to talk about the content that they were learning. While the first approach only served a referential function (Auer, 1984), the second approach reflected participants' strategic use of the available languages to accomplish teaching and learning. These two approaches to intra-turn translanguaging are characterized in the following sections.

Borrowing Terms. Participants in these lesson cycles typically borrowed academic terms from English to include in their Spanish utterances. In contrast, the insertion of Spanish terms in English utterances was not common. This finding is aligned with other studies that have also found that Spanish-English bilinguals rarely borrow from Spanish when using English (Menyuk & Brisk, 2005). The following excerpt illustrates the borrowing of English academic terms:

3.23.16 Immigration Vocabulary & Background Knowledge 13:18 – 13:31

1. T: Entonces es un (0.2) si fuera así[↑] es un cognate (.) ¿Se acuerdan? ¿Quién le puede explicar a a Joseph que es un cognate?
"Then it is, if that's the case, it is a cognate. Do you remember? Who can explain to Joseph what a cognate is?"
2. R: Cognate es cuando (0.2) una palabra en español rima en inglés (.) son como iguales
"Cognate is when a word in in Spanish rhymes in English, they are like the same."

?

Excerpt 4.1. Using the Term Cognate in a Spanish Utterance

The concept of *cognate* was introduced during the lesson from which Excerpt 4.1 was taken. Although, the teacher typically introduced concepts in both languages, she did not provide the Spanish term – “cognado” – for this concept. The term *cognate* was used throughout the lessons regardless of the language being spoken. In the above excerpt, the teacher’s micropause after the first time she used the term *cognate*, suggests that she was transitioning from responding to a student’s comment in the prior turn, to proposing a question to the group. The other two instances in which this term was used in this excerpt were not followed or preceded by pauses, thus suggesting that this term was fluidly integrated in the teacher’s and Roberto’s discourse. Other academic terminology, such as *paragraph*, *stanza*, or *glossary*, or terms taken directly from the texts (e.g. *sneeze*, *t-shirt*) were also fluidly included in Spanish utterances. However, in contrast with the term *cognate*, their Spanish counterparts (“párrafo”, “estrofa”, “glosario”, “estornudo”, “camiseta/playera”), were used in other instances, as well.

Borrowing academic terminology from English to include in Spanish utterances reflects participants’ greater familiarity with these words in English, since this was the language in which they were being socialized in their schools. There were also instances

in which non-specialized words such as *okay*, *maybe*, and *so* were included in Spanish sentences. For example, the teacher used *okay* in many of her utterances regardless of the language she was speaking. Some of the instances in which Valentina, who was just starting to learn English, engaged in intra-turn translanguaging were to include the word *maybe* in her Spanish utterances, as illustrated in Excerpt 4.2 taken from a discussion about the regional word “troca” (*truck*):

4.25.16 Cycle 1 Semantics Part 4 12:05 - 12:12	
1.JA:	[No es <u>troca</u> ↑] “No, it is <i>troca</i> ”
2.V:	[Maybe en]El Salvador “ <i>Maybe in El Salvador</i> ”
3.R:	[Es camión] maybe en El Salvador [le dicen] así “ <i>Its truck maybe in El Salvador they call it that way</i> ”
?	

Excerpt 4.2. Using the Term Maybe in a Spanish Utterance

In this excerpt from a longer discussion about whether the term “troca” was a word or not, Valentina interrupted James, and overlapped with Roberto, to suggest a solution for this discussion. She initiated her turn hedging her suggestion with the English word *maybe*, and then continued her turn in Spanish, but yielded the floor to Roberto. Roberto, tied his turn to Valentina’s by echoing what she had said, and completing the idea. As in Excerpt 4.1, the borrowed term was introduced in the utterance without any pauses, thus suggesting that it was fluidly integrated in participants’ discourse. This example, illustrates the typical way in which Valentina hedged her contributions using the English term *maybe*, and then continued in Spanish.

As has been illustrated in the above examples, borrowings were fluidly inserted in a monolingual turn. These borrowings evidence how bilinguals seamlessly use their entire

linguistic repertoire in their communication (García, 2009). However, as discussed in the above section, participants, with the exception of the teacher, typically engaged in monolingual discourse, thus evidencing that fluid language use in the context of these lessons was the exception, rather than the norm. Furthermore, intra-turn translanguaging was more frequently used strategically to achieve particular instructional and interactional purposes, as is discussed in the next section.

Talk Related to Teaching and Learning. As discussed before, the teacher was the participant who most frequently engaged in intra-turn translanguaging. She alternated between English and Spanish in her turns to present content and instructions in both languages as illustrated in Excerpt 4.3.

<p>A. 5.2.16 Cycle 1 Morphology Part 1 17:05 – 17:10 1. T: Morfología (.) study of words (.) es el estudio de las palabras. <i>"Morphology, study of words, it is the study of words"</i></p> <p>B. 5.13.16 Cycle 1 Syntax Part 2 & Dialogic Reasoning 17:17 1. T: Bueno niños entonces la pregunta que la había leído (.) la había leído::: (.) ehh Joseph es (.) Should Jorge change his identity to fit in his school? (.) Debería Jorge cambiar su identidad para encajar en su escuela? <i>"Okay kids, so the question, that Joseph had read, is: Should Jorge change his identity to fit in his school? Should Jorge change his identity to fit in his school?"</i></p> <p>C. 6.6.16 Cycle 2 Semantics Part 2 1:58 – 2:09 1. T: To express a <u>choice</u>[↑] in a group decision (.) right? (0.2) Entonces (.) cuando uno vota está <u>escogiendo algo</u>[↑] en una decisión en grupo <i>"To express a choice in a group decision, right? So, when one votes, one is choosing something in a group decision."</i></p> <p>D. 10.28.16 Cycle 2 Syntax 24:37 – 24:44 1. T: Entonces tienen que pensar a que a <u>quién se refiere el pronombre</u>[↑] (.) Who (.) who is the referent[↑] okay? <i>"So you have to think who does the pronoun refer to."</i></p> <p>?</p>

Excerpt 4.3. Teacher's intra-turn translanguaging to present content and instructions

Example 4.4A was taken from a morphology review in which different examples of words with suffixes -ful and -less were presented. During this presentation students made comments as the teacher showed the examples in a PowerPoint presentation. In this particular turn, Roberto commented on the presentation by parsing the word *beautiful* in its base and suffix, and translating each part to Spanish. His translanguaging was prompted by exposing him to the language content in both languages. His intervention evidences how he was engaging his full linguistic repertoire to display his understanding of this morphology lesson.

Example 4.4B was taken from a PowerPoint presentation in which verb conjugations were presented in English and Spanish to illustrate that in Spanish, verb conjugations vary for each person thus providing information about the referent, while in English there is less variability in the conjugation making it more difficult to infer the referent. In this example, Valentina demonstrated her understanding of this idea by saying it in her own words. She talked about the English language in Spanish, but used the word she was referring to in English – *went*. Roberto overlapped with her to further elaborate her comment, by explaining that this was also the case for the present tense of the verb – *go*. He introduced his explanation in Spanish, and then used English to present the verb.

These examples illustrate two ways in which students engaged in intra-turn translanguaging to discuss the content being taught. Example 4.4A conveys how the availability of both languages gave students the opportunity to use their full linguistic repertoire to display their understandings of new concepts. Example 4.4B shows how linguistic structures from the English language were discussed in Spanish. In this case, English became an object that students examined and manipulated in their home language.

Chapter 5, focused on the instructional dimension of translanguaging pedagogy, will further elaborate the ideas presented in this section.

Distinct and Shared Linguistic Resources

Two conclusions may be derived from the analysis of participants' language use in their turns. The first conclusion is that language choices in this flexible language ecology can be characterized in a continuum ranging from monolingual Spanish use to monolingual English use, with translanguaging practices situated in the middle. This finding is in contrast with the research that has established that translanguaging is the normal mode of communication among bilingual students in their classrooms (Creese & Blackledge, 2010, 2011; Durán & Palmer, 2014; García et al, 2011). This contrasting finding may be explained by the fact that bilinguals make pragmatic language choices according to the context in which they are situated, and to their perceived language proficiency. In a flexible language ecology where language choice is promoted, students will use the language of their preference, and do not have the need to use the other language or engage in translanguaging. In contrast, in a language ecology in which there is an established medium of instruction (i.e. English), students will carve out opportunities to use their home language and engage in translanguaging (Blair, 2016; Durán & Palmer, 2014; Esquinca, Araujo, & de la Piedra, 2014; Link, 2011; Soltero-Gonzalez, 2009). In both cases, bilingual students are choosing the language that enables them to communicate more fluently. In these two contexts, students exercise their agency to achieve their interactional purposes. However, monolingual classroom contexts in which students' home languages are not acknowledged, may also prompt students to only use the sanctioned language in the

classroom, and never engage in translanguaging practices, even if by doing this their opportunities to participate are reduced.

The second conclusion is that participants' language use evidenced that they used their languages distinctly. This distinct use contrasts with the claim that bilinguals have a single undifferentiated linguistic repertoire (García, 2009; García & Wei, 2014). As mentioned in chapter 2, translanguaging theory has sought to distinguish its approach to bilinguals' language practices from the prior literature on code-switching by establishing that bilinguals do not establish language distinctions. According to translanguaging theory, these distinctions are made by the analyst who is using an external lens to classify the user's words in discrete languages (Canagarajah, 2009; García, 2009). As was discussed on the section on intra-turn translanguaging, this fluid use was one of the ways in which these bilinguals used their linguistic resources. Additionally, as has been illustrated throughout this characterization of participants' language choices, there were also instances in which these bilinguals differentiated their languages by choosing to speak one or the other language. Furthermore, their awareness of having two distinct languages was evidenced in the strategic use of translanguaging. In this sense, rather than an undifferentiated linguistic repertoire, these bilinguals' language practices evidenced that they both had discrete and shared linguistic resources, which enabled them to select to use one single language or alternate between them depending on the context or situation (MacSwan, 2017).

These students' distinct language uses may also be explained in relation to their language socialization experiences (Brisk, Burgos, & Hamerla, 2004). Students raised in a context, such as New York City, in which Puerto Rican immigrant-origin communities have long established translanguaging practices (Flores & García, 2014; García & Leiva,

2014; Zentella, 1997), or in the U.S.-Mexico border (Esquinca et al. 2014; Sayer, 2013) would have probably translanguage frequently during these lesson cycles since these are the language practices in which they have been socialized. In contrast, three of the students who participated in these lessons had recently arrived in the United States and had been socialized in Spanish-monolingual language practices in their home countries. The other students were born in the US, and unfortunately there is no information about how their families used Spanish and English in their homes. However, as described in chapter 3, Spanish is a dominant language in their neighborhood suggesting that monolingual Spanish discourse is a typical practice among its population.

Participants' Translanguaging in the Context of the Conversation

This section situates participants' individual turns in the context of the conversations that took place during these lesson cycles. The sequence, defined as a stretch of talk focused on a topic initiated by a participant' question or comment, and including the different turns related to this question or comment, was used as the unit of analysis. These topic-based sequences normally contained different variations of the Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) sequence through which different participation structures were established (Greeno, 2015; Mehan & Cazden, 2015). These participation structures were used to characterize the topic-based sequences in which this analysis was based. The meaning of language alternation in these sequences was interpreted taking into account the language choice in the preceding and following turns (Auer, 1984; Wei, 1998).

The analysis of conversation sequences revealed that the typical way of alternating languages during these lesson cycles was between turns. This approach to language alternation in which each participant selected a different language from the one used in the

prior turn was characterized as inter-turn translanguaging. The meaning of the instances of inter-turn translanguaging was unpacked by following the sequential development of the interactions that took place before and after the language alternation. As a result of this analysis, two interactional processes in which participants strategically engaged in translanguaging were identified: (1) negotiating the language of interaction, and (2) performing bilingualism. Table 4.1 presents an overview of the interactional processes and their associated processes.

Table 4.1. *Translanguaging as an Interactional Tool*

Interactional Processes	Associated Processes	Definition
Negotiating the language of interaction		Strategic translanguaging aimed at changing the language of interaction to achieve own or other's inclusion in the conversation
	Linguistic accommodation	Process by which the teacher changed the language of interaction to ensure students' inclusion in the conversation.
	Gaining the floor	Process by which participants (teacher or students) changed the language of interaction to open a space for themselves in the conversation.
	Repair initiation	Process by which students with less experience in English manifested that communication had broken for them, and prompted their interlocutor to change the language of interaction to Spanish.
Bilingual performance moves		Students' strategic translanguaging aimed at enacting their bilingual identities.

“Doing being bilingual”	Students’ strategic translanguaging to assert their bilingualism by displaying their ability to speak two languages.
Translation	Display of bilingual skills through engagement in performances such as interpreting for peers or joint translation.
Positioning in the language expert-learner continuum	Display of language expertise in dominant language (Spanish) by correcting less expert peers’ language mistakes.

Negotiating the Language of Interaction

When participants in a conversation have diverging language preferences they engage in language negotiation sequences in which each participant ascribes to their individualistic preferences for one language or the other (Auer, 1984). In these lesson cycles, translanguaging was typically used to negotiate the language of interaction. In this negotiation process participants strategically alternated languages to ensure inclusion in the conversation. Since participants had different language preferences, the language of interaction was renegotiated throughout the conversation. Two approaches to negotiating the language of interaction that have been identified in the extant literature, were identified in this language corpus: (1) linguistic accommodation, and (2) repair initiation. The following sections characterize these two approaches.

Linguistic Accommodation. This theory establishes that bilinguals make audience-oriented language choices to establish solidarity and alignment with their audience (Myers-Scotton, 2006). The interactions observed in these lesson cycles, informed a different way in which bilinguals engage in linguistic accommodation. In the context of this study,

linguistic accommodation was defined as the process by which participants in a language negotiation sequence chose the language that would ensure other participants' inclusion in the conversation. Linguistic accommodation was mainly observed in the teacher. She used it as tool to ensure that all students were included in the conversation, and that they could actively participate in the learning process. Her approach to linguistic accommodation is consistent with current research findings on translanguaging practices in classroom contexts, which have established that bilingual teachers accommodate their language choices to their students' preferences to support and sustain student participation (Gort & Sembiente, 2013).

In these lesson cycles, the teacher accomplished linguistic accommodation in two ways: (1) addressing participant, and (2) following language choices. These two approaches were located in different parts of the IRF sequence. Addressing participant was located in the initiation-turn of the IRF sequence. In this approach to linguistic accommodation, the teacher changed the language of interaction to direct a comment or question to a student in their preferred language. In this sense, she used the knowledge of her students' language skills and preferences to select a language of interaction that would enable them to effectively participate in the conversation. Following language choices was located in the evaluation/comment-turn of the IRF sequence. In this case, the teacher used the language that the student had used in the response-turn to evaluate or comment their response.

Excerpt 4.5 presents a language negotiation sequence that illustrates how the teacher engaged in linguistic accommodation by addressing participants in their preferred language. This excerpt was taken from an activating background knowledge activity prior

to introducing the *My Name is Jorge* (Medina, 1999), which was the text read in cycle 1. This excerpt presents a topic-based sequence in which students responded to the teacher's open-ended initiation about how it felt to move to another place. This topic-based sequence may be divided in three expanded IRF sub-sequences.

The teacher initiated the first sub-sequence in English, and there were a series of student answers and teacher comments to these responses in English between turns 2 and 14. During these turns only Johanna and Joseph participated. In turn 14, the teacher engaged in intra-turn translanguaging to acknowledge Joseph's comment in English, and then re-initiated the sequence in Spanish. In this way, she accommodated her discourse to address the other three students who had recently arrived in the U.S. in Spanish, and also changed the language of interaction. In this second sub-sequence, students were hesitant to participate as illustrated in their brief responses, and the 2 second pause in line 20. In turn 21, the teacher initiated a third sub-sequence in Spanish in which she asked students to explain why it felt bad to move to another country. The overlapping talk during this third sub-sequence indicates that students were much more engaged in this question. This excerpt also illustrates how the teacher engaged in linguistic accommodation by following her students' language choices. In this sense, during the first sub-sequence, she commented her students' responses in English, while in the second and third sub-sequences she used Spanish to respond to her students.

3.28.16 Cycle 1 Semantics Part 1 00:24 - 1:14

1. T: So let's think about moving to other places. (.) How does it feel to move to another place?
2. J: It feels wee weird because you don't know how how like how how is it here you know.
3. T: Ok it's weird because you don't know the people (.) and (.) the customs every[thing].
4. JO: [I
5. T: ((To JO)) Okay
6. JO: For me it's not weird. (.)
7. T: Aja
8. JO: Cause my whole entire family lives in one apartment.
9. (2.0)
10. T: AAh↑
11. JO: [Like my like the]
12. T: [Okay (.) So you] are (.) close to all your (.) relatives.
13. JO: Umju
14. M: Right. And (.) James Valentina Roberto (0.4) Cambiarse de casa o cambiarse de país (.) cómo se siente?
"Changing home or countries, how does it feel?"
15. R: [Um
16. JA: [Um
17. V: [Mal
"Bad"
18. T: Mal?
"Bad?"
19. JA: Un poco mal
"A bit bad"
20. (2.0)
21. T: ¿Por qué?
"Why?"
22. R: [Por
"Be"
23. JA: [Por]que llega]
"Because one comes"
24. V: [Porque uno n]o conoce a nadie.
"Because one doesn't know anyone"
25. T: Ok. [No conoce a nadie]
"Doesn't know anyone."
26. JA: [Acá uno no conoce] a nadie↓ [Las amistades]
"One doesn't know anyone here. Friends"
27. R: [Porque va a dejar] sus amigos y se va para otro lado
"Because you will leave your friends and go somewhere else"

?

Excerpt 4.2. Teacher addressing students in their preferred language

In the above excerpt, the teacher presented an English-only prompt in the first turn, and she re-initiated the sequence in Spanish in turn 14 by addressing the students who had not participated, yet. Excerpt 4.6 is from a discussion after reading the poem "Why am I

Dumb?!/ *¿Por qué soy tonto?*” (Medina, 1999), presents a sequence in which the teacher engaged in intra-turn translanguaging to present the prompt in both languages. This excerpt provides further evidence of how she followed students’ language choices during the discussion.

This excerpt presents a topic-based sequence in which students discussed whether Jorge, the character in the poem, was dumb. In the first turn in this sequence the teacher engaged in intra-turn translanguaging to initiate the conversation by presenting the discussion question in both languages. This initiation was followed by Johanna’s response in Spanish, which was not commented by the teacher. Instead she waited for more student responses. James echoed Johanna’s response, and in the meantime Joseph was looking at his copies and non-verbally agreeing with his peers by shaking his head.

4.4.16 Cycle 1 Semantics Part 2 8:22 - 9:26

1. T: Okay. (0.2) So (0.2) is Jorge (0.2) dumb? (0.2) ¿Jorge es tonto?
"Is Jorge dumb?"
2. J: No↑
"No"
3. (0.2)
4. JA: No
"No"
5. JO: ((Is looking at his copies and shakes his head))
6. T: ¿Qué creen? (.) ¿Por qué?
"What do you think? Why?"
7. JA: [Porque:::]
"Because"
8. J: [No porque] está estudiando=
"No because he is studying"
9. JO: =Cause he gets lots of te::ns↑
10. JA: ((Is raising his hand))
11. T: Where where did he get tens?
12. JO: In ma::th
13. T: He gets 10's in math? (.) Okay.
14. JA: ((Is raising his hand))
15. T: ((Nods at James))
16. JO: Sometimes in rea::ding someti::mes
17. T: Eh (.) James
18. JA: Él dice que es así porque [él,]
"He says he is like that because he"
19. JO: [Así?] ((Looking at copies))
"Like that?"
20. JA: él, él, él (0.4) eh él no sabe inglés
"he, he, he, eh he does not know English"
21. JO: ((Looking at copies)) ["dónde dice?"]
"Where does it say?"
22. JA: [y le cuesta mu]cho aprender (.) y
por eso él saca malas notas y esas cosas así=
"And it is very difficult for him to learn and that is why he gets bad grades and things like that"
23. J: =Como usted
"Like you"
24. JA: Como yo que yo por veces \$saco malas notas\$ (.)
"Like me that sometimes I get bad grades"
25. J: ((Laughs))
26. T: ((Smiles))
27. JA: porque no sé inglés (.) tampoco mi mamá (0.2) ni mi padraastro↑ (.)
"because I don't know English, nor my mom, nor my stepdad"
28. T: Aja
"Yeah"
29. JA: ni mi hermano.
"nor my brother"
30. T: Okay
- ☐

31.J:	Nadie "Nobody"
32.JA:	Nadie sabe inglés (.)bueno saben un poco[(.)pero no mucho. "Nobody knows English, well they know a little, but not much"
33.T:	[Un poquito. Están <u>aprendiendo</u> "A little. They are learning."
33.JA:	Sí "Yes"
34.T:	Tú vas a aprender inglés. "You are going to learn English."
35.JA:	Y por eso él piensa que él es (.) <u>tonto</u> . "And that is why he thinks he is dumb"
?	

Excerpt 4.3. Following language choices

In line 6, the teacher initiated a sub-sequence in which she used Spanish to ask students to explain their answer. Her choice of Spanish reflects that she was following Johanna and James' language choice in the prior turns. James and Johanna used Spanish in lines 7 and 8 to respond the question, while, in line 9, Joseph latched with Johanna's turn to present his explanation in English. His latching suggests his fluid movement to English to contribute his response to a question that had been presented in Spanish. The teacher followed Joseph's language choices by using English in her interactions with him during the ensuing turns.

In line 17, she gave the floor to James, who contributed his response in Spanish in turn 18. With this contribution, he changed the language of interaction, and started a new sub-sequence in which he connected the character's experience with his own experience learning English. Joseph engaged in overlapping talk with James in Spanish in turns 19 and 21 to ask him for textual evidence for his claim about the character feeling dumb because he didn't speak English. James disregarded Joseph's evidence request and continued explaining in turn 22 that the character had difficulties learning English, and those

difficulties caused his bad grades. Johanna gained the floor by latching in turn 23 to comment that James had similar difficulties. James agreed with this comment by presenting his and his family's experience learning English. The teacher used Spanish to acknowledge his experience in the ensuing turns, and to reaffirm him by telling that he would learn English. James concluded his narrative in turn 35 by reiterating the connection between the character's experience and his own.

In contrast with excerpt 4.5, in which the teacher initially presented the prompt in English-only, in excerpt 4.6 she engaged in intra-translanguaging to present the prompt. This opened the floor for all students to make their contributions. In this sense, rather than a repetitive translation practice, presenting instructions in both languages, promoted everyone's participation in the discussion.

The above excerpts illustrate how participants changed the language of interaction by engaging in language negotiation sequences. There were other instances in which the language of interaction was not changed, but rather each participant used the language of their preference in their turns giving way to a bilingual sequence. Excerpt 4.7 conveys a bilingual sequence in which each student used the language of their preference, and the teacher followed their language choices. This excerpt was taken from a cycle 1 vocabulary lesson in which the polysemy of the word *turn* was discussed.

3.28.16 Cycle 1 Semantics Part 1 15:53 - 16:44

This panda did not wait for his turn on the slide



1. T: And look at this↑What ha what's happening here?!
2. R: Ayayai↑[ay↑ se tumbó↑ Ayayai]
"Ayayai, ay, it fell, ayayai"
3. JO: [Oh↑ a <panda> \$that's a] teddy bear slid down
and [hit another] panda\$
4. R: [Se pegó]
5. T: \$So the they are not waiting for their turn\$ [Right?] (0.2)
To slide.
6. JA: [Panda]
7. JA: [Era el turno de él↑]
"It was his turn"
8. JO: [Are they real pandas? Or teddy bears?]
9. JA: [Era el turno de él y por eso se tiró]
"It was his turn and that's why he threw himself"
- 10.T: [I don't know↑\$I found this in YouTube\$] I I think they're
real pandas.
- 11.R: [((Laughs))]
- 12.T: That's very funny isn't it?
- 13.JA: [Era el turno de él↑]
"It was his turn"
- 14.R: [((Laughs))]
- 15.T: Era el turno y no y no esperó↑ (.) entonces le pegó al
otro. (.) Cierto?
"It was his turn and he didn't wait so he hit the
other one. Right?"

?

Excerpt 4.7. Following language choices in a bilingual sequence

In this excerpt, the teacher used English to initiate a topic-based sequence in which she asked students to describe what was happening in an animation presented in the slide. In turns 2 and 3, Roberto and Joseph engaged in overlapping talk in Spanish and English respectively. Roberto yielded the floor to Joseph, but then overlapped with him again in turn 4. In this overlap, he rendered Joseph's comment "hitted [sic] another panda]" in

Spanish: “se pegó.” In turn 5, the teacher used English to summarize Roberto and Joseph’s comments. James attempted to gain the floor, as illustrated in line 6, and then James and Joseph overlapped in turns 7, 8, and 9, each using a different language (Spanish and English, respectively). The teacher responded to their comments following their language choices, thus using English to respond to Joseph in turn 10, and Spanish to acknowledge James’ comment in turn 15.

In summary, the linguistic accommodation moves discussed in this section (i.e. addressing participants, and following language choices) enabled the teacher to scaffold instruction for a group with heterogeneous language proficiencies. It has also been found in other studies that bilingual teachers who are responsive to their students’ language skills and preferences use similar translanguaging moves (Durán & Palmer, 2013; Gort & Sembiante, 2015). Through such moves teachers involve and give voice to students (García & Leiva, 2014).

Gaining the floor. Excerpt 4.8 illustrates another way in which students and the teacher used translanguaging to negotiate language of interaction and, in this case, gain the floor. Excerpt 4.8 is an abbreviated segment from a vocabulary lesson in cycle 1 in which the teacher was introducing target words related to immigration using a PowerPoint presentation. Before the first turn in this excerpt, the teacher had asked students for their prior knowledge of the target word *culture*, and students had shared their ideas in English and Spanish.

3.23.16 Immigration Vocabulary & Background Knowledge 10:17 - 12:07	
1. T:	Okay. Here we see other examples↑ Things that a (.) group of people (.) <u>agree about</u> (.) and do together. Right? (.) The <u>language</u> (.) as eh (.) Johanna [said (.) celebrations]
2. R:	[Yo en Colombia fui a]una cultura (.) a una caminata por Colombia (.) en caballo (.) iban en caballo "In Colombia I went to a culture. To a walk in Colombia on horses, we went on horses"
3. T:	A caballo "On horses"
4. R:	Yo sabía manejar caballo. "I knew how to ride horses"
5. T:	Ohh↑ (.) Las cabalgatas[son muy (.) importantes en Colombia] "Ohh, riding horses is very important in Colombia"
6. JA:	[Uy yo también (.)Había] un parque que se llamaba Los Planes. "Uy me, too. There was a park called Los Planes"
[...]	
30. R:	Yo aprendí a montar caballo (.) detrás de de mi papa que lo manejaba. Y eso le cansaba la barriga (.) porque uno era brincando [brincando] le dolía la barriga "I learned riding behind my dad who handled the horse. That tired your belly because one jumped jumped you got a belly ache."
31. T:	[Umju]
32. JA:	[Sí y y y] "Yes, and and"
31. T:	[Okay. So] riding horses is part of Colombian culture right? And also in El Salvador there is also a lot of riding horseback riding (.) right? (0.1) Okay. Another word that we learned last time was <u>bilingual</u> right?
?	

Excerpt 4.4. Gaining the floor

This excerpt starts with the teacher's transition from a student-centered exploration of this word, to a teacher-centered presentation in English of the PowerPoint slide that contained examples illustrating the concept of culture and its definition. While the teacher was showing images in the power point slide and relating them to what students had said before, Roberto overlapped with her in Spanish to present an example of Colombian culture: "cabalgatas" (horseback riding), and narrate his experiences in this cultural event. With this intervention, he started a sequence in Spanish about riding horses in which students were in control of the conversation. In turn 5 the teacher validated Roberto's

deviation from her formal presentation, by using Spanish to agree that “cabalgatas” were part of Colombian culture. In the ensuing turns James established that horseback riding was also a cultural practice in El Salvador, while Johanna doubted this, since she hadn’t been in any “cabalgatas” in the different times she had visited this country. After students had shared their experiences for a while, the teacher overlapped with James to regain the floor, and closed the Spanish sequence by using English to connect the students’ discussion with the vocabulary lesson and introduce another vocabulary word.

Excerpt 4.8 illustrates how participants used inter-turn translanguaging to negotiate the language of interaction to achieve their particular purposes in the conversation. On one hand, students engaged in inter-turn translanguaging to share their experiences and perspectives in the language that they felt most comfortable using, while, on the other hand, the teacher used it to regain the floor and move the instruction forward. In this particular example sharing an experience about “cabalgatas” in English would have been challenging for students in that moment of their English development. The option to use Spanish enabled Roberto to show the teacher that he understood the meaning of culture, and bring his funds of knowledge to the session (González, Moll, & Amanti, 2005). Furthermore, James and Johanna also had the chance to deepen the understanding of this concept by contributing their experiences to this sequence initiated by Roberto.

In the teacher’s case, inter-translanguaging, in contexts in which she was gaining the floor, typically took place from Spanish to English. Through this move she would let the students know that it was time to focus on the instruction. The directionality of the teacher’s gaining the floor move could suggest that she was giving particular functions to each language: Spanish for sharing personal experiences, and English for teaching new

content. Although this was the case in this move, a whole picture of her instruction encompassing her other translanguaging moves suggests that she used both languages flexibly in her instruction. In this sense, she was not attributing a particular function to each language.

Repair Initiation. There were some instances in which communication broke for James and Valentina, who were the students with less experience using English in this group. When communication breaks, conversationalists engage in repair moves that prompt a revision of what was said. In the context of conversation analysis, repair is defined as a set of actions through which problems in speaking, hearing or understanding talk are addressed (Schegloff, 1992; Schegloff, Jefferson & Sacks, 1977). Among other aspects these problems include: misarticulations, unavailability of a word when needed, and trouble in the part of the recipient in understanding. Repair is used to restore a common understanding, and ensure that the turn or sequence continues (Schegloff, 2007).

Episodes of repair activity are composed of two parts: repair initiation, which mark the possible communication break in the immediately preceding talk, and repair outcome, which refer to the solution or abandonment of the problem (Schegloff, 1992). The organization of a repair initiation is shaped by two aspects: who initiates it, and where it is initiated (Schegloff, 1992). In terms of the first aspect, repair can be self-initiated by the speaker of the problematic talk (self-initiation), or by anyone else (other-initiation). The second aspect considers whether repair is launched in the same turn of the trouble-source or in the following turn.

The instances in which communication broke for the students who had less experience using English were made evident in their engagement in other-initiated repairs

in the turn following an English-only utterance. Their repair initiations convey another way in which participants engaged in translanguaging to renegotiate the language of interaction. Excerpt 4.9 presents two examples that illustrate how James and Valentina used this interactional resource. The first example took place while the group was reading the book *Yes, We Can!* (Cohen, 2002) during the second lesson of cycle 2. The second example was taken from a later cycle 2 lesson in which this same book was being reviewed.

- A.**
6.6.16 Cycle 2 Semantics Part 2 20:18 – 20:31
1. T: Okay (.) So how long did the strike last?
 2. R: Ah↑ three weeks
 3. T: Three weeks (.) right?
 4. R: [Tres semanas
"Three weeks"]
 5. J: [Yeah↑ three weeks]
 6. R: [Tres semanas ↑ (.)] tres] semanas (.) tres semanas
"Three weeks, three weeks, three weeks"
 7. JA: [No entendí la pregunta?]
"I didn't understand the question?"
 8. T: ¿Cuánto duró la huelga?
"How long did the strike last?"
 9. J: ((Directing gaze at JA)) Tres↑
"Three"
 10. R: ((Directing gaze at JA)) [Tres semanas]
"Three weeks"
 11. J: ((Directing gaze at JA)) [Tres semanas]
"Three weeks"
 12. T: ((Pointing at a line JA's book and reading it)) Después de tres largas semanas
"After three long weeks."
- B.**
10.19.16 Cycle 2 Dialogic Reasoning 6:26 – 6:41
1. T: Okay (.) so the general (.) the question that I have for you↑ La pregunta que les tengo es (0.2) was their protest (.) successful?
"The question that I have for you is"
 2. R: Yeah
 3. V: ¿Qué?
"What?"
 4. JA: I don't understand
 5. T: Fue la protesta (.) [la protesta fue exitosa?]
"Was the protest, the protest was successful?"
 6. R: [La protesta fue buena?]
"The protest was good?"
 7. V: Sí! fue buena
"Yes, it was good"
 8. J: ((Nods))
 9. T: Les les funcionó protestar.
"It worked for them to protest"
- ?

Excerpt 4.5. Initiating repair by expressing lack of understanding

In example 4.9A, the teacher initiated an IRF sequence by presenting a comprehension check question in English. This question was especially relevant to Johanna and Roberto, because they were wondering earlier in the reading about the duration of the janitor strike. Roberto used English in the next turn to establish that it lasted three weeks,

and this was followed by the teacher's feedback also in English. After this, there were four overlapping turns in which: 1) Roberto recasted and reiterated his answer in Spanish (turns 4 and 6 respectively); 2) Johanna used English to express her agreement with this response (turn 5); and 3) James used Spanish to establish that he had not understood the question (turn 7). The teacher's translation in turn 8 indicates that she interpreted James' lack of understanding as an issue related to the language she had used to present the question, rather than a reading comprehension problem. In this sense, the teacher repaired her talk from turn 1 by translating the IRF initiation question to Spanish. However, James' absence of response in the following turns, prompted the teacher to address a possible reading comprehension issue by showing him the line in the book where the answer to the question was located.

Example 4.9B was excerpted from the end of a review session in which the teacher had guided the students to consider evidence from *Yes, We Can!* (Cohen, 2002) to determine whether the janitor strike had been successful or not. In this excerpt, she engaged in inter-turn translanguaging to initiate an IRF sequence, which sought to gauge the group's understanding by repeating the question that had guided the review ("Was the strike successful?"). In this initiation turn she used both languages to announce that she was going to ask a question, but then she only presented it in English. This initiation was followed by Roberto's affirmative response in English. In the next two turns both Valentina and James initiated a repair that led the teacher to translate the question in turn 5. The teacher paused in her translation, and Roberto overlapped with her to contribute his own translation. In contrast with the prior example, in this case the outcome of the repair was positive as indicated in the following two turns in which Valentina and James contributed their

response in Spanish. In turn 9, the teacher used Spanish to close the sequence by restating the students' answers in a complete sentence.

The two examples presented in excerpt 4.9 illustrate how repair initiations were used as mechanisms through which the language of interaction was re-negotiated. In these examples, the students who had less experience using English suggested the need to change language by expressing their lack of understanding of the prompt that had initiated the sequence. There were other instances of repair initiation in which these students explicitly asked the person who had talked in the prior turn to speak Spanish. As will be illustrated in Excerpt 4.10, these explicit Spanish requests suggest that there were instances in which the Spanish dominant students did not accept flexible language use in these lessons, but would rather have Spanish as the single language of interaction. Excerpt 4.10 presents three examples of this approach to repair initiation.

- A.**
- 4.11.16 Cycle 1 Semantics Part 3 2:30 -3:17**
1. T: Y Joseph, qué significa respetar a los compañeros?
"And Joseph, what does it mean to respect your friends?"
 2. JO: Respect your friends.
 3. T: Respect your friends. What does that mean to you?
 4. JO: Uhm (0.2) Being nice to them (.) don't bully them (.):and
like be nice to your fri::ends don't hurt them don't be
mean [to them
 5. JA: [Spanish please.]
 6. JO: [don't kick them] \$don't punch them\$
 7. T: [We can speak Spanish] and English
 8. JA: [Spanish]
 - 9.T: Okay (.) Ehh Joseph can you re [can you summarize] what you
said in English in Spanish?
 10. R: [I speak Spanish]
 11. V: ((to R)) [I speak Spanish, too.]
 12. R: [Spa::nglish]
 13. (2.0)
 - 15.JO: Ehh respecto significa que tienes que ser buenos con tus
compañeros
"Respect means that you have to be good to your peers."
- B.**
- 10.19.16 Cycle 2 Dialogic Reasoning 9:26 - 9:41**
1. T: Where does (.) where does Kiana work? Where does she work?
Where do you think that she works?
 2. (2.0)
 3. T: According to this paragraph (.) where does she work?
 4. JA: Dígalo en español.
"Say it in Spanish"
 5. T: ¿Dónde trabaja Kiana?
"Where does Kiana work?"
 6. R: In a store?
 7. T: [En un almacen↑ En] dónde?
In a store. Where?
 8. V: [En Rancho Córdoba]
"In Rancho Córdoba"
 9. T: En Walmart
- C.**
- 10.19.16 Cycle 2 Dialogic Reasoning 30:21 - 30:39**
1. J: They should go on a strike because (.) they should but with
permission (.) ['cause ()]
 2. V: [Can you↑ s::peak] Spanish?=
=Pueden ir en una en una (.) a una huelga (.) pero con
permiso de (.) de la policía o del jefe↑ (.) para que no
(.) después no los (.) no los vayan [a ()]
"They can go on on a strike but with permission from the
police or the boss so that after they won't"
 4. V: [Pero si] ellos↑ le
estaban haciendo una huelga al jefe! cómo le iban a pedir
permiso al jefe?

Excerpt 4.6. Initiating repair by requesting Spanish

Example 4.10A took place during a semantics lesson in cycle 1 that started with a behavior management activity in which the teacher guided the group to propose a set of behavioral norms. In this example, the teacher initiated a sequence in which she used Spanish to ask Joseph what it meant to respect their peers. Joseph responded to this question by saying: “respect your friends,” which is an English translation of the last part of the teacher’s question “respetar a los compañeros.” His response indicates that he interpreted the teacher’s prompt as a translation request, rather than as a question about the meaning of respect. In the next turn the teacher followed Joseph’s language choice by repeating his response, and clarifying her question. This was followed by Joseph’s use of English to list a series of actions that he related to respecting his friends.

In turn 5, James overlapped with Joseph to request Spanish by using a phrase in English (“Spanish please”). Both Joseph and the teacher rejected this translation request in the ensuing overlapping talk. While Joseph’s rejection was manifested in his lack of acknowledgement of the request, the teacher explicitly rejected it by using English to tell students that they could speak Spanish or English. However, James overlapped to establish that he wanted Spanish, and in the next turn the teacher validated James’ request by asking Joseph to summarize his response in Spanish. Between turns 10 and 12, Roberto and Valentina overlapped with the teacher to also validate James’ request by saying that they also spoke Spanish. In turn 12 Roberto, added the word Spanglish, conveying that he did not only speak Spanish, but also English. After a brief pause, Joseph contributed the Spanish translation of what it meant to him to respect his friends. This first example contains two language negotiation sequences that convey the tension between the teacher’s approach to flexible language use, and the Spanish dominant students’ inclination towards

Spanish as the single language of interaction. In the first sequence, the teacher followed Joseph's language choices and thus accepted Joseph's change of language of interaction change from Spanish to English. In the second one, James rejected English as the language of interaction, and requested Spanish. While the first language negotiation sequence was fluidly achieved, the second one was initially resisted by Joseph and the teacher.

Examples 4.10B and 4.10C illustrate Spanish requests that were more fluidly integrated in the conversation. These two examples took place during the dialogic reasoning lesson in cycle 2. In example 4.10B, the teacher was preparing the group for the discussion by having them read a brief article of a strike that was not as successful as the one presented in *Yes, We Can!* (Cohen, 2002). The excerpt starts with a reading comprehension question proposed by the teacher in English. This was followed by a two second silence, which prompted the teacher to repeat the question. She repeated the question in English, and in the next turn, James engaged in a Spanish request by telling the teacher: "Dígalo en español (Say it in Spanish)." The teacher accepted the Spanish request and translated her question in turn 5. In the following turn, Roberto tentatively responded to the question in English. His tentativeness is indicated by his rising intonation at the end of his response. In turn 7 the teacher re-stated Roberto's answer in Spanish. With this re-statement, she approved Roberto's response, and also indicated that the language of interaction had changed to Spanish as requested by James. In the second part of this turn, she repeated the question since she hadn't gotten the expected response. Valentina provided a response that was also inaccurate, so the teacher gave the correct response in turn 9.

Example 4.10C presents an exchange between Johanna and Valentina during the dialogic reasoning discussion. This excerpt starts with Johanna's contribution in English

in which she presented her position regarding the discussion prompt. Valentina overlapped with her to ask her to speak Spanish. As illustrated in example 4.10A, the Spanish request was made in English. Johanna accepted Valentina's request and presented her position in Spanish. In the following turn, Valentina overlapped again with Johanna to challenge her idea. This example illustrates how Valentina's Spanish request enabled her to achieve a more engaged participation in the discussion.

In summary, these repair initiations reflect another way in which the language of interaction was negotiated in these lesson cycles. In these instances of language negotiation, the students who had less experience using English actively achieved inclusion in the conversations by launching a repair after an English utterance. Through this interactional resource these students indicated that communication had broken for them, and that they needed the language of interaction to be changed to Spanish.

Repair initiation moves have not been described in the current research on translanguaging perhaps because they are not as typical as the linguistic accommodation moves presented in the prior section. The teacher played a key role in ensuring everyone's participation in the conversations, and she typically organized the conversations to achieve this as discussed in the above section. However, the students with less experience using English also felt empowered to let the teacher and their peers know that communication had broken for them in the instances in which this happened. Their repair initiations convey how they exercised agency in this flexible language ecology. Their agency in some opportunities conflicted with the teacher's purpose of promoting language choice for all participants, since in these instances they sought to impose Spanish as the only language of interaction.

In summary, inter-turn translanguaging was a key interactional resource to negotiate the language of interaction in a flexible language ecology where there was no predefined medium of instruction. By considering these moves in broader conversation sequences, the present study evidences that translanguaging was not an individual performance in which bilinguals merged their languages, but rather an interactional performance in which participants fluidly renegotiated the language of interaction to achieve inclusion. Linguistic accommodation, gaining the floor, and repair initiation were conversation mechanisms that gave students control over the medium of instruction since the language of interaction was constantly redefined according to their language choices and preferences.

Although there were some instances in which there was tension between promoting language choice and establishing a single language of interaction, typically, the medium of instruction in these lesson cycles was fluidly negotiated according to participants' communicative purposes. This fluid negotiation was, one hand, achieved by the teacher's validation of students' language preferences. She validated her students by addressing them in their preferred language and following their language choices. On the other hand, the students that were just starting to learn English were empowered to renegotiate the language interaction when communication broke for them. In this case, they initiated repairs, which resulted in a shift of language from English to Spanish.

Bilingual Performance Moves

The other typical way in which participants engaged in translanguaging to do interactional work was related to their bilingual identities. From an interactional perspective, "bilingualism is not a mental disposition of the speaker, but a set of complex

linguistic activities... bilingualism is a feature of interactional behavior, and not of persons” (Auer, 1984, p. 55). Translanguaging is an interactional resource that enables bilinguals to accomplish their bilingual identities by engaging in complex language practices in which they fluidly use their diverse linguistic resources (Canagarajah, 2011; Creese & Blackledge, 2011; García, 2009). In this sense, bilinguals use translanguaging to do identity work. This identity work has been characterized as *doing being bilingual* (Zentella, 1997).

The flexible language ecology promoted in these lesson cycles enabled participants to perform their bilingualism. Furthermore, the teacher modeled bilingualism for her students by frequently engaging in intra-turn and inter-turn translanguaging (Gort & Sembiante, 2015). This section is divided in three parts, which characterize the different ways in which students used translanguaging as an interactional resource to perform their bilingual identities. Although *doing being bilingual* is an overarching concept that encompasses the different bilingual performances discussed in this section, the following section focuses on this concept to illustrate how students used translanguaging to achieve their status as bilinguals. After this section, two specific ways in which students performed their bilingualism in this academic context are characterized. These other two bilingual performance moves are: translation, and positioning in the language expert – learner continuum.

Doing Being Bilingual. As mentioned above, bilinguals achieve their bilingual status by displaying their bilingualism in their language practices. Excerpt 4.11 illustrates how Roberto and Joseph asserted their bilingualism during the introductory lesson. This excerpt took place after an introduction in English in which the teacher had explained the

work they would be doing, and the students had talked about their ability to speak English and Spanish.

3.14.16 Introduction (2:10 - 3:54)

1. T: So I brought this. ((Stands up and places two piles of papers on table)) This is a letter (0.1) that explains the project. So (.) you can (.) read it (.) I'll read it out loud (.) and sign it. I brought the letter in English and Spanish (.) so you can choose (0.1) the one that you prefer (.) English or Spanish
- 2*. R: [((To V)) Está en español. ((Pointing at one of the paper piles)) Ésta está en español
"It is in Spanish. This one is in Spanish."
3. T: Everything that I'm bringing is going to be in both languages and you can choose.
4. Ss: ()
- 5*. JO: Quiero español
"I want Spanish"
6. T: Español? Okay (.) so I'm going to read it out loud in español (0.2) Asentimiento del estudiante ((read letter out loud 2:38 - 3:48)) (0.1) Entonces tienen alguna pregunta que quisieran hacer en este momento? Do you have any questions?
"Spanish? Okay so I'm going to read it out loud in Spanish (0.2) Student Assent So do you have any questions that you would like to ask now? Do you have any questions?"
7. Ss: ((Students shake their heads saying no))

Excerpt 4.7. Asserting bilingualism

In the first turn in this excerpt, the teacher used English to introduce the student assent form, and promoted language choice by presenting an English and Spanish version of this form. Roberto overlapped with her, and used Spanish to let Valentina know that the form was in this language as well. In this move he performed his bilingualism by using Spanish to on one hand, demonstrate that he was able to speak this language, and serving as an interpreter for Valentina. After this, Joseph also performed his bilingualism by using Spanish and, through this language choice demonstrating his Spanish speaking skills.

Roberto and Joseph's use of Spanish in this introductory session is meaningful because with it they changed the teacher's meta-linguistic approach in which she was

talking about bilingualism and language choice, to a performative approach in which they were displaying their bilingualism. Their inter-turn translanguaging illustrates how “you cannot be bilingual in your head, you have to use two or more languages ‘on stage,’ in interaction, to show others that and how you can use them” (Auer, 1984, p. 7). Furthermore, these students’ Spanish use reflects that they valued the opportunity to use this language. The literature on translanguaging has presented different findings regarding students’ willingness to use their home language in academic, English-only, contexts. While some students value this opportunity (Daniel & Pacheco, 2016), other students resist using their home language (Welch, 2015). As has been discussed in this chapter, Spanish was the most valued language of interaction in these lesson cycles.

Although Spanish was the most valued language of interaction, students who used this language dominantly also sought opportunities to display their bilingualism by using English in short phrases/sentences and interjections. This was another way in which students engaged in *doing being bilingual*. Excerpts 4.9 and 4.10, discussed in the section on repair initiation, illustrate how James and Valentina displayed their emergent bilingual skills by using English to launch repairs. For instance, in excerpt 4.9, example B, James initiated a repair with the following English utterance: “I don’t understand.” In excerpt 4.10, he and Valentina used English to request Spanish (e.g. “Spanish, please” and “Can you speak Spanish,” respectively). Their strategic use of English in these repair initiations convey how they were positioning themselves as emergent bilinguals who could use English to renegotiate the language of interaction.

Excerpt 4.12 presents further evidence of how these students displayed their bilingualism by using interjections in English:

A.	
3.28.16 Cycle 1 Semantics Part 1 21:00 - 21:12	
1.T:	Entonces el dice (.) a él le suena ese George, (.) le suena Chorg. [Cierto?] "So he says, that George sounds like Chorg to him. Right?"
2.R:	[Oh↑<I kind of get it>
3.T:	Why [(.) okay]
4.R:	[Porque]en inglés se copia así, (.) él cree que es Chorg↑ "Because it is written that way in English, he thinks it is Chorg"
B.	
10.26.16 Cycle 2 Morphology 2:15 - 2:25	
1. T:	Que todas cambian, muy bien (.) Y <u>todas</u> son personas↑ Cierto? "All of these change, very good. And all of them are people."
2. JA:	Yeah
3. R:	Yeah
4. T:	Todas estas son personas que hacen algo, cierto? "All of these are people who do something, right?"
5. R:	Yeah
?	

Excerpt 4.8. Using interjections in English to display bilingual skills

Example 4.12A was taken from a discussion about the poem "My Name is Jorge" in which the teacher had asked students why the author wrote Chorg, rather than George to refer to the character's name in English. Students had proposed different ideas before the first line in Example A in which the teacher summarized and elaborated these ideas. Roberto overlapped with her to proclaim his understanding in English. In the following turn, the teacher was going to continue with another question, but Roberto overlapped again, this time in Spanish, to contribute an explanation for the author's use of the word Chorg. Roberto's use of English and Spanish in this example illustrates how he took advantage of having these languages available to him. He first asserted his bilingualism by using English in a brief interjection ("I kind of get it"), and then used Spanish to articulate an explanation.

Example 4.12B is from the introduction to the syntax lesson in the second cycle. The teacher had asked students to provide examples of people who do things, and then look for similarities in the examples they had contributed. In the first turn in this excerpt the teacher provided feedback to Valentina's contribution regarding the similarities between the proposed words, and then presented another similarity. James and Roberto agreed with the teacher by using the word "Yeah."

These examples convey how students who were in the process of learning English tried out their emerging bilingual identities by using short interjections. Through these interjections the students who were less experienced in English were integrating "bits and pieces of these new linguistic practices into their complex and growing linguistic repertoire" (García, Makar, Starcevic, & Terry, 2011, p. 43). Furthermore, they were doing identity work in which they achieved their bilingual status by displaying their ability to speak English.

Translation. Another way in which these students performed their bilingualism was by engaging in translations in which they displayed their ability to move between languages. There were two different ways in which bilingualism was performed through translation: interpreting for peers, and spontaneously rendering English content in Spanish. Roberto was the student who typically acted as an interpreter for his emergent bilingual peers. His positioning as an interpreter for his bilingual peers was illustrated in excerpt 4.9B in which he translated the question for James and Valentina in line 6, after their repair initiation. The following excerpt from the second lesson in cycle 1 presents another example of Roberto's performance as an interpreter:

3.23.16 Immigration Vocabulary & Background Knowledge (0:00 – 0:20)	
1. T:	Okay sooo (.) during the next (.) 7 lessons (.) we will be discussing issues related to immigration. (.) Okay?
2. R:	((To JA)) inmigración "Immigration"
3. T:	So as (.) we discussed in the first (0.2) the first we met↑ (.) I'm going to use <u>English</u> and <u>Spanish</u>
4. R:	Inglés y español "English and Spanish"
5. T:	And today we will talk about some important (.) <u>vocabulary</u> .
6. (2.0)	
7. T:	Ehh
8. R:	importante vocabulario "important vocabulary"
9. T:	Ajá ↑ "Yeah"
?	

Excerpt 4.9. Student adopting an interpreter role

The teacher started the lesson with an introduction in English in which she described what they were going to do in the following lessons. While the teacher talked, Roberto acted as an interpreter for James by translating the last words that the teacher had said in the prior turn. In his translation, Roberto captured the key terms of the teacher's message, but lost the context that the sentences, in which these terms were embedded, gave them.

Roberto's interpreting performances during these lesson cycles reflect how children from immigrant families develop key language brokering skills as they help their families understand and convey information in English (Orellana, Dorner, & Pulido, 2003). When these children have recently-arrived immigrant peers in their classrooms, their language brokering skills also gain relevance in these academic contexts. In English-medium contexts, teachers typically rely on bilingual students to render content and instructions to newly arrived students. In this sense, the presence of emergent bilinguals in the classroom enables the more experienced bilingual students to perform their bilingualism in these

monolingual contexts. This was also the case in Roberto's SEI classroom, as evidenced in his teacher's acknowledgment of his valuable interpretation skills when she selected him as a participant for these lesson cycles. In these lesson cycles, he continued playing a role as an interpreter for James and Valentina, and thus supported the teacher in ensuring that these students had access to the conversation.

Through interpreting, Roberto, and Johanna and Joseph in a lower degree, performed their bilingualism and also promoted their emergent bilingual peers' inclusion in the conversation. Another way in which all students in these lesson cycles enacted their bilingualism was by spontaneously translating content that had only been presented in English. In these cases, the group engaged in joint performances in which each participant displayed his or her different levels of ability to move between languages. Excerpt 4.14 illustrates this joint performance:

5.2.16 Cycle 1 Morphology Part 1 2:28 - 2:57



1. T: [People have the power to change↑]
2. R: [People have the power to change] unfair decisions.
3. T: Right?
4. JA: ((Leaning on the table))Gen:::te↑
"People"
5. R: ((Pointing at ppt)) Like that
6. T: A ver (0.1) \$Cómo lo traducirías\$ (0.1) James?
"Let's see, how would you translate it James?"
7. JA: "Gente" [ummmmmmm]
"People"
8. R: [>Yo puedo traducirlo?<
"May I translate it?"
9. (1.0)
10. JO: Gente tiene el el podere (.) [para cambiar!
"People have the podere ((mispronounced power)) to change"
11. R: [¿Podere?]
"Podere ((mispronounced power))"
12. (2.0)
13. R: ((Stands up and points at ppt))
14. JA: La gente tiene el [pode:::r]
"People have the power"
15. R: [Las personas pueden [cambiar
"The people can change"
16. V: [de cambiar decisiones
"to change decisions"
17. R: pueden tienen el poder para cambiar (.) [ehh
"they can the have the pwer to change"
18. V: [decisiones
"decisiones"
19. JA: [decisions↑]
20. R: [decisiones] que no sean justas↑
"decisions that are not fair"
21. T: Muy:: bie:::n↑
"Very good"

?

Excerpt 4.10. Performing bilingualism through joint translation

Excerpt 4.14 was taken from the introduction to the morphology lesson in cycle 1 in which the teacher presented the word *power* by showing a PowerPoint presentation with its definition, images and sentences. The sentences in the presentation only appeared in English. This excerpt starts with the teacher reading the first part of a sentence in a slide that illustrated one way of understanding the concept of *power*. Roberto overlapped with her, and she yielded the floor to him. He finished reading the sentence, and this was followed by the teacher's positive feedback "right" in the form of a question.

Her rising intonation opened the floor for other students to engage with the slide. James leaned on the table and started to translate the sentence that Roberto had read, and the teacher encouraged him to do so. James repeated the first word of the sentence followed by an elongated doubt token (ummmm). Roberto overlapped with him to seek the teacher's validation to continue the translation. The teacher's silence in the following line represented in the one second pause in line 9 indicates that she did not grant this validation, and was keeping the floor for James. However, Joseph took the floor in line 10 and translated most of the sentence. He mispronounced the word *power* ("podere"), and Roberto overlapped with him to point out this mispronunciation, but did not take the floor. Instead he stood up to point at the PowerPoint slide. James built on Joseph's contribution by repeating it, and correctly pronouncing the word "poder." He stressed the correct pronunciation of this word by elongating the final part of the word "pode:::r." Roberto overlapped with James to propose another version of the translation, and Valentina joined in to propose a translation for the second part of the sentence. In the following four turns, there was overlapping talk between Roberto, Valentina and James, and, after this, Roberto put the different parts of the sentence together and finished the translation.

The value of the joint translation presented in excerpt 4.14 lies on the opportunity it created for bilingual identity development. On one hand, it conveys these students' agency in opening up spaces to perform their bilingualism. This agency was validated by the teacher who, rather than keeping the pacing of the presentation, encouraged students' engagement in these bilingual performances. On the other hand, it conveys participants' efforts to display their bilingualism at each of their particular developmental trajectories. James took the risk to start the translation, and Valentina showed that she was closely following her peers by building up on what they had contributed, and adding the word "decisiones," which is a cognate for its English version *decisions*. Joseph and Roberto displayed their bilingual skills by translating longer parts of the sentence.

Positioning in the Language Expert-Learner Continuum. Lines 10 to 14 in excerpt 4.14 also illustrate another way in which students engaged in identity work during these lesson cycles. The availability of English and Spanish during these lesson cycles enabled students to position themselves and their peers along a language expert-learner continuum that allowed them to display their language expertise in their dominant language. This was especially the case among the Spanish-dominant students who promptly corrected their peers when they mispronounced a word in Spanish, as was evidenced in Excerpt 4.14 when Roberto and James displayed their Spanish language expertise and questioned Joseph's pronunciation of "poder." The following excerpt presents other instances in which Spanish dominant students corrected their peers:

A.	
4.25.16 Cycle 1 Semantics Part 4 22:27 - 22:38	
1. R:	eso fue falta de <u>respeto</u> "that was lack of <u>respeto</u> " ((<i>"respect" pronounced incorrectly</i>))
2. T:	Ajá (.) [Okay] "Yeah (.) Okay"
3. V:	[<u>Respeto</u>] "Respeto" ((<i>"respect" pronounced correctly</i>))
4. R:	Respeto (.) <u>respeto</u> "Respet (pronounced correctly) respect ((pronounced incorrectly))"
5. V:	No es <u>respec::to</u> "It is not respect" ((pronounced incorrectly))
6. R:	Es <u>respec::to</u> "It is respect" ((pronounced incorrectly))
7. V:	Es respeto respeto "It is respect respect" ((pronounced correctly))
B.	
5.13.16 Cycle 1 Syntax Part 2 & Dialogic Reasoning 10:23 - 10:51	
1. JO:	Oh [↑] Es <u>Los</u> (.) Los que va primero (1.0) <u>Los</u> [↑] (1.0) pavorosos "Oh, it is the, the goes first, the powerful ((mispronounces powerful))"
2. JA:	[<u>Pode::rosos</u>] "Powerful ((correct pronunciation))"
3. V:	[Poderosos] "Powerful ((correct pronunciation))"
4. JA:	Va <u>primero</u> poderosos [↑] "Powerful goes first"
5. JO:	No:: [↑] (.) No >mira mira mira< la palabra (.) la letra (.) va es (2.0) no <u>mira</u> (1.0) Si (.) <u>powerosos</u> los (1.0) guerros (.) eso no ha (.) eso no (.) sigue (1.0) los (.) pavorosos "No, no, look, look, look. The word, the letter that goes is. No, look. If powerful ((mispronounced)) the warriors, ((mispronounced)) that doesn't, that doesn't follow. The powerful."
?	

Excerpt 4.11. Positioning as Experts by Correcting Peer's Spanish

Example 4.15A was extracted from a discussion about the poem "T-Shirt," in which the teacher's reaction to the character's request to call him Jorge instead of George was considered. This example starts with Roberto's comment in Spanish regarding this issue. In this comment, he mispronounced the word "respeto," by merging its English and Spanish pronunciation. In the following turn the teacher accepted his response without correcting the pronunciation error. However, Valentina overlapped with the teacher, and

conveyed the correct pronunciation. The ensuing turns convey how Roberto did not immediately accept this correction, while Valentina asserted her expertise by repeating the correct pronunciation. The teacher did not intervene to solve this disagreement.

Example 4.15B was taken from a syntax activity in which students had received 2 sets of scrambled words in English and Spanish, and they needed to organize each set in a coherent sentence. In the first turn in this example, Joseph proposed the initial part of the sentence, and mispronounced the word “poderosos.” This was followed by James and Valentina overlapping talk in which they corrected Joseph’s pronunciation. In the following turn, James also disagreed with the word order that Joseph was proposing to achieve a grammatically correct sentence. Joseph did not explicitly acknowledge his peers’ correction, rather in turn 5, he insisted on the word order he had proposed before. While articulating his word-order proposal in this turn, he struggled again to pronounce the “poderosos” the first time he said it, but then pronounced it correctly the second time. This may reflect that he tacitly acknowledged his peers’ correction, or that he read the word more carefully.

As can be noted in the teacher’s absence during these interactional episodes in which pronunciation was corrected, she did not foster language expertise displays in which correctness was emphasized. She rather encouraged instances in which students took risks using language or made metalinguistic or cross-linguistic comments. However, this heterogeneous language context enabled Spanish-dominant students to display their linguistic skills in different ways. Their focus on correct language use suggests that in academic contexts bilinguals are not so willing to find a common communication ground in which they let mistakes pass. This contrasts with the literature on bilinguals’ everyday

language practices, which has established that their focus is on communication, rather than on correctness (Canagarajah, 2011). The academic context in which these language practices were situated may have changed the way participants positioned themselves and their interlocutors in terms of their language use. Although the focus of the lessons was on communication and understanding, the students were following the expectations of correct language use established in academic contexts.

In summary, this flexible language ecology opened up different opportunities for this group of students with heterogeneous language proficiencies to perform their bilingualism. Inter-turn translanguaging enabled students to engage in bilingual performances through which they validated and further developed their bilingual identities. They had the chance to display their Spanish skills, and position this language as a valuable resource. Furthermore, the less experienced English speakers found opportunities to display their emergent bilingual skills by using interjections in English, and engaging in joint translations. Finally, the more experienced bilinguals served as interpreters for their peers, thus displaying their ability to fluidly move between languages to serve as language brokers.

Summary

This chapter addressed this study's first research question: What interactional work does translanguaging do during these lesson cycles? In so doing it addressed the discursive dimension of translanguaging pedagogy in these lesson cycles. This dimension was planned to be accomplished in these lesson cycles by promoting the flexible use of English and Spanish according to students' language preferences.

To achieve a clear portrayal of participants' translanguaging, their language choices were first analyzed. Based on current research on the discursive dimension of translanguaging pedagogy, it was expected that, by promoting language choice and modeling translanguaging practices, students would fluidly use their full linguistic repertoire. However, the turn by turn analysis in which participants language choices were characterized revealed that students typically used one single language in their turns, while the teacher typically translanguaged. The most prevalent language in these lesson cycles was Spanish. This finding contradicts current theorizations of bilinguals' language use (Canagarajah, 2011; García, 2009; García & Wei, 2014). Bilinguals in this small group used their languages distinctly, and when they engaged in translanguaging, they typically did so in a strategic way. This strategic language alternation conveys the speaker's awareness of having two distinct languages that can be used as resources to achieve communicative purposes. There were some instances in which participants blurred the boundaries between their languages (e.g. when words such as *okay* and *cognate* were used indistinctly in English and Spanish), but these instances were not this group's most salient translanguaging practices.

When participants' language choices were situated in the context of the language ecology that emerged in these lesson cycles, it was found that translanguaging typically took place between turns. The analysis of the conversation sequences in which inter-turn translanguaging was observed revealed that translanguaging enabled participants to engage in two processes related to their interaction: (1) negotiating the language of interaction, and (2) performing bilingualism.

Participants engaged in language negotiation sequences that enabled them to ensure everybody's inclusion and active participation in these conversations. Through these language negotiation sequences the language of interaction was fluidly redefined according to participants' needs, skills, and purposes. The teacher typically accommodated to her students' language choices by addressing them in their preferred language and following their language choices. This enabled her to scaffold instruction for students with heterogeneous language proficiencies and engage in linguistically responsive teaching. The students with less experience using English actively sought their inclusion in these conversations by initiating repairs when communication broke for them. With these repairs, they indicated their lack of understanding and prompted their interlocutor to change from English to Spanish.

Research on the discursive dimension of translanguaging pedagogy has shown that students engage in translanguaging to achieve active participation in learning (García & Leyva, 2014). Bilingual students make pragmatic language choices that enable them to maximize their participation and engagement in learning (Daniel & Pacheco, 2016; Lewis et al. 2012; Link, 2011; Martínez-Roldán & Sayer, 2006; Soltero-González, 2009). García and her colleagues (2017) described these moves as the translanguaging “corriente”. This “corriente” represents students' underlying flexible language practices, which become visible when the teacher is not in control of the conversation. In these lesson cycles, the teacher sought to bring the translanguaging “corriente” to the surface by engaging in linguistic accommodation through which she gave prevalence to her students' language choices.

As was discussed in the section on language choices, translanguaging as an integrated linguistic performance conveying a bilingual individual's identity and community belonging (Creese & Blackledge, 2010, 2011; García & Leiva, 2014; Wei, 2011b) was not the typical way in which students participating in these lessons performed their bilingual identities. Rather, they did their identity work by engaging in inter-turn translanguaging to demonstrate their bilingualism (*do being bilingual*). They also spontaneously engaged in joint translations through which they displayed their abilities to move between languages. Through these different bilingual performances, they reflected their agency in expanding their linguistic repertoire and experimenting with their new bilingual identities. Additionally, the Spanish dominant students took advantage of the opportunity to use Spanish to display their linguistic expertise in this language. These bilingual performances convey how these students strategically used the available languages in these lessons to display their different linguistic competences. These displays suggest that they recognized their distinct languages, and this distinction was key in performing their bilingualism.

Chapter 5. The Instructional Dimensions of Translanguaging Pedagogy: Leveraging Bilingualism to Teach and Learn Language

As established in prior chapters, the instructional dimension of translanguaging refers to the deliberate integration of two languages in the curriculum to support student learning. While in the analysis of the discursive dimension of translanguaging pedagogy, presented in chapter 4, it was conveyed how flexible language use encouraged students and their teacher to strategically use their languages to do interactional work that supported inclusion and identity development, the instructional dimension addressed in this chapter focuses on how bilingual language instruction supported language and literacy development as reflected in students' talk. This chapter addresses this instructional dimension by characterizing bilingual language instruction, and how students engaged with the language content being taught. In so doing it addresses the second research question: How is translanguaging manifested in students' talk about semantics, morphology, and syntax? Translanguaging in the context of this second research question, refers to the different ways in which participants drew on their two languages to make sense of the linguistic constructs taught in these lessons. Conversation sequences in which students engaged in talk about these constructs were analyzed in order to uncover how they made sense of language in this bilingual instructional context.

In the context of language and literacy instruction, translanguaging has been proposed as a pedagogical strategy that highlights the relationships between students' languages thus enhancing their metalinguistic awareness (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011). The design of integrated language curricula has been proposed as an alternative to make instruction more efficient and targeted since students have the opportunity to compare and

contrast their languages and, in so doing, enhance their understanding of their languages (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011; Cummins, 2013; Horst, White & Bell, 2010).

Translanguaging for language instruction is different from the mid-twentieth century approach to second and foreign language instruction known as contrastive analysis (Lado, 1964). While in the translanguaging approach proposed in this dissertation, contrasting structures are assumed to support language learning by making these linguistic features more salient, the contrastive analysis approach was based on the assumption that dissimilar structures between students' native and target languages generated interference. Language learning was viewed as a habit formation process (Valdés, Capitelli, & Álvarez, 2011) in which for example the habit of using adjectives after the noun in Spanish, would interfere with learning the new habit of using the adjective before the noun in English. Contrasting structures, such as adjective placement, were identified and emphasized in the curriculum in order expose and engage language learners in these new habits. The contrastive analysis was done by the curriculum designer before the instruction took place, and instruction was only in the target language.

In the approach proposed in this dissertation, language learning is viewed as a meaning making process (van Lier, 2004), rather than a habit formation process. Translanguaging pedagogy supports this meaning making process by enabling students to develop their understanding through the use of their two languages (Baker, 2010). The instructional dimension of translanguaging pedagogy encompassed the enactment of bilingual instruction in which English and Spanish were placed alongside each other to support students' language and literacy development. This chapter is divided in three sections each focusing on the areas of instruction in these lesson cycles (semantics,

morphology and syntax) in order to characterize how translinguaging was made evident in students talk about each of these constructs. Table 5.1 presents an overview of these results.

Table 5.1. *Translinguaging as a Tool to Understand Language*

Language Construct	Translinguaging in students' talk about language	Definition
Semantics	Cognate recognition	Students use their Spanish word knowledge to establish connections with English words that share similar orthographic and semantic features.
Morphology	Translating the suffix	Students display their understanding of the English target suffix by providing its Spanish counterpart.
	Analyzing morphemes in English and Spanish	Students make sense of new morphological structures by noticing and analyzing differences between English and Spanish morphemes.
Syntax	Analyzing syntactic structures in English and Spanish	Students make sense of new syntactic structures by noticing and analyzing differences between English and Spanish syntax.
	Exploring alternative syntactic constructions	Students use their prior linguistic knowledge to consider alternative ways of interpreting whether a sentence is grammatically correct or not.

Semantics Instruction

Semantics instruction was based on a small set of target words related to the text and the lesson cycle theme. Three criteria were used to select target words: (1) relevance of the target word in understanding the text and using it in discussions; (2) affordances to establish connections with the morphological and syntactic structures taught in the lesson cycle; and (3) opportunities to establish cross-linguistic relations. The establishment of cross-linguistic relations in semantics instruction focused on cognate recognition through which students were encouraged to use their knowledge of Spanish to figure out word meanings in English.

Words that could be related to the morphological and syntactic structures taught in the lesson cycle, opened possibilities to expose students to target vocabulary in different contexts, and deepen their understanding of these words by establishing relationships across these three areas of instruction. For example, in cycle 1 knowledge of the target word “power” was expanded during the morphology lesson by relating this word to its adjective forms “powerful” and “powerless.” During the syntax lesson on adjective placement, the adjective forms of this word were discussed further. This was also the case in the morphology and syntax lesson in cycle 2 in which target words such as “janitor”, “march” and “strike,” were discussed in the context of the morphology and syntax lessons. During the morphology lesson, students were exposed to how “march” and “strike” could be transformed into nouns by adding the noun person forming suffix “-er,” while during the syntax lesson subject pronouns were introduced using these words to show how they could be replaced with pronouns. In this sense, although the focus of instruction varied throughout the lesson cycle, the text and the target vocabulary were unifying themes that

were revisited during every lesson. These three domains (semantics, morphology and syntax), and the establishment of cross-linguistic relations, sought to promote the development of in depth vocabulary knowledge (Proctor, 2011).

Semantics lessons were organized in two activities: (1) explicit vocabulary instruction in which target words were introduced via a PowerPoint presentation, and (2) guided or independent practice in which students encountered target words in the text and in other contexts. Translanguaging related to semantics was made evident in students' talk in two ways: (1) discussing target words in the language of their choice, and (2) cognate recognition. This section only focuses on cognate recognition, since language choice was discussed in chapter 4.

Cognate Recognition

Explicit semantics instruction began with a cognate recognition activity in which students were asked to look at their glossaries, which contained a list of the target words in English, and identify cognates within this list. This activity was aimed at activating students' prior knowledge of target words by connecting words in English to their Spanish counterparts (White & Horst, 2010). Additionally, it sought to develop the reading strategy of using cognates as clues to unlock word meanings in English (Carlo et al., 2004; Jiménez, García & Pearson, 1996), by encouraging students to look closely at the orthographic and semantic characteristics of the words listed in the glossary, and connect them to known words in Spanish (Proctor & Mo, 2009). The rationale for this activity is based on research that has found that bilingual students will not necessarily establish cognate relationships if they are not explicitly taught about the affordances of cognate knowledge in supporting

their vocabulary and reading development (Carlo et al 2004; Jimenez, García & Pearson, 1995).

Excerpt 5.1 presents how the concept of cognate was introduced during the first vocabulary lesson:

3.23.16 Cycle 1 Immigration Vocabulary and Background Knowledge :54 - 1:50

1. T: A cognate↑ is a word (.) that is very similar in two languages (.) so for example (.) rapid y rápido (1.0) You see (.) rapid(.) is very similar to rápido↑ (2.0) So the cognates are important↑ (.) when you are reading in English because (.) what you know about (.) English (.) >about Spanish< can help you (.) know the meanings of the words↑ Okay? (.) A cognate (.) Can you think of a word (.) that is very similar in English and Spanish?

2. J: Ahhh

3. (1.0)

4. T: Pueden pensar en alguna palabra muy similar en inglés y en español?
"Can you think of a word that is very similar in English and Spanish?"

5. R: Evaporation,

6. T: [Evaporation]

7. R: [Evaporación]

☐

Excerpt 5.1. Defining the concept of cognate

In turn 1, the teacher used English to define the concept of cognate by providing a simple definition, an example, and explaining why cognates could be relevant to them. After this she asked students to provide another example of a Spanish-English cognate. Students did not respond, so in turn 4 she used Spanish to request the example. Roberto contributed the word “evaporation,” which was written on an anchor chart in the science classroom where the lesson was being held. He related this word to its Spanish counterpart “evaporación.”. After this, the teacher had students write this example in their cognate bank, and asked

them for another example. Students did not contribute any other examples, probably because it was challenging to think about these words without having any text to refer to.

Excerpt 5.2 presents two examples of the cognate recognition activity. Example 5.2A conveys the conversation sequence that took place after the concept of cognate was introduced. During this lesson, vocabulary related to the theme of immigration was presented. Example 5.2B presents a similar sequence from another lesson in cycle 1 in which vocabulary related to the text *My Name is Jorge* (Medina, 1999) was introduced. These two sequences illustrate how the teacher guided students to identify cognates in their glossaries, and how students responded to this activity.

During the first turn in example 5.2A, the teacher initiated the sequence by giving instructions in English, and then presenting the main question in English and Spanish (“Which could have a similar word in Spanish? / ¿Cuáles de estas palabras son parecidas?”). Her Spanish translation did not capture all the detail from the English instruction, but she used Spanish again in turn 3 to ask Roberto for the Spanish counterpart (“Cómo se dice en español?”) of the word “immigrant,” and continued using Spanish in her interaction with him and James, who were the students who participated in this activity. James, who was the student with less experience in English in this lesson, contributed the word “bilingual.” With this contribution, he took the risk to read the word in English, although he did not know how to pronounce it. He also displayed his understanding of the concept of cognate, since he successfully identified one. Johanna, who was the other student present during this activity, was restless in her seat, suggesting that she was not engaged in this activity.

A.

3.23.16 Cycle 1 Immigration Vocabulary and Background Knowledge 2:56 - 3:40

1. T: Okay (.) So let's let's look at the list of words↑(3.0) ((Helping another student locate her glossary)) Let's look at the list of words (.) and (.) see which words are (.) which could be cognates↑ Which could have a similar word in Spanish (.) Cuáles de estas palabras son [parecidas↑]
"Which of these words are similar?"
2. R: [Immigration]
3. T: Immigration cómo se dice en español?
"How is it said in Spanish?"
4. R: Imigración
5. T: Muy bien↑ (3.0) Cuáles otras son parecidas?
"Very good. Which others are similar?"
6. (3.0)
7. R: Immigrant
8. T: Umhu
9. R: Imigrante
10. T: Muy bien↑
"Very good"
11. JA: "Bilingual"↑ ((Pronouncing it in Spanish))
12. T: Bilingual ((Recasting English pronunciation))
13. JA: Bilingual ((Pronouncing in English))
14. T: [¿Cómo se] dice?
"How do you say it?"
15. JA: [Bilingüe]
16. R: [Bilingüe]
17. M: Muy bien↑
"Very good"

B.

3.28.16 Cycle 1 Semantics Part 1 10:40 - 11:19

1. T: Entonces antes de antes de de empezar (.) miren las palabras↑ (.) e identifiquen cuáles son cognates↑ (.) Okay↑ Look for the cognates (.) Which words are (.) very similar in English and Spanish?
"So before starting, look at the words, and identify which of them are cognates?"
2. (2.0)
3. R: Directions (.) dirección↑
4. T: De las palabras↑ (.) éstas (.) mira de éstas ((pointing at his glossary)) de las palabras [(.) de vocabulario
"From the words, these ones, look, these ones. The words in your glossary."
5. R: [Invisible]
6. T: Okay↑
7. R: Invisible ((Said it in Spanish))
8. T: Invisible (.) muy bien↑ Dirección [también (.) tenías razón.

9.	R:	"Invisible, very good. Dirección, too. You were right." [Power - poder]
10.	T:	Mu::y bien↑ "Very good"
11.	J:	((Showing her glossary to the teacher)) No ve que no puedo encontrar una (.) Turn? "Don't you see that I can't find any."
12.	R:	[Turn - Vuelta]
13.	T:	[Turn - turno]
14.	R:	¿Turno?
15.	T:	<u>Turno</u>

Excerpt 5.2. Guided Cognate Identification

In example 5.2B, the teacher followed a similar instructional sequence as the one presented in example 5.2A, but she altered the order in which she used Spanish and English to present the instructions. As discussed in chapter 4, there was no predetermined function or order in her use of these languages. After a 2 second pause, Roberto proposed a relationship between "directions/dirección." These words were taken from one of the worksheets he had in his binder. The teacher did not initially accept this contribution, and asked him to look at his glossary. He identified other cognates in the glossary ("invisible/invisible; poder/power"), and his contributions were followed by the teacher's positive feedback.

In turn 11, Johanna, who had been disengaged in the prior cognate identification activity, complained that she couldn't find any cognates, but then proposed the word "turn". The fact that this word is used in everyday language may have helped Johanna relate it to its Spanish counterpart. She could find it challenging to establish relationships between English academic terminology and its Spanish counterparts, since she had not received instruction in Spanish. The word "turn" was included in the vocabulary list due to its polysemy. While turn has diverse meanings in English, there are different words in Spanish

for each English meaning. Roberto related turn to “vuelta,” and was surprised to see that it could also be related to “turno.” This polysemy is novel to Spanish speaking students (Brisk & Harrington, 2007; Carlo, 2004), so it was emphasized in this lesson.

In the examples presented in excerpt 5.2 there was agreement among participants about the proposed cognate relationships. The following two excerpts illustrate instances in which there was disagreement.

5.2.16 Cycle 1 Morphology Part 1 0:51 - 1:24

1. T: Poder is a cognate (.)right?(.) Poder is a cognate of power.
2. R: Kind of
3. T: It's a cognate
4. T: Kind of? (.) Why kind of?
5. R: Porque no tiene las mismas letras
"Because it doesn't have the same letters"
6. (1.0)
7. J: Pero cognate () tiene las dos primeras letras
"But cognate () it has the first two letters"
8. T: Las dos primeras letras
"The first two letters"
...
13. T: Entonces poder y power se parecen en algo[↑] como dice Johanna tienen las dos primeras letras
"So poder and power have some similarities. Like Johanna says they have the first two letters."
?

Excerpt 5.3. Paying closer attention to similarities and differences between English and Spanish Cognates.

Excerpt 5.3 took place when the word “power” was reintroduced during the morphology lesson in cycle 1. In turn 1, the teacher established that “poder” and “power” were cognates, and in the following turn Roberto questioned this assertion. His questioning created the opportunity to look at the word structure in more detail. Johanna proposed that these words shared the first two letters, and the teacher agreed with her. Between turns 8 and 12, Roberto’s attention to this comment was deviated because Joseph asked him an unrelated

question. In turn 13, the teacher summarized Johanna's comment, and continued the lesson without encouraging students to consider the last three letters in this word. Although, the teacher frequently prompted students to establish cognate relationships, there was no instructional time dedicated to a more in-depth analysis of these relationships.

Excerpt 5.4, from the semantics lesson in cycle 2, provides another instance in which going quickly through the glossary to identify cognates led to missed learning opportunities. Furthermore, this excerpt also provides evidence that this activity could be frustrating for students who were not familiar with the words in either language. The problematic nature of this activity when students do not know the words in either language was also evidenced in Johanna's disengagement in the first cognate recognition activity (example 5.2A), and in her comments in the second one (example 5.2B).

5.24.16 Cycle 2 Semantics Part 1 4:05 - 4:50

1. T: Miren estas palabras y (.) cuéntenme cuáles (.) son (.) cognates↑ ¿Cuáles de [estas palabras]
"Look at these words and tell me which are cognates. Which of these words"
2. JA: [No está en español↑
"It's not in Spanish"
3. T: Busca cuáles se te parecen al español (.) ¿Cuáles son cognates ahí?
"Look for the words that look similar to Spanish. Which words are cognates there?"
4. (2.0)
5. J: Umm [Unión]
"Union"
6. JA: [No hay] ninguno
"There are none"
7. J: union (.) union (.) This↑ ((Poining at her glossary))
8. R: Yeah (.) Union
9. JA: Miss esto (.) esto no está en español?
"Miss is this, is this not in Spanish?"
10. T: Pero cuáles se te parecen al español? (.)Union dicen que es un cognate?
But, which ones do you find similar to Spanish? Union you say that is a cognate?
11. J: Sí. [Union]
"Yes, union."
12. R: [Vote] (.) vote ((pronounced in Spanish))
"Vote vote"
13. T: Vote (.)Votar (.) Ajá
"vote vote, aha"
14. J: Marche (.) march (.) marche!
"March, march, march"
15. T: Marcha
"March"
16. JA: No entiendo! >Solo entiendo español<
"I don't understand. I only understand Spanish."

?

Excerpt 5.4. Difficulties and Disagreements Identifying Cognates

In excerpt 5.4, James, who had successfully identified cognates in the first lesson, complained that the glossary was in English and that he only understood Spanish. In line 1 the teacher introduced the instructions in Spanish, and James overlapped with her to establish that the glossary was not in Spanish. This move is similar to the repair initiation moves that were discussed in chapter 4 in which James changed the language of interaction by requesting Spanish. Since in this case, his problem in understanding was located in the

material presented to him, the teacher asked him to use his Spanish knowledge to find cognates. In this opportunity, he was not able to draw on this knowledge as can be observed in turn 9 in which he repeated the Spanish request, and in turn 16 in which he asserted that he only understood Spanish. In this last turn, his tone suggests that he was frustrated, since he said (“no entiendo/I don’t understand”) in a louder tone, and then spoke quicker when he expressed that he only understood Spanish.

This excerpt also suggests that having students relate the target vocabulary words to their Spanish counterparts led the teacher to adopt a narrow approach, and only accept cognate relationships with the target words. In this sense, Roberto and Johanna proposed the following cognates: “union/uni6n, vote/vote, and march/marche.” As can be seen in turn 10, the teacher did not evaluate whether “union” had been correctly identified as a cognate. Roberto and Johanna used the common meaning of “union” to establish the cognate relationship. The vocabulary word that was being introduced referred to union as a worker organization, which in Spanish is “sindicato.” Later in the conversation, the teacher established that “union” was a false cognate for “sindicato,” and did not discuss the polysemy of this word, as she had in the prior cycle when they discussed the word “turn.”

Turns 13 and 15 indicate that the teacher disagreed with Roberto and Johanna’s cognate identification for the words “vote” and “march.” In turn 13, she responded to Roberto’s cognate identification “vote/vote” by recasting it as “vote/votar.” She also corrected Johanna’s cognate identification “march/marche,” by establishing the word “marcha” in turn 15. Roberto and Johanna had identified correct cognates, but the teacher was expecting other Spanish words: “votar” and “marcha.”

Having students individually identify cognates from a word list, limited opportunities for further exploration of cognate relationships. For example, Roberto's questioning of the cognate association between "power" and "poder," suggests that students would benefit from discussing the orthographic and semantic similarities between pairs of words in English and Spanish. Furthermore, the disagreements between the teacher's expected cognate relationships and students proposed relationships in excerpt 5.4, could have been affordances to establish semantic relationships between different forms of the words "vote" and "march." These relationships were made evident in the different Spanish counterparts that were proposed for these words.

The affordances provided by the cross-linguistic analysis in the cognate identification activity were not fully exploited. It would have been beneficial to examine different related words, which is an important aspect of in depth semantics instruction (Proctor, 2011). Furthermore, rather than identifying cognates in a glossary list, it would also have been fruitful to have students find cognates situated in the context of sentences. This would have provided a more authentic opportunity to use their cognate knowledge to engage with English texts.

James' difficulties identifying cognates in excerpt 5.4 indicate that cognate identification depends on students' vocabulary knowledge in their dominant language. It is probable that James had trouble identifying cognates in excerpt 5.4 because he was not familiar with these words in Spanish. There were other instances in which James spontaneously identified cognates, thus suggesting that he had appropriated the strategy of using his knowledge of Spanish to understand words in English. The following excerpt illustrates these spontaneous cognate relationships:

A.

5.9.16 Cycle 1 Morphology Part 2 & Syntax Part 1 26:05 – 26:56



1. R: (Reading ppt) Adjectives
2. T: Adjectives
3. R: I know what is that.
4. T: What's what's an adjective?
5. R: That's something that you do[↑]
6. V & J: ((are reading definition from the PowerPoint))
7. V: Como
"Like"
8. R: Something that you [feel]
9. JA: [Adjetivo]
10. R: where you go es [things something]
11. JA: [Miss (.) in Spanish[↑] is[↑] (.) adjetivo
"adjective"]
12. T: Adjetivo
"Adjective"

B.

5.23.16 Cycle 1 Writing 12:15 – 12:37

1. T: Entonces les quiero mostrar las partes[↑] (.) las partes de este párrafo (.) Los (.) párrafos de opinión tienen (.) cuatro partes.
"So, I want to show you this paragraph's parts. Opinion paragraphs have four parts."
2. JA: ((Pointing at slide)) Posición[↑] posición[↑]
"Position, position."
3. T: La posición (.) Eso qué es? Este es un cognate. Cierto? Tú supiste que era posición porque [dice position]
"The position. What is this? This is a cognate. Right? You knew it was position, because it says position."
4. R: [Oh yeah (.) position[↑]]
5. JA: Positio:::n
6. T: Entonces una parte importante del opinion paragraph is (.) the position (.) your position. [tú opinión]
"So, an important part in the opinion paragraph is the position, your position, your opinion."
7. R: [ción en inglés tiene t.
"ción in English has a t."

?

Excerpt 5.5. Spontaneous Cognate Identification

Example 5.5A took place during the introduction to the syntax lesson in Cycle 1, which was focused on adjective placement. The teacher opened the PowerPoint presentation, and all students, except Joseph, started reading the slide. In turn 1, Roberto read the title of the slide, and he used English to say that he knew what an adjective meant. This prompted the teacher to ask him in English for the definition. While Roberto proposed his definition, Johanna and Valentina read the definition from the slide, and James connected the word “adjective” to its Spanish counterpart “adjetivo,” as illustrated in turns 9 and 11. In turn 11, James, who typically chose Spanish, used English, which was the main language of interaction in this sequence, and overlapped with Roberto to let her know that he had identified a cognate. Roberto and James’ engagement with this slide suggests their attention to language, which was something that was cultivated during these lessons. Although inaccurately, Roberto attempted to define “adjective” using his own words rather than reading the definition on the slide, and James identified a Spanish cognate for this word.

Example 5.5B took place during the writing lesson in Cycle 1. In turn 1, the teacher opened an English-only PowerPoint presentation to introduce the different components of an opinion paragraph. Although the presentation was in English, she talked about it in Spanish. After this introduction, James connected the word “position,” which appeared in the presentation to its Spanish version “posición.” While in Excerpt A the teacher acknowledged the relationship without reminding students that “adjective” and “adjetivo” were cognates, in excerpt 5.5B she explained that James was able to identify the word “posición” in Spanish because he had established a cognate relationship. In turn 5, James repeated the word “position” in English elongating its last syllable, which is where the

difference between the English and Spanish versions of this word is located. The teacher continued her instruction in turn 6, while Roberto explicitly stated the main difference between these two words in turn 7 (“ción en inglés tiene t/ ción in English has a t”).

Although, James was just developing his vocabulary in English, he was able to successfully identify cognates if he was familiar with the word in Spanish. Excerpt 5.5 suggests that knowledge of the word in either language, plus awareness of the cognate identification strategy (Carlo et al 2004; Jimenez, García & Pearson, 1995), enables students to successfully establish cognates relationships. The awareness of cognate relationships in students who are just starting to gain experience in the new language, helps them connect their prior word knowledge with new vocabulary.

The examples of spontaneous cognate identification presented in excerpt 5.5 also illustrate how James combined his well-developed language skills in Spanish with his emergent skills in English to meaningfully participate in these lessons. In both examples, he extracted relevant information from the English-only slides and connected it to his prior knowledge in Spanish. His participation suggests how he engaged in translanguaging to make sense of the content that was being presented. Translanguaging was made manifest in his use of Spanish to mediate his understanding of English content by establishing cognate relations.

In summary, cognate recognition enabled some of the students in this group to establish lexical connections across English and Spanish. The guided cognate identification activities described in this section were aimed at modelling how translanguaging may be used to unlock word meanings in the other language. This is a common approach to supporting students in using their home languages to learn content in a new language

(Cummins, 2013; Hayes, Rueda & Chilton, 2009; White & Horst, 2010). Three of the students participating in these lesson cycles benefitted from this strategy, as is suggested by their talk about target vocabulary and other related words in which they appropriated this strategy. However, the other two students, Valentina and Joseph, never explicitly engaged in cognate identification. Since these two students had different experiences with English and Spanish, being Valentina's experience similar to James, and Joseph's similar to Johanna's, there may be other individual differences, in addition to language experience, influencing their engagement in cognate identification.

Morphology Instruction

Morphology instruction during these lesson cycles was aimed at deepening students' word knowledge by developing awareness of root words and their suffixes. Additionally, it sought to promote the establishment of cross-linguistic relationships between English and Spanish morphology by presenting content bilingually. Instruction focused on the derivational aspect of morphology, which involves the addition of a morpheme (affix) to a base word to change its part of speech or meaning (Kuo & Anderson, 2006). For example, adding the suffix –ful or –less to the word power to change it into an adjective (powerful/powerless). Children start to develop awareness of derivational morphology around third grade (Kuo & Anderson, 2006). Derivational morphology has been found to support word reading and reading comprehension because it enables readers to decode complex words, and use their morphological knowledge to deduce the meaning of new words by analyzing its morphemes (Carlisle, 2000; Kuo & Anderson, 2006, Ramírez, Chen, & Paquarella, 2013).

Morphology lessons were organized in two activities: (1) explicit instruction in which the morphological structure was presented via a bilingual PowerPoint presentation, and (2) guided or independent practice in which students were engaged in activities in which they used the morphological structures. The morphology lesson in cycle 1 focused on the suffixes –ful, and its Spanish version –*ado/-ada/-oso/-osa*, and –less, which in Spanish may be –*des* for some words, and in other cases two words are needed. For example, there is no exact Spanish equivalent for the word “powerless.” The closest translation encompasses two words: “*sin poder*.” During the morphology lesson in cycle 2 the noun person forming suffixes –*er/-or* and their Spanish versions –*dor/-dora/-or/-ora* were discussed.

Translanguaging was made evident in students’ talk about morphology in two ways: (1) translating the suffix, and (2) analyzing morphemes in English and Spanish by comparing and contrasting them. These two ways of cross-linguistically engaging with morphology will be discussed in the following two sub-sections.

Translating the Suffix

One way in which students displayed their understanding of English suffixes was by providing their Spanish counterpart. The teacher did not encourage these translations, since the English suffixes introduced in these lessons had more than one Spanish counterpart. As can be seen in excerpt 5.6, James established one to one relationships between the suffix –ful and its Spanish counterparts (–*oso/osa/ado/ada*).

A.

5.9.16 Cycle 1 Morphology Part 2 & Syntax Part 1 2:50 - 3:01



1. T: Basketful
2. JA: [Basketful]
3. T: [Basket] (.) [es la canasta, ful]
4. R: [I thought you were] gonna say basketball
5. T: ((smiles))
6. J: ((Laughs))
7. JA: Canasta↑
8. R: Basket
9. JA: O sea que ful↑ (.) está significando en español el da
10. T: Aquí significa canastada

B.

5.9.16 Cycle 1 Morphology Part 2 & Syntax Part 16:39 - 17:09

1. JA: Oh:::: Miss
2. (3.0)
3. T: Dime James tienes otra pregunta?
"Tell me James, do you have another question?"
4. (10.0) ((James stands up, takes his binder, and walks to the teacher's side))
5. JA: Esto qué es?
"What is this?"
6. M: Mira (.) mira esto aquí
"Look, look at this here"
7. JA: Cuidadoso
"Careful"
8. (1.0)
9. M: Cuidadoso (.) careful (.) Qué significa ful?
"Careful" "What does ful mean?"
10. (3.0)
11. JA: oso
"ful"
12. T: Oso (.) [que es↑]
"ful what is"
13. JA: [oh:::::] entonces hay que poner
"so you have to write"

Excerpt 5.6. Translating the Suffix

Example 5.6A took place during the morphology presentation in Cycle 1 in which different examples were presented in English and Spanish to introduce the suffix -ful and its Spanish counterparts (-oso/osa/ado/ada). In turn 1, the teacher presented the word *basketful*, which James repeated in turn 2. In turn 3, the teacher segmented the word in “basket” and “ful,” and related the word “basket” to its Spanish counterpart “canasta”. After an off-topic comment by Roberto in turn 4, James repeated the word “canasta” in turn 7, and in turn 9, pointed at the computer, and explained that “-ful” meant “-da,” in Spanish. James’ talk in turn 9 reflects his engagement in translanguaging to make sense of the new morpheme “-ful,” by using his knowledge of the Spanish morpheme “-da” to check his understanding of the English morpheme. In turn 10, the teacher qualified his comment by letting him know that, in that case, his interpretation was correct (“Aquí significa.../Here it means..”).

Example 5.6B presents another instance in which James expressed his understanding of the English suffix -ful by providing its Spanish equivalent. In this case students were working independently or in pairs in a worksheet in which they were asked to use their knowledge of the target suffixes (-ful/-less/-oso/-osa/-ado/-ada/-des) to figure out word meanings (View Figure 5.1). This activity required students to parse words in their root and suffix, and define them by drawing on their morphological knowledge. The Spanish and English version of the word were included for the applicable cases (e.g. *careful* and *cuidadoso*). When this was not possible the word was presented in English (e.g. *blameless*), and a Spanish hint was provided (e.g. *culpa*).

Day 3

Word Meanings

Word	Root	Suffix	Meaning
blameless			(Spanish hint: culpa)
Fearful <i>Miedoso</i>			
Aimless			(Spanish hint: meta)
Colorful <i>Colorido</i>			
Purposeful			(Spanish hint: propósito)
breathless			(Spanish hint: respiración)
doubtless			(Spanish hint: duda)
Careful <i>Cuidadoso</i>			

Figure 5.1. Word Meanings Worksheet

In example 5.6B James, who was working independently, sought the teacher’s assistance. In turn 1, he called the teacher, and when the teacher asked him if he had another question he walked to her with his binder. In turn 3, he showed a word in the worksheet to the teacher and asked for its meaning. From the teacher’s response in turn 6, it is possible to infer that he was referring to the word “careful”, since she guided him to look at its Spanish version, as reflected in James’ response in turn 7 in which he said “cuidadoso.” After a one-second pause the teacher said the English and Spanish version of the word in question, and asked James for the meaning of “-ful.” James, instead of providing a definition, contributed a translation of the applicable suffix in this case “-oso.” The teacher repeated the question about the meaning, but James was focused on figuring out how to complete the chart.

These two examples illustrate how James sought to connect new knowledge about suffixes across languages. In this case he was doing literal translations in which his attention was focused on the form, rather than on the meaning of the suffix. In this sense, he was able to relate the suffix “-ful” to its Spanish counterparts “ada/oso,” but he had more difficulties explicitly defining these suffixes. These translations are similar to what has been described as bilingual label quests (Martin, 1999) in which bilingual students show their word knowledge by juxtaposing the label for a word in one language to the label in the other language. For instance, in example 5.6B, James showed his knowledge of the suffix -ful, by providing its Spanish label -oso.

Analyzing Morphemes

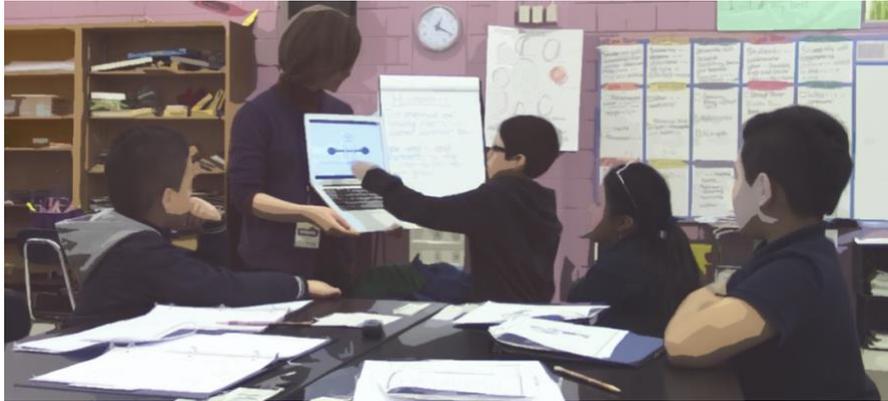
Another way in which students used their two languages to make sense of morphology was by noticing differences in the morphological structures in each language during the PowerPoint presentation. As will be illustrated in the following excerpts, student talk during these presentations suggests their engagement in analyzing the morphemes by comparing and contrasting the structures in Spanish and English.

The following excerpt was taken from the introduction to cycle 1 morphology lesson. This excerpt took place when the teacher introduced the suffix -less using the slide illustrated in figure 5.2.



Figure 5.2. Slide Introducing Suffix -less

5.2.16 Cycle 1 Morphology Part 1 21:41 – 22:27



1. T: en español no puedes volver la palabra (.) una sola palabra (.) necesitas dos (.) sin poder (.) ((To James)) Dime? *"In Spanish you cannot turn the word into a single word. You need two words sin poder. ((To James)) Tell me?"*
2. JA: ((Standing from his seat and going to the front to point at the ppt.)) Eh eso está (.) eso está (.) cómo se dice? (.) no no está (.) cabal (.) porque (.) esto(.) esta letra[↑] es primero (.) en español va acá (.) y power es poder (.) así que no está separado y está al principio. *"That does, that does, how do you say it? Does not make sense. Because in Spanish this, this letter goes first, in Spanish it goes here, and power is poder, so it is not separated and it is at the beginning."*
3. T: Exacto es distinto (.) Muy bien. *"Exactly it is different. Very good."*
4. JA: No está (.) está así[↑] (.) porque less debería estar acá (.) y power acá ((pointing at how less and power should be located if we followed Spanish morphology/syntax)) *"It is not, it is like this, because less should be here and power here."*
5. T: Ves? [En inglés es al contrario] muy bien. *"You see. In English it is the opposite. Very good."*
6. R: [Es como decir poder sin] *"It is like saying power(poder) less (sin)"*
7. JA: Es al revés[↑] *"It is the other way around"*
8. T: Es al revés (.) Y en inglés es una sola palabra y en español son dos. *"It is the other way around. And in English it is one single word and in Spanish there are two words."*

?

Excerpt 5.7. Comparing English and Spanish Morpheme Placement

Excerpt 5.7 illustrates how James and Roberto used their Spanish language knowledge to discuss the new English morphological structure. In the first turn in this

excerpt, the teacher used Spanish to compare both languages by pointing out that while in English a single word (“powerless”) could be used to mean “without power,” in Spanish two words were needed. While she was explaining this, James raised his hand and the teacher called him. In turn 2, James stood up from his seat to comment on the slide. He introduced his comment with the phrase “esto no está cabal/this doesn’t make sense,” which suggests that he was trying to understand the content of the slide. Then, he explained that the word order was different in both languages, and also mentioned the difference that the teacher had proposed in turn 1. The teacher agreed with his comment and, in the following turn, James expanded his explanation by showing how the word powerless should look like if it were equivalent to its Spanish version. The teacher summarized James’ analysis by establishing that word order in English was the opposite from Spanish, and Roberto overlapped with her to show how the word would look in Spanish if it followed English word order (“poder sin”). In turn 7, James’ expressed excitement as suggested by his upward intonation, when he concluded that, compared to Spanish, these morphemes were placed the other way around in English. His verbal and non-verbal language in this turn indicate that the slide now made sense to him. In the following turn, the teacher agreed with this, and restated the difference she had mentioned during the first turn in this sequence.

Although the sequence presented in excerpt 5.7 is in Spanish-only, James and Roberto were cognitively engaged with both languages. Translanguaging was made evident in their cross-linguistic analysis in which they compared morphemes in both languages. The opportunity to talk about the differences between English and Spanish enabled James to build a new understanding of these morphemes. As was illustrated in this

excerpt, he started off manifesting his confusion in turn 2 (“esto no está cabal/this doesn’t make sense”), and ended expressing his understanding of the differences he had observed on the slide (“es al revés/it’s the other way around”).

Excerpt 5.8 presents another instance in which students identified differences between Spanish-English morphological structures. This excerpt took place during the cycle 2 morphology presentation in which the suffixes *-er/-or* and their Spanish versions *-dor/-dora/-or/-ora* were introduced. Figure 5.3 presents the slide that was discussed in this excerpt.



Figure 5.3. Slide Introducing Suffixes *er/-or -dor/-dora/-or/-ora*

The slide illustrated in figure 5.3 was the last one in the presentation. Before this, other examples using an equivalent format had been presented. Although the gender inflection was highlighted in all the Spanish examples (e.g. profes**or**/profes**ora**; ase**ador**/ase**adora**), the teacher had not explained that noun person forming suffixes in Spanish included information about gender.

10.26.16 Cycle 2 Morphology 12:32 - 13:12

1. T: So do you see the (.) Do you see? (.) When we add the (.) those suffixes we change [the words↑]
2. J: [Pero es (.)] alguien como (.) como (.) eh eh (.) como varón↑ y hembra (.) ponen -dora para hembra y -dor [para varón]
"But it is someone like, like a male and a female, they put -dora for female and -dor for male"
3. JA: [-do:::↑r↑]
4. T: Okay (.) Entonces (.)eh look at what Johanna is saying (.) Pónganle atención a Johanna (.) En inglés↑ (.) tú no:: (.) tu no (.) no hay una distinción de si es hombre o mujer↑
"Okay. So, look at what Johanna is saying. Pay attention to Johanna. In English you don't, there is no distinction whether it is a man or a woman."
5. V: Umju
"Umhu"
6. T: En español sí↑(.) Entonces en español tienes que agregar una "o" para designar que es un [hombre o una "a"]
"In Spanish, there is. So, in Spanish you have to add an 'o' to designate that it is a man r an 'a'."
7. V: [cazador y cazadora]
"hunter((male)) and
hunter((female))"
8. R: Porque en inglés uno no dice huntir!
"Because in English one doesn't say huntir"
9. J: ((laughs))
10. R: uno dice hunter
"one says hunter"
11. T: Exacto
"Exactly"

?

Excerpt 5.8. Comparing English and Spanish Inflections Related to Gender

Excerpt 5.8 illustrates how placing English and Spanish morphemes alongside each other on the PowerPoint slide stimulated students to compare and contrast morphology in both languages. In the first turn in this excerpt, the teacher used English to finish the presentation by pointing out that words changed when the suffix was added. Johanna overlapped with her to comment that the Spanish suffix -dora was used for females, while the suffix -dor was used for males. In turn 4 the teacher switched to Spanish, and called the group's attention to Johanna's comment. She used her comment as a starting point to present the differences in inflectional morphology between Spanish and English. Valentina

demonstrated her understanding of this difference by overlapping with the teacher to contribute an example. In turn 8, Roberto proposed an invented word to emphasize the contrast. He explained that a word such as “huntir” which, according to his proposal would denote gender, did not exist in English.

In excerpts 5.7 and 5.8, translanguaging was made manifest in students’ cognitive engagement in the morphology presentations. Their talk in which they compared and contrasted morphemes in English and Spanish indicates that placing these languages alongside each other in the PowerPoint presentations stimulated students to analyze and discuss morphological differences across languages. These excerpts also show, that the main language of interaction was Spanish. The availability of this language enabled students to choose the language they felt most comfortable using to share their ideas about morphology. In these discussions, the English language became an object to be analyzed. The opportunity to talk about English in Spanish made the abstract nature of language more concrete. This enabled students to manipulate morphemes by comparing and contrasting them.

Syntax Instruction

Syntax instruction during these lesson cycles was deliberately designed to stimulate students’ awareness of the contrast between syntactic structures in English and Spanish. Two contrasting structures were introduced: adjective placement and subject pronouns. Adjective placement contrasts in these two languages since adjectives are placed before the noun in English (e.g. **blue** car) while, in Spanish, they are typically placed after the noun (e.g. carro **azul**). Subject pronouns are also different for these languages because while, in English it is always necessary to use a subject pronoun (e.g. **We** went to the

movies), in Spanish there are instances in which the information about the person is contained in the verb conjugation (e.g. Fuimos a cine). It was expected, that by raising students' awareness of these contrasting features, they would develop a deeper understanding of syntax in both languages.

Target syntactic structures were analyzed in the context of each lesson cycle text, as well as in other activities. For example, during cycle 1 the poem “Relaxing/*Relajando*,” (Medina, 1999) which has rich descriptive language as can be seen in an excerpt from the poem presented in Figure 5.4, was used as an entry point to introduce the differences in adjective placement in English and Spanish. During Cycle 2, students were engaged in analyzing sentences from the Spanish and English version of the text, *Yes, We Can!//Si se puede!*(Cohen, 2005) that illustrated the contrast in subject pronouns. As in morphology lessons, syntax lessons were organized in two main activities: (1) explicit instruction of the syntax structure via a PowerPoint presentation, and (2) guided or independent practice in which students were engaged in activities using the syntax structure.

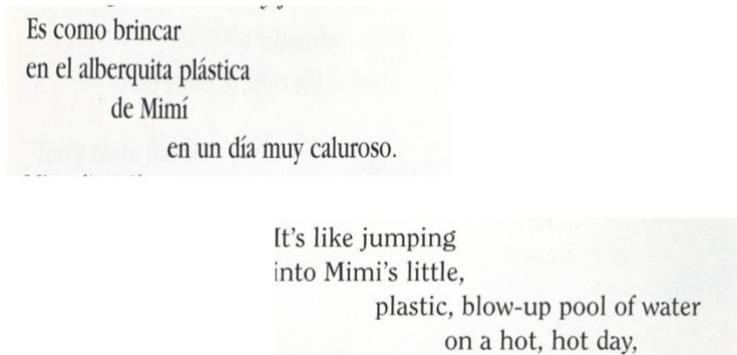


Figure 5.4. Example of Contrasting Descriptive Language in an excerpt from the Poem “Relaxing/Relajando” by Jane Medina

Translanguaging was made evident in students' talk about syntax in two different ways: (1) by analyzing similarities and differences in syntactic structures in English and Spanish, and (2) by exploring alternative syntactic constructions. These two ways of cross-linguistically engaging with syntax will be discussed in the following two sub-sections.

Analyzing Syntactic Structures

During explicit syntax instruction, students actively participated in the PowerPoint presentation by contributing their insights regarding the similarities and differences in English and Spanish syntax. Excerpt 5.9 from the introduction to the syntax lesson in cycle 1 illustrates students' engagement in comparing and contrasting adjective placement in English and Spanish. The conversation sequence presented in this excerpt is based on the slide illustrated in Figure 5.5. As can be seen in this figure adjectives were introduced using images and bilingual legends.



Figure 5.5. Slide Introducing Adjective Placement

It is relevant to note the second Spanish example presented in this slide (“juguete plástico”) English and Spanish syntax were mixed. Although the adjectives were placed following Spanish syntax, the grammatically correct way of referring to a plastic toy in Spanish is “juguete de plástico.”

5.9.16 Cycle 1 Morphology Part 2 & Syntax Part 1 26:56 - 27:52



1. T: ((Showing ppt slide)) Entonces por ejemplo acá↑ (1.0)
[plastic bottle]
"So for example here"
2. JA: [plastic bottle]
3. T: Entonces (.) estamos describiendo la botella (.) La botella es plástica (.) right? Botella plástica.
"So, we are describing the bottle. The bottle is plastic, right? Plastic bottle."
4. J: Plástica
"Plastic"
5. (1.0)
6. T: [Plastic toy] (1.0) [juguete plástico]
"Plastic toy"
7. R: [Juguete de plástico]
"Toy made of plastic"
8. JO: [So it's an adjective]
9. T: It's an adjective(.)right? We are [describing the] bottle
10. J: ((pointing at the ppt.)) [Estas dan vuelta](.) dan vuelta porque aquí dice plastic y aquí plástica
"These turn around because it says plastic here and plástica here."
11. JA: ((Standing up and going to the front to point at the ppt)) Mire↑ botella acá está en español [()]
"Look botella is here in Spanish"
12. R: [Eso era lo]
que yo le iba a mostrar↑
"That is what I was going to show you"
13. JA: y acá (.) está juguete en inglés y acá está en español
"and here toy is in English and here it is in Spanish"
14. T: Muy bien (.) Muy bien (.) Entonces eh ustedes (.) [ustedes analizaron eso]
"Very good. Very good. So you all, you all analyzed this"

15. R:	((Pointing at the computer)) [esta botella está aquí↑] y la otra botella está acá↑ "This bottle is here, and the other bottle is here"
16. T:	en español los adjetivos se ponen al <u>final</u> (.) <u>después</u> de la palabra que están describiendo (.) y en inglés se ponen <u>antes</u> "in Spanish adjectives are placed at the end, after the word they are describing, and English they are placed before"
19. R:	Es como <u>decir</u> ↑ plástica botella↑ en inglés "It's like saying plastic bottle in English"

Excerpt 5.9. Comparing Adjective Placement in English and Spanish

In the first turn in excerpt 5.9 the teacher introduced the example presented in figure 5.6 in order to illustrate how adjectives were used to describe a noun. She presented examples in English and Spanish, and students showed their engagement in the presentation by repeating the words that the teacher emphasized and commenting the presentation. In turn 7, Roberto contributed the correct way of referring to a plastic toy in Spanish ("juguete de plástico"). In turn 10, Johanna overlapped with the teacher to establish that adjectives were placed differently in English and Spanish. As can be seen in the picture from the video, she pointed at the PowerPoint presentation to show that in English, "plastic" was placed before "bottle," while in Spanish "plástica," was placed after "botella." In the following turn, James stood up and went to the computer to also point these differences out, and Roberto overlapped with him to establish that he was also going to show this difference to the group. In turn 16 the teacher recognized their abilities analyzing language, and as in the examples discussed in the prior section, Roberto highlighted the contrast between languages in turn 17 by proposing a literal Spanish translation (plástica botella).

As in the morphology example discussed in excerpt 5.8, placing English and Spanish alongside each other in the syntax presentation prompted students to compare and contrast these languages. Their talk about the differences in adjective placement in these languages suggests that they were actively processing the information conveyed to them. This bilingual presentation generated discussion by exposing students to a contrast that captured their attention. This contrast enabled them to use their knowledge of both languages to analyze adjective placement.

In excerpt 5.9, students were not directly asked to identify the contrast, but rather the bilingual presentation implicitly prompted them to do so. The following excerpts illustrate students' engagement in an activity in which they were explicitly asked to identify differences between Spanish and English sentences. This activity took place during the cycle 2 syntax lesson. After introducing a graphic organizer with pronouns in both languages, the teacher had students compare sentences from *Yes, We Can!* (Cohen, 2005), and "Kiana's Story" that illustrated the differences in subject pronouns in both languages (view figure 5.6). These comparisons generated discussions in which students proposed other differences in addition to the use of pronouns.

- **We** are going to let those offices get dirtier and dirtier.
- **Vamos** a dejar que las oficinas se pongan cada vez más sucias.
- **We** went on strike on Black Friday.
- **Hicimos** huelga en el **Viernes Negro**.
- **They** retaliated on January 13.
- **Retaliaron** el 13 de enero.

Figure 5.6. Slide Presenting Sentences

Excerpt 5.10 presents the discussion that took place when students were asked to compare the first sentence in figure 5.6 (We are going to let those offices get dirtier and dirtier/Vamos a dejar que las oficinas se pongan cada vez más sucias).



1. R: Oh[↑] porque mire (.) ((leans forward to point at ppt)) en inglés usted dice get dirty and dirty (.) ahh (2.0) y en español es::
"Oh! Because look, in English you say get dirty and dirty, and in Spanish it is"
- (1.0)
4. V: sucias
"dirty"
5. R: más sucias[↑] (.) más[↑]
"more dirty, more"
6. T: Bueno (.) [Eso es una buena] diferencia que me (.) y qué otra diferencia hay?
"Okay, that is a good difference. And what other difference is there?"
7. R: [más sucias y sucias]
"more dirty and dirty"
8. V: En inglés también puedes [poner lo mismo que puso en español]
"In English you can also write the same that was written in Spanish."
9. T: [De lo que estamos aprendiendo] De lo que estamos aprendiendo ahora qué diferencia hay?
"About what we're learning. About what we're learning now what other difference is there."
10. T: Ehh Roberto (.) [ehh James]
11. JA: ((Leans on table and points at ppt)) [De que (.)] de que en inglés esto se pronuncia (.) se pronuncia (.) dos veces [porque] (.) ((puts his head on the table)) porque:::
"That in English this is pronounced twice because"
12. V: [What?]
13. (5.0) ((JA hits his fist against his forehead))
14. JA: No sé la palabra en español ((Sits back at his chair, and puts his head on the table))
"I don't know the word in Spanish"
15. T: Se repite? (.) Más veces?

16. JA:	<p>"It is repeated. More times" ((Leans on the table and points at ppt.)) Se (.) se (.) repite y ésta no porque ésta es una [sola vez] Y acá dos veces[porque↑ porque↑ "It is repeated and this one isn't, since it is only written once. And here it is twice because."</p>
17. T:	<p>[Bueno] "Okay"</p>
18. V:	<p>[Y usted también] puede poner la en español con dos <u>de sucias</u>↑ "And you can also write the one in Spanish using the word dirty twice"</p>
19. R:	<p>((stands up from his seat raising his hand)) Oh::: ↑ <u>yo</u> la conozco↑ "Oh! I know"</p>
20. T:	<p>A ver "Let's see"</p>
21. R:	<p>Mire porque (.) ahí dice(.)We are going to let those offices get dirty and dirty (.) y y (.) y como si (.) aquí está mal traducido↑ (.) porque si aquí hay dos (.) si <u>éste</u> traducido (.) debería (.) debería decir We are going to let those offices get (.) more dirty↑ "Look because it says there: We are going to let those offices get dirty and dirty. It is like, it is not correctly translated here. Because if these is written twice, this translation should say: We are going to let those offices get more dirty!"</p>
22. T:	<p>Okay. ☒</p>

Excerpt 5.10. Identifying Differences in Comparative Language in English and Spanish

In the first turn in excerpt 5.10, Roberto identified a difference in the Spanish and English versions of the sentence related to comparative language. He started articulating this difference by identifying the contrasting aspect in the English version (dirty and dirty [sic]). This was followed by 2 second pause, and then he began to articulate how this English structure was different in Spanish. He paused again and Valentina suggested the word "sucias" in turn 4. Roberto excitedly incorporated this suggestion as conveyed in his upward intonation, and established that in contrast in Spanish it said "más sucias." Roberto's contribution during these first 5 turns indicates that he had identified a relevant contrast in Spanish and English comparative language, since the English comparative suffix -er does not exist in Spanish. In turn 6, the teacher let Roberto know that he had

identified a relevant contrasting feature between English and Spanish, but since this was not the difference she was looking for, she asked the group for another difference.

In turn 8, Valentina disagreed with the contrast in comparative language and proposed that the English version of the sentence could be literally translated to Spanish. The teacher did not engage with this comment, but instead overlapped with Valentina to ask students for a difference related to what they were learning in the lesson (e.g. subject pronouns). In turn 11, James focused again on the comparative language difference, and started finding the words to articulate this contrast. As can be seen in the image of the video, he was lightly pounding his forehead, like trying to find the idea that he wanted to say in his head. His pauses also indicate his effort searching for the language to articulate the difference. In turn 14, he gave up as expressed in his words (*no sé la palabra en español*/I don't know the word in Spanish), and in his body language (putting his head on the table). However, in the next turn, the teacher encouraged him to finish articulating his idea by suggesting some of the possible words that he was looking for. This prompted James to continue articulating the difference in the Spanish and English version of the sentence in turn 16.

Finally, in turn 19 Roberto excitedly let the group know that he had identified the difference. In turn 21, he pinpointed the contrast in comparative language use in English and Spanish by establishing that in English it should say “more dirty,” rather than “dirty and dirty [sic].” He used his Spanish prior knowledge to propose that the sentence “We are going to let those offices get dirtier and dirtier,” was incorrectly translated since the phrase “dirtier and dirtier,” should be translated as “more dirty/más sucias.” It is interesting that

he did not notice the –er suffix in “dirtier and dirtier.” He probably used his Spanish knowledge to judge the sentence, and overlooked this suffix.

Since comparative language was not the focus of the lesson, in the following turn, which was not included in Excerpt 5.10, the teacher let them know that they had identified another interesting syntactic structure to teach them, and started explaining the difference regarding subject pronouns. However, Roberto interrupted her to point out “we” and “vamos” on the slide but did not explain the difference. The teacher explained the difference, and presented another example (We went on strike on Black Friday/Hicimos huelga en el Viernes negro) which is conveyed in excerpt 5.11.

In the first turn in this excerpt the teacher asked students for the difference in the sentences. James asked for a turn, and he started articulating the contrast in pronoun use as can be seen in turn 5, but then he paused, and identified the contrast in adjective placement (Black Friday/Viernes negro). The teacher acknowledged this difference in turn 9, and in the next turn Roberto reminded the group that they had learned this in the lessons they had taken in third grade, and explained that adjectives in English were placed “al revés/backwards.” In turn 14, the teacher recognized Roberto’s comment by echoing it, and then asked him for another difference in the sentence. He started searching for a difference as suggested in his elongated (que::/tha::t), and, in the meantime, Valentina identified the difference in subject pronouns. In the following turn, the teacher explained this difference.

10.28.16 Cycle 2 Syntax 16:09 – 16:48

1. T: Qué quieres decir (.)Cuál es la diferencia entre estas dos oraciones?
"What do you want to say? What is the difference between these two sentences?"
2. JA: Puedo?
"May I"
3. T: Sí dime.
"Yes, tell me"
4. V: That's the same [thing]
5. JA: [De que] (.) de que (.) aquí↑ (.) no es lo mismo porque aquí es we and
"That here it is not the same thing because it is we and"
6. (2.0)
7. JA: de que [aquí (.)] aquí (1.0) umm aquí negro↑ está al principio que (.) Friday (.) y aquí negro está(.) de última
"That here black is before Friday and here black is after"
8. V: [No but]
9. T: Ah bueno entonces los [adjectives]
"Ah okay, so the adjectives"
10. R: [Eso lo] aprendimos en las clases de tercero
"We learned that in the classes we had in third grade"
11. T: de tercero
"third grade"
12. R: que es al [(.) esa letra es al revés]
"That it is, that letter is backwards"
13. JA: [Ajá (.) yeah (.) es al revés↑]
"Aha, yeah, it's backwards"
14. T: al revés (.) Y qué otra diferencia ves Roberto?
"It's backwards. And what other difference do you see?"
15. R: [Que::]
"That"
16. V: [Hicimos] and we
"Hicimos/we went"
17. (1.0)
18. T: Okay (.) Entonces si ven que en español uno en el verbo↑ (.) éste es el verbo (.) aquí↑ está contenido el pronombre (.) en cambio en inglés siempre tenemos que usar el pronombre.
"Okay. So, do you see that in Spanish the pronoun is contained in the verb, this is the verb, while in English we always need to use the pronoun."

?

Excerpt 5.11. Identifying Differences in Adjective Placement and Pronoun Use in English and Spanish

Students' engagement in this activity revealed that syntax structures such as adjective placement and comparative language in English and Spanish were highly

contrasting to them, while the contrast in subject pronouns was not so visible. After comparing these sentences from the text, the teacher presented the slides in figure 5.8 to further illustrate the difference in subject pronoun use in Spanish and English, by showing the contrast in verb conjugations in both languages. Excerpt 5.12 is the last part of a sequence in which students analyzed the verb conjugations on the two slides presented in figure 5.7.

In English you need the subject pronoun:			Subject pronouns are not always necessary in Spanish		
Subject Pronoun	Present	Past	Pronombre Personal	Presente	Pasado
I	go	went	Yo	Voy	Fui
You	go	went	Tu	Vas	Fuiste
He	goes	went	Usted	Va	Fue
She	goes	went	El/Ella	Va	Fue
It	goes	went	Nosotros	Vamos	Fuimos
We	go	went	Ustedes	Van	Fueron
You	go	went	Ellos	Van	Fueron
They	go	went			

Figure 5.7. Slide Illustrating Subject Pronouns and Verb Conjugations in English and Spanish

Before the sequence presented in excerpt 5.12, Roberto had asked the teacher to slow down her presentation because he wanted to try conjugating the verb “to go” in English. He covered his face in order to not see the slide, and did the conjugation. Valentina and James followed Roberto, and also conjugated this verb. After they had all tried conjugating the verb in English, the teacher presented the slide in Spanish, and covered the pronoun column, to show them that it was easier to figure out who the verb was referring to in Spanish. Without prompting them to do so, Roberto started going through the verbs in the middle column to identify the subject pronoun for each conjugation, and James and Valentina joined him. The three of them went through the conjugation of the verb “to

go/ir” in Spanish establishing which pronoun corresponded to each conjugation, for example, “voy - yo, vas - tu, etc.” There was some disagreement in the conjugations in which more than one pronoun corresponded, for example, “va - usted, él, ella,” since they expected that it was always single correspondence in all cases. Excerpt 5.12 conveys how Valentina concluded this sequence in which they had been exploring verb conjugations and subject pronouns in both languages.

10.28.16 Cycle 2 Syntax 22:13 – 22:34

1. V: Entonces en español sí podemos que umm se (.) signfica[↑] porque el español a veces (.) antes es más difícil[↑] que el inglés porque (.)usted en español se complica (.) como en español se tiene que hacer más (.) más (.) letras[↑]
“So, in Spanish we can ((know)) what is means. Spanish sometimes is more difficult than English, because in Spanish it gets complicated, like in Spanish there are more letters ((in the verb conjugation))”

2. T: Si ven? [se=]
“You see, it”

3. V: [A] cambio (.) a cambio en inglés usted no identifica eso porque solamente [dijera went, went, went, went]
While in English you do not identify that because it would only say: went went went went.”

4. R: [porque en inglés es go go go go]
“because in English it is go go go go”

?

Excerpt 5.12. Explaining Differences in Pronoun Use in English and Spanish

Without being asked to do so, in turn 1 Valentina introduced an explanation of the difference in subject pronouns in English and Spanish. In this turn she explained how verb conjugations were more complicated in Spanish because they changed more, which she expressed as “having to do more letters/tiene que hacer mas letras.” In turn 2 the teacher was going to expand this idea, but Valentina overlapped with her to propose that in English it was not possible to identify the person since the verb conjugation was mostly the same.

This explanation suggests how she was appropriating the content being presented by using her own words to summarize the contrast that had been presented in the sentence comparison and verb conjugation activities.

As in the morphology lessons, translanguaging was made manifest in students' cognitive engagement during the syntax presentations. Their talk in which they analyzed and explained differences in syntactic structures provides further evidence that placing English and Spanish alongside each other stimulates students to think deeply about language. Students actively participated in these presentations by making comments about the slides in which they articulated their ideas about the differences in syntax in English and Spanish. These comments reflect how the opportunity to compare and contrast these two languages enabled them to articulate their ideas about syntax. For instance, in Excerpt 5.9 they analyzed the examples presented in the slide to identify the differences in adjective placement in both languages, while in excerpt 5.12, they tried different verb conjugations, and Valentina concluded this exploration with an explanation of the difference in subject pronouns. Their engagement in the sentence comparison activity suggests their effort to identify and find the words to articulate the difference between the Spanish and English versions of the proposed sentences. For example, James' non-verbal language in excerpt 5.10 such as leaning on the table, softly pounding his fist on his forehead, and his pauses, suggest that he was thinking deeply about these differences. This was also the case for Roberto who, as suggested by upward intonation at the end of excerpt 5.10 (turn 19), was excited to finally explain the difference between the sentences that was being analyzed.

Exploring Alternative Syntactic Structures

Placing Spanish and English alongside each other during syntax instruction also prompted students to explore alternative syntactic structures. This was specially the case in a grammaticality judgment activity during the second part of the syntax lesson in cycle 1 in which students were asked to judge whether adjectives were correctly placed in sentences in English and Spanish. Rather than establishing either or judgments (e.g. the sentence is correct, or not correct) as had been expected for this activity, students proposed alternative structures. Students used their prior linguistic knowledge to expand this activity by considering alternative ways of interpreting the grammaticality of these sentences. In this sense, they organically transformed this activity into an exploration of alternative syntax structures.

Excerpt 5.13 presents the discussion that took place about whether the sentence: “The medicine powerful cured the person sick,” was grammaticality correct or not.

5.13.16 Cycle 1 Syntax Part 2 & Dialogic Reasoning 5:39 - 7:07

1. T: Bueno niños (.) y ésta? (.) The medicine powerful cured the person sick. Does that make sense?
"Okay kids, and this one?"
2. R: No
3. (1.0)
4. T: No (.) right?=
5. R: =The medicine powerful(.) No (.) yeah (.) it makes sense↑(.) The medicine powerful cured the person sick.
6. JO: [No]
7. T: [Does] that make sense?
8. JO: No no no
9. T: Why doesn't it make sense?
10. J: [Es por]
11. R: [It does]
12. V: [Porque dice]
13. R: [Kind of!] (.)It [kind of make(.)don't make sense(.)][but]
14. JO: [Kind of yeah] [cause] it said!(.) the medicine powerful cu::red the person
15. T: Okay so so you would have to put the adjectives[before
16. R: [Es como decir!] "It's like saying"
17. JO: [If I add some!]
18. R: Es como decir en español La medicina (.) eh poderosa (.) curó al a la persona enferma
"It's like saying in Spanish: The medicine powerful cured the person sick"
19. JO: Pero eh [pero si yo] "But if I"
20. T: [En español] sí haría [sí tendría sentido] In Spanish it would, it would make sense"
21. JO: >[if I add some words]< it makes sense↑ [cause look]
22. V: [De pronto lo "Maybe the"
23. T: Escuchemos a a "Let's listen to to"
24. V: ["De pronto"] "Maybe"
25. T: [a Valentina] "to Valentina"
26. JO: [If I add some]
27. T: Primero Valentina y después Joseph "Valentina first and then Joseph"
28. V: De pronto pueden(.)eh las palabras estar(.)mal ubicadas↑ "Maybe the words can be placed wrongly"
29. T: Okay:: muy bien↑ "Okay, very good"
30. V: "Puede ser eso" "That may be it"

31. T:	Exacto (.) Y Joseph qué ibas a decir? "Exactly. And Joseph what were you going to say?"
32. JO:	Uhm sí en the medicine powerful cured the person sick >if I add some words it'll make sense< like (.) The (.) medicine <u>that's</u> powerful cured the person <u>that's</u> sick "Uhm, yes in"
33. T:	Perfect (.) [wonderful]
34. R:	[Yeah (.)] si dijera that. "If it said that"
35. T:	Si dice that (.) sí. "If it says that, yes"
36. JO:	[That]
37. R:	[That]
38. J:	[Eh the] the the sentence makes (.) more sense in [<u>Spanish</u> ↑
39. T:	[Let's listen to Johanna↑ Aha↑
40. J:	because you know how the words are like backwards↑(.)
41. T:	Aha↑
42. J:	So so so (.) it rhymes in Spanish and in English it doesn't rhyme (.) It's backwards.
43. T:	Right (.) Perfect (.)

Excerpt 5.13. Explaining a Grammaticality Incorrect Sentence in Different Ways

In turn 1 the teacher introduced the sentence, and asked students whether that sentence made sense. Roberto said that it didn't in turn 2, and the teacher approved his response in the following turn. However, he changed his mind turn 4. The teacher asked again whether the sentence made sense, and Joseph responded that it didn't. In turn 9 the teacher asked students for the reason why the sentence did not make sense. In the following three turns Joseph, Roberto and Valentina competed for the floor to respond this question. In turn 13, Roberto gained the floor and proposed that the sentence "kind of" made and not made sense. This word choice suggests that he was not satisfied with the clear-cut negative answer that had been given in the prior turns. Roberto's turn was cut short by Joseph, just as he said the word "but," which suggests that he was going to articulate a reason for his "kind of makes sense" argument.

Joseph overlapped with Roberto in turn 14 to explain why the sentence was incorrect. As can be seen in his emphasis on the word “medicine” and “cured” in turn 14, he was attempting to articulate which were the problematic aspects in the sentence. The teacher tried to close the discussion in turn 15 by providing herself the explanation of why the sentence did not make sense. However, Roberto overlapped with her and introduced an alternative sentence in Spanish, which was grammatically correct. With this Spanish alternative, he indicated his engagement in a cross-linguistic analysis to make sense of English adjective placement by comparing it to its Spanish counterpart.

While Roberto presented this alternative sentence, Joseph had been competing for the floor to propose another option. However, the teacher gave the floor to Valentina who explained that the sentence was incorrect because the words were placed incorrectly, but did not establish which were these incorrectly placed words. However, the teacher assessed her comment positively since she appreciated Valentina’s engagement in analyzing a sentence in English. In turn 32, Joseph finally presented his alternative way of structuring the sentence in English to make it grammatically correct: "The medicine that is powerful cured the person that is sick." With this contribution, Joseph displayed his expertise in English and his cross-linguistic awareness, by proposing another syntactic structure. In this alternative structure, he created two new clauses “that is powerful” and “that is sick.” In these clauses, the adjectives (powerful and sick) were turned into nouns in order to maintain the same placement as in a sentence in Spanish. The teacher praised Joseph for this contribution in turn 33, Roberto agreed with Joseph’s proposal in the following turn. In the following turn both Joseph and him overlapped repeating the word “that,” thus emphasizing how the use of this conjunction provided an alternative way of stating the idea

conveyed in this sentence. After this, in turns 38, 40, and 42 Johanna explained why the sentence was grammatically incorrect.

Excerpt 5.14 presents another example of how this bilingual grammaticality judgment activity stimulated students to propose alternative structures. In this excerpt students were discussing the sentence: “El poderoso elefante tumbó la casa/The powerful elephant destroyed the house.”

5.13.16 Cycle 1 Syntax Part 2 & Dialogic Reasoning 7:49 – 8:31

1. R: Miss sabes que↑ que (.) también tiene (.) si sabes que cuando volteas las palabras en inglés (.) no tiene sentido pero si las volteas en español sí tiene=
"Miss, do you know that that when you switch the words in English it doesn't make sense, but if you switch them in Spanish it does make sense?"
2. T: =Exactamente
"Exactly"
3. R: Porque mira (.) El elefante poderoso!(.) "la casa tumbó"↑
"Because, look: The powerful elephant the house destroyed."
4. J: \$La casa tumbó\$
"The house destroyed!"
5. R: No it doesn't la última parte no tiene no
"The last part doesn't make"
6. T: Pero sí puedes decir [elefante poderoso o] poderoso elefante.
"But you can say the elephant powerful or powerful elephant."
7. JA: [el elefante poderoso]
"The elephant powerful"
8. J: El elefante poderoso tumbó la casa↑
"The elephant powerful destroyed the house"
9. T: Puedes decirlo así↑ o así↑ (.) [el español es más flexible]
"You can say it that way or that way. Spanish is more flexible."
10. V: [O la (1.0) <la casa (.) la]
tumbó (.) el elefante poderoso>
"Or the house it destroyed the elephant powerful"
11. T: También se podría decir (.) La casa la tumbó el elefante poderoso↑
"It could also be said: "The house it destroyed the elephant powerful."
12. R: La casa tumbó elefante poderoso el
"The house destroyed elephant powerful it"
13. J: ((Laughs))
14. V: ((Smiles))
15. M: Esa sí no↑
No, that one doesn't work!
16. JO: Y el poderoso [elefante tumbó la casa?]
"And the powerful elephant destroyed the house?"
17. R: [Esa sí (.) esa si no↑] That's weird↑ Es como aburrido↑
"That one doesn't work. That's weird. It's like boring"
18. T: Umju

Excerpt 5.14. Proposing Alternative Grammatical Organizations in Spanish

In turn 1, Roberto compared English and Spanish to establish that it was possible to switch words around in Spanish, but not in English. The teacher agreed with him, and in

the following turn he proposed an example that was not effective. Johanna's smiley comment in turn 4 indicates that she recognized that this did not work, and Roberto agreed with her in the following turn. Roberto's contribution opened the instructional space for the teacher to establish that in Spanish it is possible to say "elefante poderoso" or "poderoso elefante." The example she had proposed to students had the adjective before the noun, as in English, thus suggesting that this adjective placement in Spanish could vary. After this the other students proposed other examples in which they explored alternative word orders for this Spanish structure.

In excerpts 5.13 and 5.14, translanguaging was made manifest in students' use of their knowledge of English and Spanish to explore alternative syntactic structures. The presence of both languages enabled them to consider different ways of conveying meaning. They expanded this grammaticality judgement activity, and manipulated the sentences in order to try other possible organizations.

Summary

Students' talk about semantics, morphology, and syntax during these lessons indicates that they engaged in translanguaging to use their Spanish knowledge to make sense of the English language. Furthermore, language instruction in which English and Spanish were placed alongside each other stimulated students to analyze language structures by comparing and contrasting them. The target morphological and syntactic structures were turned into objects that could be manipulated by, for example, exploring the differences between English and Spanish, proposing translations, and suggesting alternative structures. This cross-linguistic analysis enabled students to develop a deeper understanding of the target structures taught in these lessons.

It has been established that shared features across languages support language development, since the knowledge from the prior language is transferred to the new language (Cummins, 2009; Foursha-Stevenson & Nicoladis, 2011). In these lessons, cognate recognition activities sought to transfer conceptual knowledge across languages, by stimulating students to make lexical connections between English and Spanish. Dissimilar structures between languages also have a positive role in language learning since they encourage the learner to analyze these differences (Reder et al., 2013). When learning a new language, students are constantly exposed to cross-linguistic differences that are relevant to the language being learned, and these differences attract their attention and stimulate comparisons across languages (Cummins, 2013; Foursha-Stevenson & Nicoladis, 2011; Walqui & Van Lier, 2010).

According to Kuo & Anderson's (2010) structural sensitivity theory, bilingual children's advantage in understanding language may be due to "having access to two languages [by which] structural similarities and differences between languages [become] more salient, allowing bilingual children to form representations of language structure at a more abstract level" (p. 370). During these lesson cycles, students had the opportunity to experience their two languages simultaneously, and this stimulated their attention to the similarities and differences between English and Spanish. Translanguaging pedagogy in which languages are placed alongside each other makes language instruction more efficient and targeted by providing opportunities to highlight the relationship between languages (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011; Cummins, 2013).

Students cognitive engagement was bolstered by presenting target linguistic structures simultaneously, and also by having freedom to use the language of their

preference. Enabling students to use Spanish opened opportunities to use their stronger language as a thinking tool (Brisk & Harrington, 2005; Cummins, 2009). Their talk, as reflected in the excerpts presented in this chapter, conveys their engagement in higher order intellectual skills such as analysis and explanations. Translanguaging promoted more engaged language learning by stimulating students to flexibly use their linguistic resources in the process of making sense of new language structures.

Chapter 6. Discussion

Translanguaging pedagogy challenges monoglossic ideologies, which have deprived immigrant-origin students from using their home languages to learn. Informed by a critical and social justice perspective, this pedagogical approach proposes a transformative educational agenda that broadens the notion of language use within the classroom. It advocates for a shift toward heteroglossic language practices that enable students to flexibly use all of their linguistic resources to learn. This heteroglossic perspective on language use in classrooms enhances the implications of immigrant-origin students' language rights. These students' languages do not only need to be recognized as valuable linguistic resources, they also need to be used in the classroom in order to ensure their meaningful participation in class.

The empirical study of translanguaging pedagogy has focused on its discursive dimension, and has revealed that, despite monoglossic ideologies, translanguaging is a prevalent language practice in classroom contexts serving bilingual students. This dissertation broadened the current understanding of translanguaging pedagogy by studying its affordances when it is deliberately integrated into a language and literacy curriculum. Translanguaging pedagogy as enacted in the intervention designed for this study enabled students to use all of their available linguistic resources to meaningfully participate in academic literacy practices, and deepen their understanding of how language works. Figure 6.1 presents a translanguaging model for language and literacy instruction based on the results of this study, which is an expanded and revised version of the initial theory of change informing the design of the translanguaged lesson cycles. The initial theory of change proposed that translanguaging pedagogy consisting of flexible language use,

bilingual texts, and bilingual language instruction, would promote students’ meaningful participation, and support the development of their linguistic awareness. The model presented in figure 6.1 synthesizes the main conclusions reached after analyzing the interactions in which participants engaged in translanguageing during these lessons.

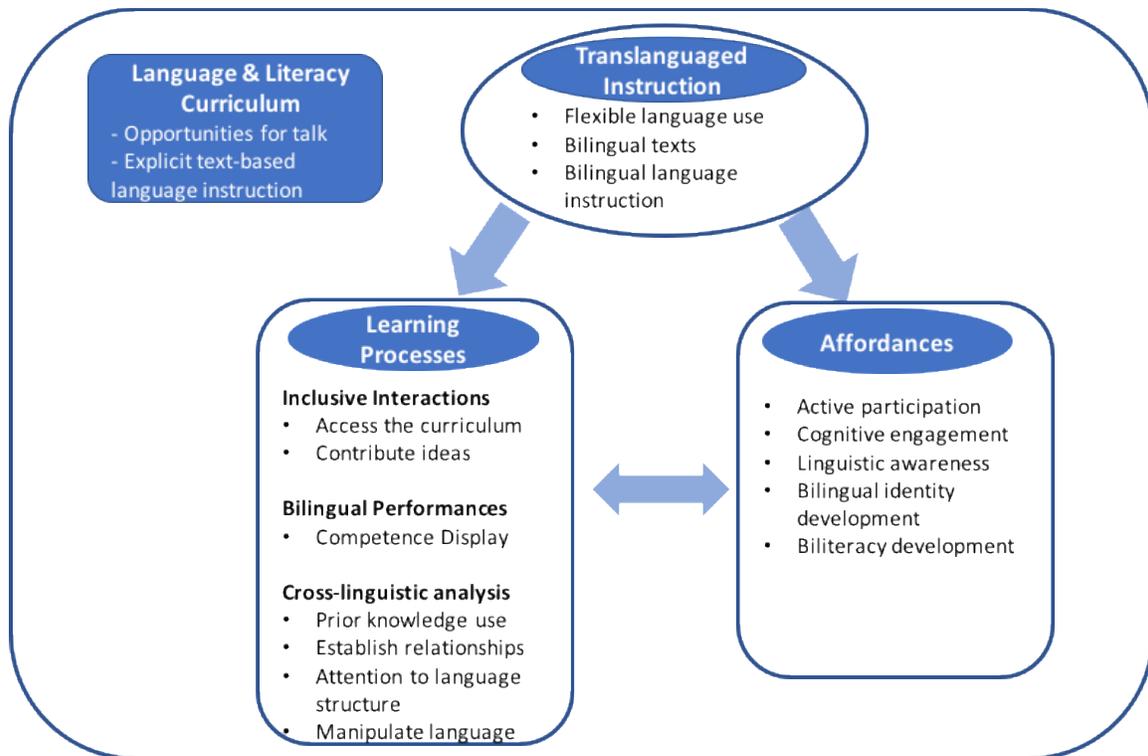


Figure 6.1. Translanguaging Model for Language and Literacy Instruction

This model proposes that in the context of a language and literacy curriculum that promotes authentic opportunities for talk, and text-based explicit language instruction, translanguaging pedagogy engages students in three learning processes: inclusive interactions, bilingual performances and cross-linguistic analysis. These learning processes create affordances for students’ active participation, cognitive engagement and linguistic awareness, as well as support their bilingual identities, and biliteracy development. This model contributes an empirically-based rationale for translanguaged language and literacy

curriculum design targeted at Spanish-English bilingual students with varied language proficiencies. This contribution is relevant to inform programs aimed at supporting recently arrived immigrant students in their transition to education in the United States, as well as U.S. born bilingual students who are in the process of developing their expertise in using English for academic purposes. This model is also applicable in bilingual education programs to inform an instructional block in which students are supported in making connections between their languages.

In the first part of this chapter, the findings of these study are discussed in the context of the instructional model presented in Figure 6.1. This is followed by a discussion of the implications of the results of this dissertation for translanguaging theory and pedagogy, and social justice. After this, the study's limitations and implications for future research are proposed.

A Translanguaging Model for Language and Literacy Instruction

The proposed translanguaging model for language and literacy instruction is situated in the context of the CLAVES curriculum. In the translanguaged lesson cycles, instruction in English and Spanish was incorporated to determine how the use of students' both languages affected their engagement in the language and literacy practices proposed in the CLAVES curriculum. The following sections characterize the three components of this model: translanguaging pedagogy, learning processes, and affordances.

Translanguaging Pedagogy

In this model, translanguaging pedagogy is deliberately integrated into the curriculum design to support language and literacy development. The discursive and instructional dimensions of translanguaging pedagogy are addressed through three

instructional components: flexible language use, bilingual texts, and bilingual language instruction. To address its discursive dimension, which refers to the establishment of heteroglossic classroom language practices in which participants are encouraged to draw from their full linguistic repertoire in their learning process (García & Sylvan, 2011), this model proposes not having a predefined medium of instruction and promoting flexible language use. Additionally, the teacher should model flexible language use by fluidly using English and Spanish in her instruction, and encouraging students to use the language of their choice to participate in these lessons.

To address the instructional dimension, which refers to the design of learning activities in which two languages are integrated to organize mental processes that support learning (Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012), this model proposes the use of bilingual texts, and the enactment of bilingual language instruction. Bilingual language instruction consists of explicit instruction in which English and Spanish target words and language structures are placed alongside each other. Additionally, students are engaged in guided or independent practice activities in which they have to work with the target structures in both languages.

Learning Processes

This model proposes that translanguaging pedagogy, as described above, supports students' engagement in inclusive interactions, bilingual performances, and cross-linguistic analysis. The first two learning processes synthesize the results of the analysis of the role of translanguaging in participants' interactions presented in chapter 4, while the last one integrates the results of the role of translanguaging in students' talk about semantics, morphology and syntax presented in chapter 5. These three learning processes

are characterized below to explain how the use of both languages supports bilingual students' language and literacy learning.

Inclusive Interactions. Participants' use of their available linguistic resources to ensure their own or other's participation in the lessons is defined as inclusive interactions in this model. In the lesson cycles studied in this dissertation, these inclusive interactions entailed an active negotiation process in which participants strategically used English and Spanish to achieve inclusion. The promotion of flexible language use prompted engagement in language negotiation sequences in which the language of interaction was fluidly redefined to accomplish teaching, learning, and identity work. The language of interaction was negotiated through three conversation mechanisms: linguistic accommodation, gaining the floor, and repair initiation.

Linguistic accommodation was frequently used by the teacher to ensure that all students had access to the curriculum, and could meaningfully participate in the lessons. Through this linguistic accommodation, the teacher promoted inclusive interactions in which she adapted her discourse to her students' language skills and preferences. Other studies, which have documented classroom language practices in bilingual education programs, have found that bilingual teachers disrupt strict language separation policies in their classrooms by engaging in similar linguistic accommodation moves. (Durán & Palmer, 2014; Palmer, Mateus, Martínez, & Henderson, 2014). In other cases, teachers accept their students' language choices, but do not change the language of instruction. In these cases, the interaction takes place in a bilingual sequence in which the teacher uses the language of instruction, and students use their preferred language (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Creese & Blackledge, 2011; Durán & Palmer, 2014; Esquinca et al.,

2014). These different approaches support inclusive interactions in which students are encouraged to make their contributions in the language of their preference, and teachers are able to scaffold instruction for students with diverse language proficiencies (Gort & Pontier, 2013; Palmer, et al 2014). The difference between the inclusive interactions fostered in the present study, and the ones documented in other studies is that in this study the teacher did not have adhere to any medium of instruction. In the other studies, the teachers had to navigate the tensions of following school language policies, while at the same time adjusting their instruction to their students' language needs.

Another way in which flexible language use supported meaningful engagement in these lessons was by stimulating students to gain the floor in the conversation by changing the language of interaction. It is challenging for students who are in the process of developing their English skills to contribute to class discussions, since they are in the process of learning the vocabulary and syntax to articulate complex ideas. Flexible language use in these lessons enabled students to open up spaces in the conversation to share ideas and display their understanding. For example, during a vocabulary lesson Roberto used Spanish to interrupt the teacher, who was presenting the definition of culture in English, to connect this concept with *cabalgatas* as an expression of Colombian culture.

Repair initiation was another conversation mechanism that enabled students, particularly James and Valentina, to ensure their meaningful participation in these lessons. These students prompted the other participants to change the language of interaction from English to Spanish by launching repairs in which they let them know that communication had broken for them, or by explicitly requesting their interlocutor to use Spanish. These

students' agency in redefining the language of interaction is interesting since students typically remain silent when they do not understand what is going on in their classroom.

In summary, flexible language use in these lessons stimulated participants to engage in inclusive interactions. In these inclusive interactions, the teacher adapted her language use to her students' needs by engaging in linguistic accommodation, while students actively ensured their participation by using conversation mechanisms such as changing the language of interaction to gain the floor or initiating repairs. Bilingualism was leveraged “from the students up” (García, Flores, & Chu, 2011, p. 17; García & Sylvan, 2011), since there was no predefined language arrangement. The students were the ones guiding their own learning and development by establishing the language of interaction that gave them better access to the curriculum, and opportunities to meaningfully contribute their ideas to the class discussions.

Bilingual Performances. Flexible language use, as well as the use of bilingual texts, and bilingual language instruction created an instructional context that stimulated students to engage in bilingual performances. These bilingual performances encompassed different ways in which students displayed their linguistic competences. For example, the availability of English and Spanish in these lessons enabled them to demonstrate their ability to speak both languages in what has been coined as “doing being bilingual” (Auer, 1984; Zentella, 1997). Additionally, students displayed their linguistic competences by engaging in joint translations, serving as interpreters for their peers, and positioning themselves as experts in their dominant language.

Students engaged in translanguaging to index their bilingualism by demonstrating that they were able to speak both languages. Those who were starting to develop their

expertise in English performed their emerging bilingual identities by engaging in translanguaging to make interjections such as: “Oh my god,” “I get it,” or “Yeah.” With these interjections, they conveyed how they were integrating “bits and pieces” of the new language into their linguistic repertoire (García, Makar, Starcevic, & Terry, 2011), and trying new ways of expressing themselves (Gort & Pontier, 2013).

Another way in which students performed their bilingualism was by spontaneously engaging in joint translations in which they worked with each other to demonstrate their ability to convey a sentence in both languages. These translations enabled students to display their emerging or more developed language skills in a joint performance in which each contribution added to a piece of information to the translation. These joint translations conveyed how translanguaging pedagogy provided a space for students to support each other in taking risks that enabled them to try out their bilingual identities, and develop their bilingual skills.

Students who had stronger English language skills displayed their bilingualism and linguistic competence by acting as interpreters for their peers. In these performances, they affirmed their bilingual identities, and supported their peers’ learning. Other research has also shown that bilingual students provide scaffolds for each other by acting as interpreters for their peers (Esquinca, Araujo, & de la Piedra, 2014; Gort, 2008).

By contrast, students who had stronger Spanish language skills tended to display their linguistic competence by positioning themselves as language experts who were in the capacity to correct their peers’ Spanish. With the exception of these translanguaged lessons, these students were in an English-only context in which their language strengths were not integrated into the curriculum. They seized the opportunity to display their

Spanish skills, as illustrated in their attention to their peer's mistakes in Spanish. The availability to use Spanish gave these students the opportunity place themselves in a position of prestige and power (Martín-Beltrán, 2010), and position themselves as competent individuals (Cummins, 2013; Manyak, 2001).

In summary, translanguaging pedagogy, as enacted in these lesson cycles, stimulated students to engage in bilingual performances in which they used their linguistic resources to position themselves as competent language users. The availability of English and Spanish created a safe and stimulating learning environment that empowered students to display their language skills, and try new linguistic performances. In this learning environment, students who were not yet confident using English did not have to remain in the periphery in which their prior identities capable learners are contested since they cannot access the content or articulate their understanding in the new language. Furthermore, those students who had not only been socialized in English academic language practices, had the opportunity to expand their bilingual identities by using their home language (i.e. Spanish) in academic contexts.

Cross-linguistic Analysis. Bilingual language instruction in which English and Spanish was placed alongside each other stimulated students to engage in cross-linguistic analysis. This cross-linguistic analysis was made evident in the relationships that students established between English and Spanish when they participated in explicit instruction about semantics, morphology, and syntax. Students' engagement in cross-linguistic was evidenced in their talk as reflected in the following processes: cognate recognition, suffix translations, analysis of morphemes and syntax in English and Spanish, and exploration of alternative syntactic structures.

Students drew on their prior linguistic knowledge to make sense of new vocabulary and language structures. For example, they were engaged in cognate identification activities that prompted them to connect English vocabulary to their Spanish word knowledge. When learning new morphological and syntactic structures, students also used their Spanish knowledge to make sense of new English structures. For example, James displayed his understanding of the English suffix *-ful*, by providing its Spanish translation. Having their prior linguistic knowledge as a resource to make sense of language, also enabled students to establish creative relationships across languages, through which they conveyed their understanding of the target structures. For example, Roberto displayed his understanding of English structures, by providing Spanish literal translations (e.g. *poder sin/plástica botella*) that highlighted the contrast between these two languages.

Students actively engaged in the morphology and syntax presentations by spontaneously making contributions in which they showed that they were paying close attention to the language structures that were being presented. For example, they identified the differences in adjective placement in English and Spanish during the introduction to the cycle 1 syntax lesson. They also identified the differences in Spanish inflectional morphology when noun forming suffixes (e.g. *-er, -or, dor(a)*) were introduced in the Cycle 2 morphology lesson. By being exposed to these structures in both languages, students were stimulated to focus their attention on them, and compare and contrast them.

Bilingual language instruction also stimulated students to manipulate language. For example, students' spontaneous exploration of alternative syntactic structures during the grammatically judgment activity in cycle 1, illustrates how students manipulated these sentences to propose alternative structures. The opportunity to think about these sentences

in two languages supported students in considering the arbitrary nature of grammar, since they could explore how grammar varied across languages, and alter the proposed syntactic structures to creatively propose other ones.

In summary, bilingual language instruction stimulated students to engage in cross-linguistic analysis through which they engaged more deeply and actively with the language constructs taught in these lessons. By presenting target language structures in both languages, the structures became more salient since it was possible to see how these structures varied across languages. The opportunity to think about these structures in both languages made language instruction more meaningful since it was possible to establish connections between languages, and view the structures from different perspectives. Furthermore, students had the chance to use Spanish to talk about the English language. In this sense, English became an object that they could analyze and manipulate using their stronger language.

Affordances

An affordance refers to a possibility for action that emerges in the context of interaction with others and with the environment, and provides further possibilities for action (van Lier, 2004). To support learning, it is necessary to design learning environments that create affordances for further learning. Translanguaging pedagogy engaged students in inclusive interactions, bilingual performances, and cross-linguistic analysis. These learning processes created affordances for active participation, cognitive engagement, and linguistic awareness. Furthermore, translanguaging pedagogy supported students' bilingual identity development, and biliteracy development.

Active participation and cognitive engagement. Students actively participated in these lesson cycles as illustrated in their agency in ensuring their inclusion in the conversation, in their willingness to display their linguistic competences, and in their cross-linguistic analyses during semantics, morphology and syntax instruction. Students did not only limit themselves to answer questions and do what they were asked to do, but rather meaningfully engaged with the content taught. Their cognitive engagement was made manifest in the meaningful connections they made between the content taught in these lessons and their prior knowledge and experience. Furthermore, they raised questions, proposed explanations, and shared experiences, which also evidence their cognitive engagement in these lessons.

Linguistic awareness. Students' cross-linguistic analyses evidence how bilingual language instruction supported linguistic awareness development in these students. Linguistic awareness refers to the ability to detach language from its content and pay attention to its structural features (Reder, Merez-Breton, Gombert, & Demont, 2013). Bilingual language instruction provided affordances to focus on the structural features of language by: (1) enabling students to use their prior linguistic knowledge, (2) making the target structures more salient, and (3) enabling students to talk about the English language in Spanish.

Bilingual language instruction in these lesson cycles, stimulated students to use their prior linguistic resources to support their understanding of the new language. Students were able to access their prior linguistic knowledge when learning about semantics, morphology and syntax. According to the linguistic interdependence hypothesis, bilinguals have a common underlying proficiency in which skills, strategies and conceptual

knowledge are shared across their languages (Cummins, 1979). Linguistic awareness is one of such skills shared across languages. For example, morphological awareness in Spanish, may be applied to understand word formation rules in English (Kuo & Anderson, 2006; Ramírez, Chen, Geva, & Kieffer, 2010). As illustrated in chapter 5, students in these lessons drew on their prior Spanish morphological knowledge to understand the English suffixes –full and –less.

Cognate awareness is another expression of bilinguals' common underlying proficiency, which enables bilinguals to use their knowledge of one language, to figure out the meaning of a word in the other language (Jiménez, García, & Pearson, 1995; Kelley & Kohnert, 2012; Proctor & Mo, 2012; Sheng, Lam, Cruz, & Fulton, 2016). Bilingual students' language and literacy development is supported if they are made aware of the relationships between their languages, and guided in how they may use their prior linguistic knowledge to understand their new language (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011b; Martin-Beltrán, 2010; Horst, White & Bell, 2010). Students in these translanguage lessons were guided to establish connections between English and Spanish words in order to become more strategic in using their prior Spanish word knowledge when reading English texts.

Another way in which bilingual language instruction supported these students' linguistic awareness was by making the target structures more salient since they were presented bilingually. According to the structural sensitivity theory (Kuo & Anderson, 2010) bilinguals have a more abstract understanding of language because having access to two languages makes their structural similarities and differences more salient. The simultaneous experience of two languages during these lessons enabled these students to think more abstractly about the target structures. They were able to compare and contrast

these structures, and determine their similarities and differences. In this sense, bilingual instruction supported linguistic awareness by providing rich linguistic content to explore, manipulate, discuss, and analyze.

The chance to talk about English in Spanish was another way in which bilingual language instruction supported students' linguistic awareness. This enabled them to detach English from its content, and think about it as an object. Students used Spanish as a mediation tool (Martín-Beltrán, 2010) to analyze English. This analysis helped them think about how English worked in contrast to Spanish. As evidenced in these different ways in which students were stimulated to focus on the structural features of language, bilingual language instruction provided more targeted and efficient instruction in which students were stimulated to make the cross-linguistic connections that they would spontaneously make in the effort to understand how their languages work (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011b; Cummins, 2013).

Bilingual identity development. Translanguaging pedagogy enabled students to engage in bilingual performances that supported their bilingual identity development. By encouraging students to use their languages flexibly during these lessons, they found a safe space to engage in linguistic performances in which they positioned themselves as bilinguals. For example, they engaged in joint translations in which they displayed their ability to move between languages according to their current bilingual development. This was also an instructional space in which Spanish and English were positioned as equally valuable languages and learning tools. The equal value given to these languages conveyed the message that it was important to maintain their Spanish, thus supporting bilingual identity development.

Johanna and Joseph, who were the students who had been schooled in an English-only context, found in these lessons an opportunity to improve their Spanish skills. In the first lesson Joseph explicitly mentioned that he wanted to improve his reading skills in Spanish. He and Johanna actively sought opportunities to read out loud in Spanish. These students' interest in developing their Spanish literacy skills suggests that they were interested in maintaining and improving their Spanish. In this sense, this translanguaging instruction does not only benefit recently arrived immigrant students, but also second-generation immigrants.

Biliteracy development. The different components of translanguaging pedagogy (flexible language use, bilingual texts, and bilingual language instruction) promoted engagement in biliteracy practices in which students had access to their full linguistic repertoire and to diverse modes of expression and representation to meaningfully engage in valued academic practices (Hornberger, 2005). Students had the opportunity to develop their biliteracy skills by reading and discussing texts in both languages, as well as analyzing the formal features of their two languages.

In summary, the proposed translanguaging model for language and literacy instruction contributes a new perspective on translanguaging pedagogy. This perspective encompasses meaningful participation in literacy practices, as well as developing a deeper understanding of how language works. By promoting flexible language use, translanguaging pedagogy created a safe and affirmative space for students to share their knowledge, and build new knowledge using their full linguistic repertoire and accessing to different modes of representation (e.g. texts and images). Additionally, this model provides

the bilingual instructional structures to support the development of the necessary linguistic awareness skills to successfully engage in these literacy practices.

Implications for Translanguaging Theory

Translanguaging theory views language as a performance, rather than an object, and challenges the concept of language as an abstract system. Based on bilinguals' fluid and integrated linguistic performances, this theory establishes that there are no boundaries between bilinguals' languages. Instead they have a single integrated linguistic repertoire which they fluidly adapt according to the context and communicative needs. Although this theory has provided a more fluid and heteroglossic perspective to understand bilinguals' language practices, denying the existence of boundaries between languages disregards the fact that bilinguals establish distinctions between their languages. Furthermore, by rejecting the notion of language as an abstract system, this theory limits the understanding of the role that bilingualism plays in supporting students' linguistic awareness.

Rather than erasing the boundaries between their languages, bilinguals establish permeable boundaries. Furthermore, language as an abstract system is very salient to bilinguals since by living in two languages, they become more aware of the arbitrary nature of language. Students' language choices during these lesson cycles, and their cross-linguistic analyses provide evidence to support a broader approach to language and language use in translanguaging theory. This broader approach recognizes that bilinguals have both shared and discrete linguistic resources (MacSwan, 2017).

Students' language choices in these lessons indicated that they used their languages distinctly, and that their translanguaging was strategic. Although, there was no pre-established medium of instruction, Spanish was the most prevalently used language in these

lesson cycles. This finding is in contrast with the literature on the discursive dimension of translanguaging pedagogy which has established that in their self-initiated talk bilingual students typically engage in translanguaging (Blair, 2016; Daniel & Pacheco, 2016; García et al. 2011; Sayer, 2013). This literature has focused on highlighting translanguaging practices in classroom contexts serving bilingual students in dual language programs. It zooms in on these practices without providing the big picture of the language ecology in the classroom. This focus has been valuable to reveal the translanguaging *corriente* (García, et al., 2017), and the different ways in which teachers navigate language separation policies to maximize their students' learning. However, to better understand the role of translanguaging practices in the classroom it is necessary to provide a broader and more nuanced picture of the language ecology that conveys the diverse ways in which bilinguals use their available languages. By positioning translanguaging as the overarching concept to characterize bilinguals' language use, this theory is reducing the conceptual clarity to understand these other practices.

It is also necessary to broaden the concept of language in translanguaging theory since it would be contradictory to propose a translanguaging model that supports explicit language instruction if the notion of language as an abstract system is rejected. As discussed in the prior section, great part of the learning that took place in these lessons was made possible because the availability of English and Spanish enabled this group of students to analyze their two languages. Bilingual students spontaneously draw on their prior languages and literacy skills to leverage their literacy development in their new language (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011b; Cummins, 2009; de la Luz Reyes, 2012; Walqui & van Lier, 2010).

Implications for Translanguaging Pedagogy

Research has prevalently focused on the discursive dimension of translanguaging pedagogy, while its instructional dimension has been underdeveloped. Although, translanguaging pedagogy was originally proposed as an instructional approach to stimulate bilingual students to more deeply process content in different subject areas (Baker, 2012; Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012), current approaches to translanguaging pedagogy have not addressed curriculum and instruction issues. The current focus is on creating an appropriate environment for learning by stimulating students to draw on all of their linguistic resources. In the context of language and literacy instruction, translanguaging pedagogy addresses the practices that socialize students in academic literacy practices.

This study broadens the approach to translanguaging pedagogy by proposing a translanguaging model for language and literacy instruction that, in addition to engaging students in authentic academic literacy practices, it also provides the opportunity to learn how language works. The CLAVES curriculum, in which this model is based, integrates explicit language instruction with opportunities for meaningful talk about texts and language. This study showed that the affordances of this curriculum were enhanced by incorporating translanguaging pedagogy.

This study contributes an approach to the design of language and literacy curriculum and instruction in which translanguaging is explicitly integrated. In this approach, the discursive and instructional dimension of translanguaging pedagogy are addressed. Current approaches propose translanguaging pedagogy as an overarching perspective on language use that can be adapted to different instructional contexts, and

enacted by both bilingual and monolingual teachers. The translanguaging model proposed in this study presents a more targeted instructional approach that requires a bilingual teacher, and students who share at least two languages. This more targeted approach raises the need for bilingual teachers who know about how language works. Currently, the focus on teacher education has been on developing the knowledge and skills that enables both monolingual and bilingual teachers to support their bilingual students (Brisk, 2006; Coady, Harper, & de Jong, 2015; Lucas & Villegas, 2011; Wong-Fillmore & Snow). In addition to these necessary knowledge and skills, it is relevant to consider curricular reforms in teacher education that require students in these programs to learn an additional language, and also learn how their two languages work. Increasing the number of bilingual teachers is crucial in achieving the shift from monoglossic to heteroglossic ideologies in education.

This translanguaging model is aimed at engaging students in biliteracy practices in which they focus on discussing texts and language using the language they feel most comfortable in. The medium of instruction is not predefined, because the focus is on meaning making. This study evidenced, that given language choice, students will naturally use the language they feel more comfortable in. This approach is not appropriate if the goal is to have students practice the target language. As mentioned in the introduction, this model informs the design of specific programs to support recently arrived immigrant students, and immigrant-origin students developing their language and literacy skills. This model is also applicable in bilingual education programs interested in designing an instructional block in which students are encouraged to make connections between their languages.

Implications for Social Justice

Translanguaging pedagogy advocates for the recognition of immigrant-origin students' language rights. This recognition does not only involve awareness of the value of their home languages, but, most importantly, the inclusion of these languages in the teaching and learning process. This social justice agenda is currently being promoted in three ways: (1) theorization of translanguaging practices that captures their fluidity and complexity, (2) documentation of flexible language practices in classroom contexts serving bilingual students, and (3) presentation of exemplary teaching practices in which translanguaging pedagogy is enacted. Through these different approaches, advocates of translanguaging pedagogy seek to shift from monoglossic to heteroglossic ideologies in education.

To move this social justice agenda forward it is necessary to enhance the understanding of how translanguaging pedagogy supports student learning. This involves designing, implementing and evaluating curricula based on translanguaging pedagogy. The current approaches advocating for immigrant-origin language rights in the United States have opened important conversations that challenge the value that has historically been given to English monolingualism in this country. However, these alternative voices will not inform mainstream policies and practices if they do not present clearly defined approaches to teaching and learning, and outcome data providing evidence that these approaches do help bilingual students learn better. Translanguaging pedagogy has been conceived as a liminal instructional approach that it is flexibly adapted to the context and students (García, 2009). It is necessary to find ways of incorporating this liminality in the

curriculum, while at the same time providing guidance for the development of translanguaged curricula that is responsive to students' ways of using language.

Limitations

This study sought to contribute to the understanding of the role of translanguaging pedagogy in supporting Spanish-English bilingual students' learning by exploring how their languages can be integrated into an existing language and literacy curriculum. Its small-scale exploratory nature enabled a detailed in-depth analysis of the interactions and learning processes that took place during the translanguaged lessons, but also restricted the opportunity to observe more variability in talk and interaction across time and participants. Additionally, this study did not provide evidence regarding the role of translanguaging pedagogy in student learning outcomes.

This research may be considered a proof of concept regarding the feasibility of translanguaging pedagogy for language and literacy instruction. It is necessary to expand this work in order to enhance the understanding of this pedagogical approach. Firstly, as in any teaching experience, student engagement in these lesson cycles was determined by many different factors. These factors do not only include the instructional activities, but also the teacher's and students' backgrounds, interests, and skills, and the particular ways in which the group worked together. It is necessary to try these lessons out with more participants who have diverse Spanish - English language proficiencies and cultural backgrounds. By working with more groups, it would be possible to learn more about how students engage with this translanguaged instructional approach. Additionally, involving other teachers would provide insights on how teachers may adapt this instructional approach to their particular teaching style, while at the same time supporting the learning

processes and affordances proposed for this translanguaging language and literacy instructional model.

A second way in which this work needs to be expanded is by designing a full translanguaged curriculum since this research only focused on two lesson cycles. It is necessary to develop a more intensive and longer intervention that would enable a more comprehensive exploration of translanguaging pedagogy by targeting other texts and language structures. By targeting other texts and language structures it would be possible to gain a better understanding of the scope and sequence of a translanguaged curriculum. It would be helpful to analyze how students cross-linguistically engage with different language structures in order to determine whether translanguaging pedagogy is appropriate for teaching semantics, morphology and syntax in general, or if it is necessary to consider translanguaging and monolingual instructional approaches depending on the language content. In addition to considering which are the structures that work best for cross-linguistic analysis, it is also relevant to consider which activities, texts, and facilitation moves, among others support students in engaging cross-linguistically with language.

Finally, a third way in which this work needs to be expanded is by determining the links between translanguaging pedagogy and student learning. This study provided initial insights about the learning processes and affordances of translanguaging pedagogy in language and literacy instruction, but it is necessary to track student learning across time and contexts to establish the effects of translanguaging pedagogy on learning. For example, it would be relevant to collect data about students' participation in their regular classroom to determine whether their participation in this supplemental curriculum has effects on their participation in their regular classroom. Additionally, it is necessary to study the effects

of translanguaging pedagogy in more distant literacy outcome measures. This evidence should come from detailed qualitative analyses of students' language learning when they have access to all of their linguistic resources, and from experimental studies that would enable the establishment causal relationships between translanguaging pedagogy and student achievement in distant language and literacy outcomes.

Implications for Future Research

In order to address the limitations discussed in the prior section, future research on translanguaging pedagogy should be oriented towards the design of studies that encompass longer interventions, larger samples, and outcome measures. As mentioned before, it is necessary to provide more robust empirical evidence in order to challenge the dominance of English-only instruction in the education of bilingual students in the United States. The contribution of empirical evidence that links translanguaging pedagogy to language and literacy learning will enhance the possibilities of providing equitable education to bilingual students.

While this research mainly focused on the affordances of translanguaging pedagogy in supporting participation, identity development, and cross-linguistic awareness, further research on the design of curriculum and instruction based on translanguaging pedagogy should consider the following three aspects: (1) enhancing the approach to linguistic awareness to also include instructional activities that support the development of critical linguistic awareness (van Lier, 2004), (2) deepening the understanding of the biliteracy practices that take place in bilingual language and literacy instruction, and (3) considering the role of multimodality in bilingual students' language and literacy learning. These three

areas of research would deepen the understanding of the potential of translanguaging pedagogy to contribute to bilingual students' language and literacy development.

Regarding critical linguistic awareness, in addition to understanding how language works at a linguistic level, it is also relevant to support students' understanding of how language does political, social and identity work. Critical linguistic awareness encompasses the recognition its social and political dimensions, and an understanding that identity is performed through language (Gee, 2012; van Lier, 2004). The ways people use language signal their social roles and their identification with particular groups (Gee, 2012).

During lesson cycle 1 students were stimulated to reflect about the relationship between language and identity in the discussions about the poems in *My Name is Jorge* (Medina, 1999), but the discussion questions that were proposed to elicit these reflections were too abstract. It is necessary to revise these questions to make them more developmentally appropriate, and also design other activities that support engagement in these reflections. Furthermore, as discussed in the positionality statement in chapter 3, there were missed teaching and learning opportunities regarding how the concerns that students raised about nationality, immigration and identity were addressed. It is relevant to be more deliberate in the design and facilitation of discussions that support students in expanding their awareness of the challenges and opportunities offered by the contexts in which they are situated, and in developing more complex understanding of their identities in these contexts. To achieve this, teachers need opportunities to reflect about their own identities and about the ways in which they relate to their students, to the content taught, and to the different contexts in which they and their students are situated.

Regarding biliteracy practices, it is relevant to analyze more closely how students engage with texts in English and Spanish. This study did not consider in depth whether and how the opportunity to read texts in both languages supported students' language and literacy development. Future research should perform more detailed analysis of how students engage with texts in each language, and how this engagement is related to their participation in class discussions and their learning. This research would also help deepen the understanding of what are relevant biliteracy skills and how translanguaging may support their development.

Finally, regarding multimodality, along with flexible language use, students had access to other modalities that supported their engagement in these lessons. For example, new language content was typically accompanied by images. Additionally, students were asked to perform some parts of the poems read in cycle 1 in order to gain a deeper understanding of the experiences presented in these poems. These images and embodied poetry readings were additional semiotic resources that need to be further analyzed in order to gain a deeper understanding of how these different resources support bilingual students' language and literacy learning in translanguaging pedagogy. It is necessary to broaden the notion of meaning making tools in order to include these other relevant tools that students used to engage with the texts and language taught during these lessons.

In conclusion, this study is a first step in a research agenda that seeks to understand how to support immigrant-origin students' language and literacy development by designing curriculum and instruction that integrates their languages and different semiotic resources. This research agenda is informed by a social justice perspective that seeks to further the

understanding of the affordances of translanguaging pedagogy in immigrant-origin bilingual students' learning. This understanding is needed to inform policy and practice that supports these students' rights to have their languages recognized and used in academic contexts in order to enhance their learning, and support their bilingual and biliterate development.

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