# TEACHING ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS IN ALASKA: A STUDY OF TRANSLANGUAGING CHOICES 

By<br>Jacquelyn A. Crace-Murray, B.A, M.P.A.<br>A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy<br>in<br>Applied Linguistics: Interdisciplinary<br>University of Alaska Fairbanks<br>August 2018<br>© 2018 Jacquelyn A. Crace-Murray

## APPROVED

Dr. Sabine Siekmann, Committee Chair
Dr. Joan Parker-Webster, Committee Co-Chair
Dr. Patrick Marlow, Committee Member
Dr. Theresa John, Committee Member
Dr. Patrick Marlow, Coordinator
Linguistics Program
Todd Sherman, Dean
College of Liberal Arts
Dr. Michael Castellini, Dean of the Graduate School


#### Abstract

The number of English Language Learners continues to rise in U.S. schools. However, general classroom teachers are not equipped with English language acquisition methodologies and strategies to teach their increasingly diverse student populations. Because of the deficit views regarding bilingual students, and the monolingual ideologies present in today's public school system, these attitudes and perspectives impact teacher practices in the classroom. They negatively affect student language learning by neglecting to utilize the vast linguistic repertoires bilinguals bring with them to the classroom as resources. They also lead to the over-referral of English language learners for special education services and to teacher burn-out.

Being drawn to the concept and utility of translanguaging, I conducted research on my own teaching practices as an English Language Learner Specialist in Alaska. From an autoethnographic stance, I focused on how I encouraged or discouraged translanguaging, what factors impacted my own attitudes and expectations towards translanguaging, and how those attitudes and expectations changed over the course of the action research. This occurred within the context of language moments and critical incidents with my students where I collected field notes, audio files, and reflexive journaling as data instruments. Using constructivist grounded theory for the analytic framework, I developed an informed awareness of my teaching, and how I can utilize translanguaging in the classroom to create meaning, invoke learning, and maximize communication.

I found that I encouraged translanguaging with my students for 14 reasons/purposes. I categorized these reasons/purposes into three action-based categories: 1) Demonstrating Unity, 2) Working in Multiple Languages, and 3) Using Good Teaching Practices. The factors that impacted these practices included academic material and time constraint management, teacher/student language proficiencies, student dynamics, and school/classroom climate. Over the course of the study, my own attitudes and expectations towards translanguaging changed from an umbrella term for linguistic practices such as code-switching, code-mixing, and codemeshing to a strategic, purposeful, and intentional process along the language acquisition continuum. This change impacted how I use my languages in the classroom, and how I teach.


## Dedications

I dedicate this dissertation to my children, Jakob Wilhem Murray and Jadelyn Betsy Murray, in hopes of expressing the importance of higher education, and instilling in them the merit in finishing those grand tasks in life that are difficult to achieve, but rewarding in the end. It is befitting to dedicate this to them both because, while my doctorate is the most challenging thing I have undertaken academically, they are, by far, my greatest achievements. I am very proud to be their mother. This doctorate required a significant sacrifice of time on the home front; however, I hope what it inspires in them makes up for it. May they always keep things in balance, never stop thinking and creating, and seek out and respond to love--in all of its wonderful and worldly forms. Kenkamtek.

I also dedicate this dissertation to my maternal grandmother Minnie Koman, who wanted to go to college but was not afforded the opportunity. With the help of a dedicated teacher who believed in her, she completed high school in three years (with honors) so she could join the workforce and help support her family. She instilled the importance of education in my mother, who then instilled it in me. Dit doctoraat is voor jou.

I dedicate this work to my husband Steve Murray. I would not have finished this work without the love, devout support, and great care from my husband who held down the fort while I worked--making dinners, helping with the kids, and taking on more than his fair share so I could meet deadlines. Thank you Stephen for being my rock, and for encouraging me to finish the journey when my motivation waned.

Lastly, I dedicate this body of work to my parents Tim and Marilyn Crace. I thank my mother for always believing in me, for being the steady constant in my life, and for being a true friend. It is her resolve, along with her dedication as a mother, a teacher, and a friend that has influenced me the greatest. She will always be my favorite teacher. I also thank my father for being the voice of reason when I needed it, for being the role model of a true visionary, and for being the adventurist who introduced us to rural life in Alaska. Those rural environments helped me develop my multicultural identity at a very young age.

You all deserve my gratitude for the experiences that have helped shape who I am, and for your individual and collective efforts in contributing to my success. I love you all.

## Table of Contents

## Page

Abstract .....  i
Dedications ..... iii
Table of Contents ..... V
List of Figures ..... ix
List of Tables ..... xi
Acknowledgements ..... xiii
Chapter 1 Introduction ..... 1
1.1 Introduction .....  1
1.2 Rationale/Purpose ..... 3
1.3 Research Questions ..... 4
1.4 Limitations ..... 4
1.5 Summary ..... 4
Chapter 2 Literature Review ..... 7
2.1 Teacher Attitudes ..... 7
2.1.1 Teacher Attitudes Matter. ..... 7
2.1.2 Negative Teacher Attitudes towards Bilingualism, ELLs, \& Language Choices ..... 8
2.2 Defining Bilingualism ..... 13
2.2.1 Proficiency ..... 13
2.2.2 Use ..... 15
2.2.3 Balance ..... 17
2.2.3.1 Balance model ..... 17
2.2.3.2 Iceberg model. ..... 18
2.2.3.3 Thresholds theory ..... 19
2.2.3.4 Developmental Interdependence hypothesis ..... 21
2.2.4 Dynamic Bilingualism ..... 21
2.3 Multilingual Practices \& Monolingual Teacher Views ..... 23
2.3.1 Code-Switching ..... 24
2.3.2 Code-Mixing ..... 28
2.3.3 Code-Meshing ..... 29
2.3.4 Translanguaging ..... 30
2.4 Translanguaging Pedagogy ..... 32
2.4.1 Translanguaging Stance ..... 32
2.4.2 Translanguaging Design ..... 34
2.4.3 Translanguaging Shift ..... 40
Chapter 3 Methodology ..... 43
3.1 Research Design ..... 43
3.2 Action Research ..... 45
3.3 Teacher Action Research ..... 47
3.4 Autoethnographic Stance ..... 50
3.5 Conceptual Applicability ..... 52
3.6 Analytic Framework ..... 52
3.7 Synergic Relationship of Autoethnography, Constructivist Grounded Theory, \& AR/TAR. ..... 54
3.8 Positionalities ..... 55
3.9 Setting ..... 57
3.10 Participants ..... 58
3.11 Research Procedures ..... 59
3.12 Field Notes ..... 60
3.13 Audio Files ..... 62
3.14 Reflexive Journals ..... 63
3.15 Timeline. ..... 64
Chapter 4 Data Analysis ..... 67
4.1 Language Moments ..... 67
4.1.1 Language Moment 1: Uruguay ..... 68
4.1.2 Language Moment 2: Science Translation ..... 73
4.1.3 Language Moment 3: Peppers/Ants ..... 78
4.1.4 Language Moment 4: Lunch Time ..... 84
4.1.5 Language Moment 5: Attic ..... 88
4.1.6 Language Moment 6: Video Games ..... 95
4.1.7 Language Moment 7: Reading Comprehension. ..... 101
4.1.8 Language Moment 8: Alphabet ..... 106
4.1.9 Language Moment 9: Hurricanes ..... 109
4.1.10 Language Moment 10: Baseball ..... 114
4.1.11 Language Moment 11: Reading Fluency ..... 119
4.1.12 Language Moment 12: NO! ..... 125
4.1.13 Language Moment 13: Signs ..... 129
4.1.14 Language Moment 14: Story Cubes. ..... 134
4.2 Codes in Relationship to Research Questions ..... 142
4.2.1 Research Question 1: ..... 144
4.2.1.1 Modeling can be a form of translanguaging pedagogy ..... 144
4.2.1.2 Thinking in the L 1 can be translanguaging pedagogy ..... 145
4.2.1.3 Multi-modal connectivity can be translanguaging ..... 146
4.2.1.4 Using L 1 /translanguaging can be used as comfort by ELLs ..... 147
4.2.1.5 Teachers do not need the same L1 as their students to utilize TL pedagogy ..... 148
4.2.1.6 Translanguaging can support self-assessment and self-repair ..... 149
4.2.1.7 Translanguaging requires patience and/or silence. ..... 150
4.2.1.8 Translanguaging can help keep communication flowing ..... 151
4.2.2 Research Question 2: ..... 152
4.2.2.1 ELLs and teachers might translanguage to show solidarity ..... 152
4.2.2.2 Translanguaging Pedagogy can position the learner as the expert. ..... 153
4.2.2.3 The option to TL can increase student participation ..... 154
4.2.2.4 Translanguaging can help the L 1 inform the L 2 and maximize communication ..... 155
4.2.2.5: Translanguaging can develop the L 1 and L 2 together ..... 156
4.2.3 Research Question 3: ..... 157
4.2.3.1 Translanguaging can help manage time and content constraints . ..... 157
4.2.3.2: Translanguaging can help teachers build relationships faster with their ELLs. ..... 158
4.2.3.3 Translanguaging can help teachers/students identify gaps in learning ..... 159
Chapter 5 Conclusion. ..... 161
5.1 Translanguaging Stance and Awareness as an ELA teacher ..... 161
5.2 Teaching Practices ..... 162
5.3 Translanguaging Pedagogy Categories ..... 163
5.3.1 Demonstrating Unity ..... 164
5.3.2 Working in Multiple Languages ..... 167
5.3.3 Using Good Teaching Practices ..... 170
5.4 Factors ..... 173
5.5 Implications ..... 175
5.6 Future Research ..... 176
5.7 Summary ..... 177
References ..... 179

## List of Figures

Page
Figure 2.1: Diagram of the Iceberg model................................................................... 19
Figure 2.2: Diagram of the Thresholds theory............................................................. 20

## List of Tables

Page
Table 3.1: Comparison Between Teacher Action Research \& My Research Context ..... 49
Table 3.2: School Site Schedule/11 Languages. ..... 59
Table 3.3: Data Collection Instruments/Data Analysis Framework ..... 59
Table 3.4: Data Instruments/Numbers/Dates ..... 60
Table 3.5: Field Notes Written ..... 61
Table 3.6: Audio Recordings Collected ..... 62
Table 3.7: Journal Entries Written ..... 63
Table 3.8: Research Timeline ..... 64
Table 4.1: Coding Chart ..... 143
Table 4.2: Codes in Relationship with the Research Questions ..... 143
Table 5.1: Categories of Translanguaging Pedagogy ..... 164

## Acknowledgements

I acknowledge my Yugtun teachers Mary Alexie and Anecia Toyukuk of Manokotak, Alaska for accepting and baptizing me as Yugtun when I was 9 years old. Their complete and unassuming acceptance of me as Yugtun greatly influenced how I see the world. They not only taught me the Yugtun language, but also Yugtun ways of knowing. Their influence helped me redefine my identity as part kass'aq and part Yugtun. Their guidance was always gentle and encouraging. Recollection of scenes and experiences as a young emerging bilingual impacted my autoethnographic reflections throughout my research. Those experiences, alongside personal, professional and academic discovery, make me a better language teacher. It is my hope that this work will inspire others to examine their own teaching and include translanguaging as a viable language acquisition strategy, especially for those experiencing language loss from an Indigenous perspective. Quyana cakneq tamarpetek.

I also acknowledge my bilingual friends/peers over the years for treating me as equal, and for navigating the language acquisition continuum along with me. Through word play, language invention, and socializing, you have helped me find my own linguistic voices whether it be Dena'ina, Yugtun, Castellano, or Japanese. Thank you for making language learning enjoyable.

I acknowledge my advisor/committee chair Dr. Sabine Siekmann, and my committee cochair Dr. Joan Parker-Webster. From the time I called Dr. Siekmann, and we spoke on the phone for almost an hour about the prospects of joining a new cohort focusing on Native language maintenance and revitalization in Alaska, to today as I prepare to graduate with my doctorate five years later, she has resolutely and patiently guided me through the process of discovery. I also want to acknowledge the valuable feedback and encouragement that Dr. Parker-Webster provided me as I solidified my research design and found my researcher voice from an autoethnographic stance.

I acknowledge my committee members Dr. Theresa John, who reminded me to listen to my Yugtun soul and trust my instincts as I completed the doctoral journey, and Dr. Patrick Marlow, without whom I could not have developed a respectable document. Their honest feedback helped me negotiate the difficult task of blending academic life and personal life successfully.

Lastly, I acknowledge my peers in the PhD cohort whom I greatly respect and admire. I truly believe that it is our work as educators, administrators, and change agents in the field of language maintenance and revitalization that will insure the survival of Alaska's great people.

## Chapter 1 Introduction

As the English as a second language (ESL) teacher at a high school in rural Alaska in the year 2001, my class consisted of three Albanian English Language Learners (ELLs) spanning grades 7-11. Two were bilingual (highly proficient in Albanian, and moderately proficient in English), and one was a monolingual Albanian speaker. I assigned an end-of-year class project where they were to choose a social aspect of their culture, create a booklet of pictures and descriptions in both languages, and present them via a PowerPoint presentation. They could present in both languages, so long as the audience was able to follow along and understand. I also encouraged them to invite family members and bring in foods and/or artifacts to support their presentation. The result was very successful. Each student invited family members, their teachers, and the principal to their presentations. They brought foods, pictures, and artifacts from their country of origin to share, and each student successfully conducted a bilingual presentation on a social aspect from their native culture. One student presented on weddings in Albania, using her sister's recent wedding as an example. Another presented on fashion in Albania and how it differs from U.S. fashion. The third student presented on foods of Albania and how they have influenced other foods around the world.

At that time, I was not aware of the term translanguaging, nor had I developed a stance on translanguaging in the classroom. However, I had completed a second bachelor's degree in secondary education with a focus on bilingual education. I had also been exposed to several languages and acquired three languages by the time I became a teacher. My multilingualism, alongside my training in bilingual education, informed my teaching enough to understand that encouraging my students to incorporate their culture(s) and language(s) into their learning led to enhanced language acquisition of the target language. Although I did not know the terms codeswitching (CS), code-mixing (CM), code-meshing (C-M), or translanguaging (TL) at the time, I was accustomed to using my students' many languages and encouraging them to also use them. I also recognized the languages as meaningful in the language acquisition process.

### 1.1 Introduction

The number of English Language Learners (ELLs) continues to rise in U.S. schools. With a 65\% increase in ELLs entering the United States school system between 1995 and 2008 alone (Baker, 2011), the need for understanding how teachers view bilinguals' use of language(s) is
significant. Baker (2011) posits that the underachievement of bilinguals is due to the mismatch between languages of home and school, coupled with relative social and economic underdevelopment. If this is true, then educators and schools need to look at how teachers support bilinguals, and how they react when students use their full language repertoires in the classroom. These insights will help us better serve these students and promote academic success.

Furthermore, classroom teachers are not generally equipped with English language acquisition (ELA) strategies and methodologies to teach the increasingly diverse student populations. Classroom teachers are frustrated by the lack of consistent ELA support for their ELL students, and by their perceived inability to communicate with their bilingual and multilingual students. From an ELA specialist standpoint, I, too, feel the burden of servicing growing numbers of ELLs without the proper time and resources.

Within my own context and experiences as a teacher over the past 12 years, I have witnessed biases towards bilinguals in many forms. I have seen teachers advocate against ELLs being on their class rosters, and I have helped advocate against the over-referral of ELLs for special education services in elementary schools. I have also worked with teachers who were reluctant to learn about different ways of teaching ELLs. My profession as an ELA specialist, has put me in a unique position to work with teachers of ELLs, work alongside ELA tutors, and teach ELL students equipped with a variety of language repertoires. Because of the deficit views evident in our school system regarding bilingual students, and monolingual ideologies of school language practices, I became interested in evaluating my own attitudes and ideologies regarding multilingual practices in schools.

During my graduate work, I was introduced to the concept of translanguaging. I was immediately drawn to it because of my roles in schools and because of my own experiences as a multilingual. The more I learned about translanguaging, the more interested I became in learning what the term meant, how the linguistic practices I had been observing fit into that definition, and how translanguaging could be useful in the classroom. As a multilingual, I was also interested in learning how to use translanguaging to organize my own linguistic practices. I also wanted to encourage the same in my students.

### 1.2 Rationale/Purpose

As a result of biases, many teachers tend to marginalize their ELL students (Wedin, 2014). This marginalization consists of teachers embracing the idea that immigrant children and culturally and linguistically diverse students are subordinate learners. As a result of these attitudes, the students are usually segregated in the classroom and given intellectually inferior assignments (Wedin, 2014). Teachers who have negative attitudes about their ELL students tend to marginalize them by not challenging them with age-appropriate and/or proficiency-levelappropriate materials. They also fail to realize the importance of using the ELL's first language in the process of language acquisition, vastly underestimating the opportunities for critical thinking and higher-order thinking that translanguaging allows for in the classroom.

Additionally, teachers tend to misunderstand the benefits that incorporating ELA strategies in the classroom has for all students.

I am personally interested in this topic because, as a young child, I lived in rural Alaskan villages and was exposed to Indigenous languages, including Dena'ina and Yugtun. As a young adult, I took part in a study-abroad program through my college where I lived and studied in Argentina, attending classes at the University during the day and socializing with locals outside of class. The classes were taught in Castellano Spanish, and the family I lived with consisted of monolingual Spanish speakers. In subsequent years, I also had a college roommate from Japan; we traded visits to our home towns/countries to share our cultures. When I decided to become a teacher, I knew I wanted to teach language, so I taught Spanish and English as a Second Language (ESL) classes for several years. I eventually became an ELA specialist and started coaching other ELA tutors and teachers.

I conducted this study to find ways to better meet the needs of my ELL students. My path to discovery was realized through teacher action research, focusing on my own practice as an ELA teacher/specialist. As a teacher, I collected the data directly from my work environment and interactions with my ELL students. What I discovered was then directly applied to my teaching and further interactions.

From an auto-ethnographic stance, I investigated my research questions through language moments and critical incidents with my ELL students. I approached my research from a holistic, intimate perspective that was committed to analysis and interpretation for the sole purpose of becoming a better teacher and advocate for my ELL students.

The analytic framework I used was constructivist grounded theory (Charmaz, 2014), which, through introspection, reflection, note-taking, and analysis, guided me to develop an informed awareness as an effective teacher of English language learners. Using the cyclical and iterative process of discovery, where each cycle informs the next, I observed, collected data, reflected, and analyzed, incorporating my findings into my teaching daily.

### 1.3 Research Questions

The questions that guided my research are as follow:

1) As a teacher, how and why do I encourage or discourage translanguaging with my ELL students?
2) What factors impact my expectations and attitudes towards translanguaging?
3) How do my own expectations and attitudes towards translanguaging change over the course of the action research?

### 1.4 Limitations

My study addresses how translanguaging is used by ELLs, how I encourage it as an ELA teacher, and what factors impact my expectations and attitudes towards translanguaging in the classroom. My research addresses how I integrate what I learn into my teaching, and how my views and practices towards translanguaging change over the course of the study.

The primary limitation of my study is its narrowness. My study focuses solely on my own teaching and on my interactions with my ELL students within one school district. It is based on my experiences and, therefore, cannot be generalizable to other school districts or contexts or experiences. However, I hope that readers and other teachers or ELA specialists will be inspired to examine their own teaching, and explore the utility of translanguaging in the classroom as a valid and useful tool for ELL empowerment and language acquisition.

### 1.5 Summary

In chapter 2, the literature review provides a background on translanguaging in the classroom and on how teacher practices and attitudes impact language choices. Chapter 3 describes the research methodology. Chapter 4 presents the data analysis, organized by language moments and by research question, in which my decisions as a teacher impacted how language was used and acquired. Chapter 5 summarily addresses how the literature and my data define
translanguaging, and how they compare. It also addresses my translanguaging stance and awareness as an ELA teacher and how my own definition of translanguaging, and my teaching practices, have changed over the course of the study. Lastly, I discuss the implications of my research, and opportunities for further research.

## Chapter 2 Literature Review

This literature review provides background on translanguaging in the classroom and how teacher practices and attitudes impact language choices. The theoretical framework contains four main themes: 1) Teacher Attitudes, 2) Defining Bilingualism, 3) Multilingual Practices \& Monolingual Teacher Views, and 4) Translanguaging Pedagogy.

### 2.1 Teacher Attitudes

Teacher attitudes about ELLs and their language choices in the classroom are the focus of this section. This section discusses teacher attitudes, why teacher attitudes matter, negative teacher attitudes and their origins, and teacher practices that place emphasis on English-only education.

### 2.1.1 Teacher Attitudes Matter

Logan and Wimer (2013) state, "teacher attitudes matter in the classroom. Attitudes impact how teachers communicate with students as well as how curricular decisions are determined in the classroom" (p. 3). Walker, Shafer, and Liams (2004) caution that "one cannot ignore the extent to which attitudes impact educational opportunities for linguistically diverse students" (p. 139). In other words, attitudes are mental predispositions that affect how teachers act (Gómez \& García, 2012). Put another way, teachers' attitudes about ELLs and their languages are at the core of understanding how and why teachers encourage or discourage certain languages, and language practices, in the classroom. These attitudes directly impact how teachers treat ELLs and how they teach.

Knowing what attitudes are and how to identify them can help teachers start to understand how they impact their teaching practices. Baker (2006) posits that the main characteristics of teacher attitudes are as follow:

- Attitudes are cognitive and affective.
- Attitudes are dimensional rather than bipolar. They vary in degree of favorability and un-favorability.
- Attitudes predispose a person to act, but the relationship between attitudes and actions is not a strong one.
- Attitudes are learned, not inherited or genetically based.
- Attitudes tend to persist but they can be modified by experience. (p.131)
2.1.2 Negative Teacher Attitudes towards Bilingualism, ELLs, \& Language Choices It has been reported in the literature that many mainstream teachers have negative attitudes towards ELLs (Árva \& Medgyes, 2000; Baker, 2011; Brown, 2004; de Oliveira, 2011; Creese \& Blackledge, 2010; Durgunoglu \& Hughes, 2010; Garcia, 2009; Garcia \& Kleyn, 2016; Gómez \& García, 2012; Horenczyk \& Tatar, 2002; Hornberger \& Link, 2012; Krashen, 2003; Logan \& Wimer, 2013; Pettit, 2011; Ting \& Gilmore, 2012; Walker, Shafer, \& Liams, 2004; Wedin, 2014). Walker et al. (2004) developed a survey to assess teacher attitudes towards ELLs. Their findings show the following:

In terms of survey questions related to teachers' responsibilities to ELLs, an overwhelming $70 \%$ of mainstream teachers were not actively interested in having ELLs in their classroom. Fourteen percent directly objected to ELL students being placed in their classrooms and $56 \%$ responded neutrally to the idea. Twenty-five percent of teachers felt that it was the responsibility of ELLs to adapt to American culture and school life while $30 \%$ responded neutrally. Twenty percent of teachers directly objected to adapting their classroom instruction for ELLs, and another 27\% were neutral on the issue. (p. 140)
The authors offer further evidence of negative attitudes through teacher statements they encountered in their research. These included "ESL students should not be placed in the mainstream classroom until they are ready to learn at that level," "I think ESL services should be rendered in a self-contained classroom by an expert in the field," and "If an ELL can do the work, I have no problem having them in my classroom" (p.145). Brown (2004) supports the observations by stating,

A review of the literature reveals that general education teachers from the dominant culture have pre-determined perceptions about culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) students' language learning and academic achievement. These predispositions powerfully influence how and what these educators see as problems. (p. 227)
Krashen (2003) observes that societal attitudes about English language learners and the educational programs that serve them have become increasingly negative in the U.S. over the past decade. He states that what we may be seeing in recent years is a shift in the U.S. population in terms of those who support bilingual education and those who mildly support it, advocating
for one or two years of bilingual education (p. 2). Walker et al. (2004) list the key contributing factors to negative teacher attitudes as "time and teacher burden, lack of training, the influence of negative administrator attitudes, malignant misnomers about effective ELL education, the ideology of common sense, and ethnocentric bias" (p. 141).

I will now briefly discuss each of these six reasons. Teachers view teaching ELLs as an additional burden and as requiring too much time. They are reluctant to invest their time in professional development because of the already burdensome responsibilities intrinsic to today's teaching profession. Walker et al. (2004) report that "many of the respondents who negatively answered questions about teaching ELLs in the mainstream classroom offered the rationale that there were already too many other school demands placed upon their time" (p. 141). The general consensus of the survey conducted by Walker et al. (2004) was that teachers felt that teaching had become more time-demanding due to the inclusion of special education students and ELLs in the classroom, having to adapt their curriculum to meet state standards, and the pressures of preparing their students for state and federal assessments (p. 141).

In terms of feeling adequately prepared to teach culturally and linguistically diverse students, teachers feel at a disadvantage when it comes to successfully meeting the needs of their ELL students. This is evident in how they treat ELLs in their classroom and/or how they discuss bilingualism. Durgonoglu and Hughes (2010) investigated the self-efficacy and knowledge of pre-service teachers to determine how prepared and confident they are for teaching ELL students. According to the study, "the pre-service teachers clearly articulated they did not feel prepared to educate the ELL students they would encounter in their mainstream classrooms" ( p . 39). Walker et al. (2004) also find this lack of preparation: "eighty-seven percent of survey respondents reported never having received any training or professional development in working with English language learners" (p. 142). Krashen (2003) reports that a large percentage of teachers are operating under inaccurate information or do not know enough about second language acquisition to make informed decisions. Therefore, mainstream teachers who have not had the proper training to teach ELLs often feel overwhelmed. As Walker et al. (2004) put it, "unprepared teachers in our study reported feeling helpless and having no idea of where to begin" (p. 142).

Negative teacher attitudes are also impacted by negative administrator attitudes. Horenczyk and Tatar (2002) posit that teachers' approaches and behaviors towards culturally and
linguistically diverse students do not exist in a social vacuum, but rather they tend to reflect the norms and values of both the larger society and the educational settings in which they work. They found that one of the main reasons for teachers' negative perceptions of ELLs is their responsiveness to the societal norms that surround them. Walker et al. (2004) state,

When teachers internalize dominant societal messages, they bring them directly into their schools and classroom. School administrators, other school staff and parents all internalize societal messages, creating a school ethos that mirrors that of the community and the dominant order of society at large. (p. 131)

One of the main factors that impacts negative teacher attitudes is the influence of the school community and its administration. Walker et al. (2004) state, "the most decisive factor impacting school effectiveness for ELLs is the principal or school leader" (p. 135). This speaks to how a principal can create a school ethos that promotes a monolingual English ideology, essentially blaming bilinguals for their own social and academic challenges (p. 143).

The vast majority of teachers are not aware of the benefits of developing and/or using both languages in the classroom and of the role of the first language in second language acquisition. The literature refers to malignant misnomers as the beliefs held by teachers that adversely impact how they teach and interact with ELL students. As Walker et al. (2004) state, "one of the frustrations cited by ELL teachers was the problem of both administrators and mainstream teachers believing in misnomers about effective ELL education" (p. 144). The authors provide two examples of common misnomers: "ELLs learn better if they are prohibited from using their native language in school," and "ELLs should be fluent in English after only one year of ELL instruction" (p. 144). Tse (2001) summarizes this deficit view of bilingualism as follows:

The failure to understand that adding a new language to an existing one is both possible and desirable has led to a (second) set of misconceptions among the public. Because many believe in the myth that simultaneous development of two languages will result in inferior learning of both, the proposed solution is for students to forget, or at least put aside, their heritage language while they learn English. (p. 71)

Cho and DeCastro-Ambrosetti (2005) examined attitudes of pre-service teachers towards ESL students. The authors found that the majority of teachers believed low academic achievement in ESL students to be related to family values. These same teachers did not consider
how school factors might contribute to ESL student low performance. Ting and Gilmore (2012) state, "with this attitude, teachers would be unlikely to believe that they could make beneficial changes within their classes, and they would be less likely to make accommodations for ESL students" (p. 47).

The misinformation that teachers operate under can also lead to an ideology of "common sense." Teachers generally assume that good common sense is all that is required to teach ELLs and that ESL/ELA training is not necessary. The literature suggests that educators assume that it is the responsibility of ELL students to adapt to American culture and school life and to learn the language of the school (Walker et al., 2004, p. 146). They write, "several teachers stated that they were satisfied by such common sense approaches as having volunteers, aides, and 'the other children to help' educate English language learners in their classrooms" (p. 146). However, the problem with using solely "common sense" is that it can lead to teachers making mistakes that are detrimental to their students and their learning. Faez (2012) further notes that it is not enough to put "diverse teachers" in the classroom: "Simply assuming that these teachers' shared background and empathy with ELLs prepares them for addressing the needs of ELLs in mainstream classrooms is erroneous" (p. 78).

Lastly, Walker et al. (2004) identified ethnocentric bias as a key contributing factor in negative teacher attitudes. They found that teachers in their study tended to view ELLs as detracting from their non-ELL peers, alluding to the notion that it was not fair to the other English-speaking students. "Numerous survey comments, particularly from teachers in rapidinflux schools and schools serving Hispanic migrant students, alluded to the notion that ELLs detract from the learning of mainstream students" (p. 146).

Overall, teacher biases range from favoring mainstream students over ELLs to not understanding the linguistic needs of their students (Walker et al., 2004, p. 147). In other words, viewing ELLs as minority learners and high-need students leads to negative teacher attitudes towards their students' bilingualism. As a result, teachers fail to see how a student's first language can be utilized in the classroom.

The danger is that as the language-minority population in the U.S. grows, negative societal attitudes may also increase, further exacerbating the current problem of negative teacher attitudes (Walker et al., 2004). With $18 \%$ of the U.S. population speaking a language other than English at home, it is estimated that the number of language-minority children entering the
public education system will grow at a rate of four times that of English speaking students (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000). With statistics such as those, it makes sense to explore the use of multiple languages in the classroom.

One common attitude among teachers is that English-only is the best way to learn English and prepare students for assessments. Hornberger and Link (2012) state, "The current US mandate for standardized testing clearly demonstrates that educational practices overwhelmingly favor compartmentalized, monolingual, written, decontextualized language and literacy practices" (p. 245).

With schools operating from monolingual ideologies, it makes it difficult for teachers to integrate varying English language acquisition strategies. Brown (2004) supports this view of teachers embracing a monolingual ideology by stating, "many teachers operate under the subtractive cognitive models which label CLD students who struggle with 'normal' linguistic skills and knowledge as deficient" (p. 227-228). Krashen (2003) posits that focusing on Englishonly instruction perpetuates the deficiency theory around bilingualism. He points to evidence that can be seen in states such as California, Arizona, and Massachusetts where voters have banned bilingual education and narrowed ESL instruction to a single year of structured immersion. Krashen (2003) also argues that voters in these states have been influenced largely by prevailing societal attitudes, media bias, and glitzy propaganda campaigns funded by rightwing organizations such as English for the Children and English Only rather than accurate educational research. Krashen (2003) directly states,

It is clear that things have gotten worse. Media reports have repeated the unsubstantial claims of critics that children in bilingual education programs do not learn English very well, and have not balanced these claims with the results of scientific studies that consistently show that bilingual education has been quite effective in helping children acquire English. (p. 2)
These attitudes reflect socially accepted beliefs that ELLs are not only deficient speakers but also difficult students to teach. De Oliveira (2011) states, "teachers' attitudes and beliefs about ELLs can be influenced by their lack of empathy for these students' experiences and backgrounds" (p. 59). Generally speaking, teachers are unaware of how their students feel when they are immersed in a language they are not familiar with. Árva and Medgyes (2000) point out that teachers who are linguistically diverse themselves tend to be more empathic towards their

ELL students due to their personal and professional experiences learning English as a second language. One way to possibly bridge the gap between schools and home is to explore how teachers view bilingualism overall. Conteh and Meier (2014) posit, "Teachers could be key actors in the evolution of the language lens through which pupils' languages are ignored or acknowledged, judged as an asset or as a deficit, supported or outlawed" (p. 106).

Negative attitudes are based on a lack of knowledge about bilingualism and on deficiency views towards bilingualism. Those negative attitudes lead to the use of monolingual models and strategies in the classroom, which is why bilingualism is discussed in the following section.

### 2.2 Defining Bilingualism

Scholarship on bilingualism in schools has been a combination of what Baker (2011), Garcia (2009), and Garcia and Kleyn (2016) refer to as traditional views and emergent views towards bilingualism. In exploring these views and how they have impacted teacher attitudes, it is important to consider some dimensions of bilingualism and how bilingualism has been conceptualized over the past 40 years. The first three dimensions discussed by Baker (2011) that are relevant to my study are proficiency, use, and balance (p.3).

### 2.2.1 Proficiency

The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) provides a detailed scale that correlates proficiency descriptions to interrelated assessment criteria.

Omaggio Hadley (2001) offers the following explanation:
The ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines define and measure language ability in speaking, listening, reading, and writing. ... Levels of proficiency on the ACTFL scale can be distinguished by considering the four interrelated assessment criteria underlying the proficiency descriptions: global tasks/functions, context/content, accuracy, and text type. (p. 12)

Under this model, each domain (listening, speaking, reading, writing) is assessed along four criteria (global tasks and functions, context and content, accuracy, and text type), while suggesting a proficiency rating of Novice, Intermediate, Advanced, or Superior (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 2012, Online Documents section, para. 4). Omaggio Hadley (2001) describes the four criteria as follows: global tasks and functions refer to real world tasks that the speaker can do; context refers to the circumstances or settings in which a
person uses language; content refers to topics or themes of conversation; accuracy refers to acceptability, quality, and precision of the message conveyed; and text type refers to the structure of the discourse (pp. 12-16).

The ACTFL framework owes a lot to Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale's (1983) concept of communicative competence, which consists of four major components: 1) grammatical competence, 2) sociolinguistic competence, 3) discourse competence, and 4) strategic competence (p. 6). In the Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) framework, grammatical competence refers to the degree to which the language user has mastered the linguistic code, including knowledge of vocabulary, rules of pronunciation and spelling, word formation, and sentence structure.

Sociolinguistic competence addresses the extent to which the second language can be used or understood appropriately in various contexts to convey specific communicative functions (Canale \& Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983). Sociolinguistic competence refers to pragmatic functions such as being able to describe, narrate, persuade, and elicit information (Omaggio Hadley, 2001). According to Brown (1980) and Omaggio Hadley (2001), speakers can vary in their choice of linguistic style and apply them to both spoken and written discourse.

The third piece of the Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) framework involves the ability to combine ideas to achieve cohesion in form and coherence in thought. In other words, a highly developed speaker is able to use cohesive devices like grammatical connectors, and transitional phrases correctly. Discourse competence also refers to being skilled at understanding, expressing, and judging the relationship among the different ideas in a text (Canale \& Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983). Strategic competence involves the use of verbal and nonverbal communication strategies to compensate for gaps in the language user's knowledge of the code (Canale \& Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983). This includes speakers using communication strategies such as paraphrasing, using gestures, and asking others to speak more slowly.

This framework suggests that communicative competence involves both a basic knowledge about language structure and having the communicative skills to produce language in real-life situations. Omaggio Hadley (2001) states, "communicative competence refers to both underlying knowledge about language and communicative language use and skill, or how well an individual can perform with this knowledge base in actual communication situations" (p. 7).

Building on the concepts of proficiency (American Council On The Teaching Of Foreign Languages, 2012) and communicative competence (Canale \& Swain, 1980), it is apparent that "knowing a language" is not an "all or nothing" proposition. For example, some bilinguals are productive bilinguals that speak and write well in both languages, while others have receptive abilities where they can understand or read, but not speak or write their languages (Baker, 2011). Others may be in various stages of learning a second language. To give an example, I vary in the level of proficiency for each of the languages within my linguistic repertoire. I also vary in the level of proficiency, per domain, for one of the languages within my linguistic repertoire. For example, using the ACTFL scale, I am superior in all domains for both English and Spanish. Focusing only on the ACTFL scale for speaking, that means that I am able to discuss topics extensively, support opinions, hypothesize, and successfully navigate linguistically unfamiliar situations (Omaggio Hadley, 2001, p. 14). According to the ACTFL scale, I am intermediate in the speaking and writing domains in Yugtun, somewhere in between intermediate and advanced in the listening domain, and advanced in the reading domain. Focusing only on the speaking domain again, that means I can create with language, and initiate, maintain, and bring simple conversations to a close by asking and responding to simple questions. While these schemas provide criteria for all of the domains, these examples focused on the speech domain and the global tasks and functions that demonstrate the most measureable proficiency level for a speaker (Canale \& Swain, 1980: Canale, 1983; Omaggio Hadley, 2001).

In terms of ELLs, it is important to keep in mind that they are not simply proficient or not proficient in a language either. It is more complex than that. Some ELL students use their first language; some use a combination of their first and second language; some use their second language but are influenced by their first language; some can read and write but not speak (or vice versa); some are multilingual using combinations of all of the languages within their linguistic repertoires, and so on. The combination of languages and how English language learners use them to create meaning varies per student. In addition to proficiency, Baker (2011) also suggests "use" as a way to describe relative bilingualism.
2.2.2 Use

Use, in terms of bilingualism, refers to the domains or contexts where language is acquired and used (Baker, 2011). For example, an individual may use one language at home and another at school. An individual's different languages are often used for different purposes and
in different contexts (Baker, 2011). In examining my own relative bilingualism in relation to various languages, I offer the following example. Generally speaking, at work I use English. At home, with my family, I use a mixture of English, Spanish, and Yugtun to help my children develop their proficiencies in the languages. Further, I use primarily Yugtun and English at home when I host Alaska Native events such as potlucks, Native Night (an event where I open my home to those who want to come work on Native projects while speaking Native languages), or an uqiquq (a traditional throwing party to honor a person's first harvest of a subsistence animal) at my home. Similarly, I use Spanish and English at home when I host a Spanish conversation group, or when I want to practice speaking Spanish with my family. The domain, the context, the speakers, and their proficiencies in the languages all determine the languages I use, and how much of each language is used. In other words, I do not usually use Spanish during Native Night since most of my guests are Yugtun speakers or attend the event to increase their Yugtun proficiency. Knowing that my guests are attending to be exposed to and increase their proficiency in Yugtun impacts how much Yugtun I use. However, I also use English and Spanish on occasion to make comparisons across the languages, to clarify a point, to add humor, or for a variety of other reasons that might add to the situation or increase understanding.

Baker (2011) points out that, "rarely are bilinguals and multilinguals equal in their ability or use of their two or more languages" (p.3). Valdés (2005) supports this by stating that "although absolutely equivalent abilities in two languages are theoretically possible, except for rare geographical and familial accidents, individuals seldom have access to two languages in exactly the same contexts in every domain of interaction" (p. 414). In other words, how the bilingual uses language depends on both need and opportunity. To give an example, I usually use Yugtun when I visit my former Yugtun teacher, when I am communicating with Yugtunspeaking friends on social media, or when I host a Native event at my house. In these instances, I speak Yugtun to demonstrate Native pride to my teacher, to show solidarity with a comment or joke on social media, or to communicate with the Yugtun speakers in my home. I feel the need to speak Yugtun almost immediately in these situations. Regardless of my proficiency in different domains of the language, my motivation and language choice varies depending on a variety of cognitive and socio-cultural factors. This is similar to what I do in the classroom with my students. Knowing that they are acquiring English impacts how I use translanguaging to
access language constructs in their first languages to make connections to English and increase understanding.

The following cognitive theories on bilingualism are defined in relation to balance. All of the following models/theories/hypothesis have to do with languages, how they function in relation to one another, and how they impact the bilingual. The bilingual is assumed to be the student, or English language learner (ELL), in the classroom.

### 2.2.3 Balance

Balance most broadly refers to overall proficiency in two languages, and how they relate to each other. It also refers to their relationship to cognition. Since about 1980, bilingualism has been explained through five main cognitive theories: the Balance/Separate Underlying Proficiency model, the Iceberg/Common Underlying Proficiency model, the Thresholds theory, the Developmental Interdependence hypothesis, and the more recent Translanguaging theory (Baker, 2011). The first four are discussed in this section, with translanguaging in a section of its own.

### 2.2.3.1 Balance model

The Balance model assumes that the two languages exist independently of one another, but also together in balance (Baker, 2011). To give an example, Baker's (2011) historical review offers the image of a weighted scale in which each language sits on its respective scale and one language increases at the expense of the other (p. 164). In this view, the goal is to become a "balanced bilingual," someone who sounds like a monolingual in his/her first language and a monolingual in his/her second language. In other words, any imbalance (one language being stronger than the other) is problematic.

Teachers have long subscribed to this model of bilingualism through negative teacher attitudes towards their bilingual students and through monolingual ideologies (Baker, 2011; Garcia, 2009; Walker et al., 2004). The worry seems to be that students need to fully develop one language (namely English) and that also using an additional language would "tip" the scale. They also viewed the home or native language to be detrimental to the acquisition of the language of instruction/school (primarily English), often chastising students for using their home language at school. This was evident in Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA) schools in Alaska where Native children were disciplined for speaking their home languages.

The problem with the Balance model is that while it acknowledges some benefits of "balanced bilingualism," it is grounded in a deficit model and focuses on the idea that a bilingual should sound like a monolingual in both/all of his/her languages.

The Balance model laid the groundwork for other models/theories to evolve. Cummins (1980) termed this particular balance theory as the Separate Underlying Proficiency model of bilingualism. He described the theory as one in which the two languages operate separately from one another, without transfer of knowledge between them (Cummins, 1980). He would later argue against this theory and for The Common Underlying Proficiency theory or Iceberg theory.

### 2.2.3.2 Iceberg model

Cummins $(1980,1981)$ called this new model the Common Underlying Proficiency model of bilingualism, or the Iceberg model. This model argued that bilingualism could be viewed as separate languages on the surface while they shared general knowledge below the surface.

To understand the Iceberg model, it is important to picture it in your head. Picture two peaks of ice floating in the water side by side. The one on the left represents the first language. The one on the right represents the second language. Both of them have distinctive linguistic features on the surface. However, according to Cummins's (1980) theory, what is happening underneath the surface is labeled the Common Underlying Proficiency model (Baker, 2011) and represents general knowledge. Baker (2011) also explains it as "the Central Operating System that represents a common base with one integrated source of thought" (p. 166). According to this theory, the two peaks are still part of the same iceberg. However, this model does pre-suppose that each language is separate and will remain separate within the two peaks. It is the central processor that feeds what is common below the body of water. Consider the diagram in Figure 2.1 on the following page.


Figure 2.1: Diagram of the Iceberg model (adapted from Baker, 2011, p. 166)
An example of this model is when students are taught how to use a dictionary in one language and apply those same concepts to their other language without the need to re-teach it since the information transfers easily across languages. However, because the languages are still seen as separate, teachers may acknowledge that two or more languages exist side by side, using the same knowledge base, but not necessarily acknowledge that the languages inform one another.

As Baker (2011) points out, this view still supports the notion that when one or more languages do not function at the same proficiency levels, the cognitive function of the speaker, and/or academic performance of the student, is adversely affected (p. 166). Put another way, the Common Underlying Proficiency model seems to propose that unless both languages are developed simultaneously, the balance is again disrupted. The following theory hypothesizes, in more detail, how language proficiencies impact the bilingual.

### 2.2.3.3 Thresholds theory

Cummins (1976), and Toukomaa and Skutnabb-Kangas (1977) presented the idea of the Thresholds theory. The Thresholds theory is more generally accepted and suggests that there are different levels/stages of language acquisition, and that each stage/level has intrinsic benefits and/or disadvantages for the bilingual. The more advanced the level, the more cognitive benefits the bilingual will experience (Baker, 2011). Cummins (1976) and Toukomaa and SkutnabbKangas (1977) suggest that each threshold is a level of language competence that has
consequences for a child. The first threshold is a level for a child to reach to avoid the negative consequences of bilingualism. The second threshold is a level required to experience the possible positive benefits of bilingualism.

To illustrate this theory, Baker (2011) presents the image of a house with three levels: the Lower Level, the Middle Level, and the Top Floor. The Lower Level represents limited bilinguals where individuals have low levels of proficiency in both languages with likely negative cognitive effects (p. 168). The Middle Floor represents less balanced bilinguals where individuals have age-appropriate proficiency in one, but not two languages, and they are unlikely to see positive or negative cognitive consequences. The Top Floor represents balanced bilinguals where individuals have age-appropriate proficiency in both languages and there are likely to be positive cognitive advantages (p. 168). Interestingly enough, this still places balanced bilinguals at the pinnacle and reinforces the socially accepted norm for what bilingualism should look like. Consider the diagram in Figure 2.2.


Figure 2.2: Diagram of the Thresholds theory (adapted from Baker, 2011, p. 168)

For teachers, this theory poses more problems than solutions. With students having varying levels of proficiency in their languages, teachers have trouble understanding how to use them in interrelation with one another. They also tend to assign more value to the languages the students are more proficient in, and less value to the languages they demonstrate less proficiency in. This can impact how they encourage or discourage their use, and how their students utilize them in the classroom.

While this theory focuses on the relationship between cognition and bilingualism, it is really only a slight modification of the Common Underlying Proficiency model in that it has stages or steps of proficiency. As Baker (2011) points out, it also fails to define the level and nature of language proficiency an individual must attain in order to benefit from or be adversely affected by bilingualism (p. 169). It also still views the two languages as separate, and it views lower levels of bilingualism as detrimental.

### 2.2.3.4 Developmental Interdependence hypothesis

The Developmental Interdependence hypothesis suggests that a person's second language competence is directly related to his/her competence in his/her first language (Cummins, 1978, 2000). In other words, the more proficient he/she is in his/her first language, the better he/she will do learning his/her second language. This hypothesis argues that information is shared across languages; however, it falls short in presenting a complete theory of language acquisition (Baker, 2011). It simply expands upon Cummins's $(1978,2000)$ prior theory that links cognition to bilingualism.

This hypothesis is useful to teachers in that it supports the idea that languages inform one another. It also supports the idea that bilingualism is an additive phenomenon that requires a dynamic, emergent process where languages work in interrelationship with one another. An example of this is when students are less proficient in their first language than they are in their second language, yet still use linguistic features from their first language to inform their second language acquisition and production.

The models and hypotheses are not based on empirical evidence. What all of the cognitive models/theories/hypotheses have in common, however, is a generally static view of language proficiency and a bias on the separation of languages. This has resulted in deficiency views/attitudes towards bilingualism and in monolingual teaching practices in the classroom. The dynamic views of bilingualism and the related concept of translanguaging differ from the previous discussion around bilingualism, and discuss bilingualism as fluid, dynamic, strategic, intentional, and purposeful.
2.2.4 Dynamic Bilingualism

Traditionally speaking, since the early $19^{\text {th }}$ century to around the 1960 s, the common belief among academics was that bilingualism was detrimental to cognitive function and the ability to succeed (Baker, 2011). This was referred to as the language deficit view. In contrast,
over time, some have started to view bilingualism as an additive phenomenon that increases the function of the brain, increases IQ, and adds to overall academic success (Baker, 2011). Baker (2011) proposes that "bilingualism need not have detrimental or even neutral consequences. Rather, there is the possibility that bilingualism leads to cognitive advantages over monolingualism" (p. 144). Latter studies made the point that being a "balanced bilingual" did not need to come at the expense of one or more languages in the language repertoire of a bilingual (Baker, 2011). This led to bilingualism being viewed as dynamic or flexible.

Proponents of viewing bilingualism as dynamic, view bilingualism as an emerging process that uses all of a learner's languages in interrelation with one another. Creese and Blackledge (2010) address dynamic bilingualism as the "recognition that languages do not fit into clear bounded entities and that all languages are 'needed' for meanings to be conveyed and negotiated" (p. 112). Garcia's (2009) work expands on this idea that there exists no clear boundary between languages for bilinguals, but rather a functional interaction between them. Garcia (2009) argues that languages are not hermetically sealed units. May (2014) views bilingualism as dynamic, ever adjusting to the multilingual and multimodal world. Therefore, as Makoni and Mashiri (2007) posit, rather than developing language policies that attempt to deal with languages in a bound sense, we should be studying the use of vernaculars that leak into one another (cross boundaries) to understand the social realities of their users (p. 85). From this perspective, the bilingual, as well as his/her languages, is constantly evolving as he/she learns.

In keeping with the concept of bilinguals and their language practices being dynamic, Garcia and Kleyn (2016) use the term emerging bilingual instead of balanced bilingual, or the commonly used acronyms ELL (English Language Learner) or LEP (Limited English Proficient) to describe bilingual students. The term emerging bilinguals highlights the idea that bilinguals use all of the languages within their linguistic repertoires, in a creative manner in order to create and/or enhance meaning. From their viewpoint, the key difference between emerging bilinguals and balanced bilinguals is that the term emerging bilingual implies that the process is dynamic and not static. Similarly, when the term "ELL student" or "LEP student" is used to identify a learner, it implies that the English language is absent or under-developed. Linking it back to the deficit viewpoint, it also implies that proficiency in English is ultimately what counts.

According to Garcia and Kleyn (2016), they use the term emerging bilingual in order to emphasize the potential of these students to become bilingual and biliterate, and to change our
vision of how bilingualism emerges (p. 42). Subscribing to this particular definition changes the way bilinguals are viewed.

### 2.3 Multilingual Practices \& Monolingual Teacher Views

As shown thus far, the traditional models of bilingualism consider bilinguals to have a first language (L1), and a second language (L2) that are separate. According to Garcia and Kleyn (2016), language education programs have been primarily focused on adding a second language to a student's first, but keeping them separate (p.13). Most educational programs today still view bilingualism in this light, and most teachers view bilinguals this way. When bilinguals are viewed as having separate language systems, it appears natural for teachers to assume that functioning within both of them simultaneously only weakens his/her ability to focus on developing the new one. Generally speaking, the "new" language is usually the language of the classroom and, therefore, the one teachers place emphasis on developing.

Because my study takes place in my ELL sessions, at primarily English-only schools, my review and literature focus on that setting. The separation in English-only schools is simple. It emphasizes leaving the home language at home and using only English at school. This is the context of my investigation into my own teaching practices and how to utilize translanguaging effectively.

Even in expressly monolingual classrooms, bilingual students and teachers are using multiple languages. As discussed under Use (section 2.2.2), bilinguals choose which language to use based on context (who, what, where). Often, bilinguals might carry on a conversation with a particular person in one language and a conversation with another person in the other language, especially if the interlocutors are monolingual in only one of the two languages. English-only programs are based on this clear boundary between two languages. Baker (2011) states that "even in the 'monolingual mode', bilinguals occasionally switch their languages intersententially" (p. 107). However, students might also switch languages depending on the subjects being discussed in class or with whom they are speaking.

Location can also influence language choice. For example, consider children who speak one language at home and the other at school, essentially acting as monolinguals (Baker, 2011). Students might also speak one language during lunch time with peers, another language at recess or before/after school, and another at home.

The following sections review how the use of more than one language has been described and viewed. I begin with code-switching (CS) before discussing code-mixing (CM) and codemeshing (C-M), and finally, translanguaging (TL).
2.3.1 Code-Switching

Code-switching is a form of switching between languages within a single conversation. According to Baker (2011), "code-switching has generally been used to describe any switch within the course of a single conversation, whether at word or sentence level or at the level of blocks of speech" (p. 107). Lightbown and Spada (2013) also state that code-switching can refer to the use of words or phrases from more than one language within a conversation (p. 31).

Baker (2011) posits that there are 13 purposes for code-switching that help us understand when speakers code-switch and why. Consider the following list from Baker (2011):

1) Code-switching may be used to emphasize a particular point in a conversation.
2) If a person does not know a word or a phrase in a language, that person may substitute a word in another language.
3) Words or phrases in two languages may not correspond exactly and the bilingual may switch to one language to express a concept that has no equivalent in the culture of the other language.
4) Code-switching may be used to reinforce a request.
5) Repetition of a phrase or passage in another language may also be used to clarify a point.
6) Code-switching may be used to express identity.
7) In relating a conversation held previously, the person may report the conversation in the language or languages used.
8) Code-switching is sometimes used as a way of interjecting into a conversation.
9) Code-switching may be used to ease tension and inject humor.
10) Code-switching often relates to a change of attitude or relationship.
11) Code-switching can also be used to exclude people from a conversation.
12) In some bilingual situations, code-switching occurs regularly when certain topics are introduced (i.e. money).
13) In some contexts, children are simply copying peers and adults. (pp. 108-110)

Similarly, Lightbown and Spada (2013) state that code-switching occurs for a variety of reasons, including to show solidarity. They emphasize Baker's points by stating that
bilinguals also code-switch when they speak to others who also know both languages. The use of both languages within a bilingual context is not evidence of a lack of proficiency. It may have many different motivations, from expressing solidarity to making a joke. (p. 31)

Because schools expect students to operate in a monolingual mode, teachers have traditionally viewed code-switching from a deficiency perspective, reflecting a viewpoint that students who code-switch do so due to a lack of linguistic knowledge.

To give an educational example of code-switching at the discourse level, a YugtunEnglish ELL student might say at recess, "I'm drawing in the snow with my yaaruin (story knife)" instead of, "Pilinguartua qanikcami yaaruitemkun (I am drawing in the snow with my story knife)," which is how it would be said in Yugtun. Lightbown and Spada (2013) posit that the switch to Yugtun might be because the child simply does not know the word for "story knife" in English (see Baker's purpose \#2). However, it can also be an intentional switch to Yugtun for a variety of social and emotional reasons (see Baker's purpose \#6). The student might want to show solidarity with someone by using Yugtun over English. She/he might also intentionally use the word "yaaruin" to share a joke. Whatever the purpose, the choice to use the Yugtun word "yaaruin" is not necessarily evidence of a lack of language proficiency.

Accordingly, code-switching is not merely a way to fill the gap in the absence of a particular word or phrase. Bilinguals can, and do, code-switch for a wide variety of reasons. For Bialystok (2001), bilinguals constantly go between languages in order to express themselves in a way that best portrays their intended meaning. Baker (2011), Lightbown and Spada (2013), and Bialystok (2001) all see code-switching as an additive phenomenon. For these authors, bilingual students have vast linguistic resources teachers can encourage students to draw on for the successful completion of classroom objectives.

Sert (2005) argues that code-switching "is a way of modifying language for the sake of personal intentions" (p.1). Sert continues by stating that code-switching is also used by bilinguals to create linguistic solidarity, and to serve for continuity in speech (similar to Baker's purpose \#11). In this respect, code-switching acts as a way for bilinguals to bond with one another, especially when they share at least one of the languages in their linguistic repertoires. Sert (2005)
also posits that code-switching can act as a way to increase the flow of conversation (similar to Baker's purposes \#7 \& \#12). Looking at code-switching in this light demonstrates linguistic virtuosity. From a teacher's perspective, this means that bilingual students might code-switch to bond with their peers and/or a bilingual teacher. It also highlights the possibility for teachers to utilize these purposes for their students' language development.

Another view is that code-switching is a practice that results from trigger words (similar to Baker's purpose \#12). Riehl (2005) discusses how factors such as the interlocutor, social role, topic, and venue all play important roles in how and why bilinguals code-switch. She proposes that while a variety of socio-linguistic and socio-pragmatic factors impact how and why bilinguals code-switch, it is primarily trigger words that impact the process. She defines trigger words as "words at the intersection of two language systems, which, consequently, may cause speakers to lose their linguistic bearings and continue the sentence in the other language" (1946). Consider the following example where a Spanish-English ELL student might respond to a writing prompt assignment with, "I am leaving for Bariloche mañana (I am leaving for Bariloche tomorrow)." The trigger word Bariloche (a town in Argentina) triggered the speaker to codeswitch into Spanish, causing her to say "mañana" instead of "tomorrow." According to Riehl's theory, the trigger word was the catalyst for the brain to switch languages. This theory suggests that code-switching is a complex process of intentional and automatic responses. In other words, trigger words "prime" the bilingual mind, making it more likely that they code-switch after hearing the trigger word(s).

However, there might be times when the change in the language is unintentional, and other times when it is intentional. Sert (2005) speaks to this when he refers to the functions of teachers' code-switching in a classroom. He states that a teacher's use of code-switching is not always performed consciously; she/he is not always aware of the functions and outcomes of the code-switching process (p. 2). Therefore, it may be regarded, in some cases, as an automatic and unconscious behavior (Sert, 2005). Sert (2005) argues that, either way, CS serves some basic functions which may be beneficial in language learning (p.2). In other words, it does not have to mean that a bilingual has lost her/his linguistic bearing. It can simply be a process that has a varied set of affective functions that add to language development. This means that teachers can identify moments with their students where trigger words might have impacted how they communicated, and use that information to inform their teaching decisions and how they utilize
the languages in their classroom to complete tasks and encourage further student academic success.

Another use for code-switching is what Auer (1998) calls speech repair (see also LehtiEklund, 2012). Auer's (1998) work emphasizes that code-switching is more likely to be initiated by the bilingual to repair speech than it is to be used as a responsive turn in conversation (similar to Baker's purposes \#2 and \#7). In Auer's example, the students create a division for language use in which Swedish is used for the classroom task and Finnish for all other interactions. The teacher instructs the students to interact in their groups and generate Swedish vocabulary words equivalent to some Finnish vocabulary they are reading in text. The students discussed the assignment in small groups. They chose to discuss the questions primarily in their first language (Finnish). The discussions helped them self-repair their answers before sharing with the larger group in Swedish.

The language choices Auer discusses further suggest that code-switching may be used by bilinguals to problem-solve. In other words, when bilinguals intentionally reserve certain languages for certain contexts, they are using multiple languages for thinking and then producing the target language that is required. Lehti-Eklund (2012) also discusses the idea of certain linguistic utterances acting as repair sequences during bilingual interactions. To give an example, imagine a Spanish-English ELL student being instructed by the teacher to present how her morning went in the target language (English). The bilingual begins by saying, "This morning I got up at 6:00 a.m. I took a shower, and I brushed my teeth. After that, I...I.... cómo se dice (how does one say it?)...I did my hair." The code-switching, in this instance, acted as a form of selfrepair, providing the bilingual with the knowledge base associated with his/her first language, before continuing the sentence in the target language (English). In other words, using his/her first language, the student was able to pause and give himself/herself enough time for his/her first language to inform his/her second language, and complete the task. This practice is different from using filler phrases such as "um" or "let's see" in that accessing the first language helps the bilingual use linguistic features from his/her first language to inform his/her second language before producing speech. Therefore, code-switching for self-repair it is not merely the act of providing time for the bilingual to think, but also providing the bilingual with information from the first language to inform the target language.

How a bilingual uses her/his first language as repair can also vary. Students often use formulations, question patterns, and discourse particles that enable them to quickly and effectively reach an understanding and resume institutional work (Lehti-Eklund, 2012). Stated more succinctly, bilinguals use code-switching for filling gaps, for self-expression, in response to trigger words, to repair speech, and for a variety of social and emotional reasons. For teachers, this means that allowing bilingual students and/or ELLs to code-switch may increase their ability to self-repair and complete the task successfully. From a teacher's perspective, this means that their bilingual students/ELLs may code-switch regardless of their level of proficiency in their languages, and on either the discourse or sentential levels. They do this by using their languages creatively and in response to their needs.

### 2.3.2 Code-Mixing

The term code-mixing (CM) is what the literature refers to as a way of mixing codes and making changes at the morphemic level (Baker, 2011). It differs from code-switching at the word level in that code-mixing involves parts of words, and code-switching at the word level involves replacing entire words, or parts of sentences, to create intended meaning. The best way to describe code-mixing is to give an example of it being used by a bilingual student. Imagine two Spanish-English bilingual students working together on a class project. During the conversation, one bilingual asks the other one to give her the dictionary by saying, "Dame el diccionary (Give me the diction-ary)." The other student then responds with, "Quieres el diccionario? (Do you want the dictionary?)," to which the first student replies, "Sí, por favor dámelo (Yes, please give it to me)." In this instance, the first student code-mixes by replacing the "-ario" ending of the Spanish word "diccionario" (dictionary) with the English ending "-ary." The second student then notices the change in the ending and asks for clarification by asking the first student what she meant in the L1. The first student confirms that she meant to say "diccionary," meaning "diccionario," by politely telling her to give it to her. Just like code-switching, however, codemixing also occurs for a variety of reasons. The first student could have code-mixed to demonstrate her knowledge of both languages, or to be playful with her two languages, or because she did not recognize the difference between the two possible endings (Baker, 2011; Lightbown \& Spada, 2013).

Even teachers who might accept code-switching may perceive code-mixing as a problem. Many think it indicates a lack of language proficiency and it demonstrates that the individual is
not truly bilingual. Within the academic context, teachers generally view students who code-mix as being confused or as unbalanced learners.

### 2.3.3 Code-Meshing

While code-mixing is most often used in reference to spoken language, the term codemeshing (C-M) is discussed by Canagarajah (2013) as "one instantiation of a translingual approach to writing" (p. 115). The writing piece is an important distinction between codemeshing and code-switching or code-mixing. This interpretation suggests that code-meshing is the use of different codes, across languages, to create new language that reflects cultural nuances and representations in a way that communicates intended messages. The key here is that codemeshing is generally portrayed through writing and generally takes on the tone of one language within the context of another. In other words, it might focus on one specific aspect of one language, that is intrinsic to that particular language, and apply it within the context of another language to convey a hybrid message.

Again, following the discussion of code-switching and code-mixing, the literature indicates code-meshing is not necessarily indicative of having a lack of language skill, even though it might be perceived that way. On the contrary, bilinguals who code-mesh require a mastery of both the dominant varieties of language, as well as other varieties of language that derive from their cultures (Canagarajah, 2013). In other words, knowing how to use multiple varieties of a language (or languages) in a way that conveys intended meaning requires polydialectal competencies.

To give an example, a recent middle-school student of mine came up with a written $t$ shirt slogan for a class project that read, "Salvaje: It's not just a name." The word "salvaje" is Spanish for "savage." Paradoxically, the word "savage" is also a common word used by teenagers today that means "fierce," "awesome," or "brutal" depending on the context. His interpretation of both of his languages (Spanish and English), his level of proficiency in both languages, his intent to impress his peers and use a popular English word, and his skill in using the word in a way that conveyed bilingualism, comprehension, and humor, all played a part in how and why he code-meshed. He meshed two languages together in a way that represented his culture as well by using a word that is traditionally associated with the wild. Since he is originally from Honduras and his peers were joking with him about being from the jungle, he chose a word that not only portrayed the intended meaning mentioned above but also represented
his background and culture--even if only superficially since he is in actuality from the el campo (countryside) and not the jungle. The skill required to do this was significant. May (2014) posits that "code-meshing refers to a realization of the ability to shuttle between language practices" ( p . 154). According to May (2014), this realization requires skill and intentionality. Intentionality is also a key aspect of translanguaging.

Comparatively speaking, code-switching, code-mixing, and code-meshing are used by bilinguals to perform tasks, fill gaps, express feelings, problem-solve, self-repair, and increase understanding. How those bilinguals go about using the different forms varies by individual and is determined by a variety of socio-linguistic and socio-pragmatic factors.

The discussion, up to this point, indicates that code-switching, code-mixing, and codemeshing are similar in many ways to translanguaging. However, the translanguaging label has been developed to focus on students' bilingual abilities rather than their deficits. The shift in the label is intended to leave misinterpretation behind and allow emphasis on the positive. As I have demonstrated above, some of the literature on code-switching and balance has been misinterpreted to support English-only models of education. In this view, the ideal (if not a monolingual) is to be a "balanced bilingual," someone who acts like two monolinguals in one body. Further, negative attitudes towards code-switching, code-mixing, and code-meshing have resulted in teachers viewing bilinguals as needing to leave their "home language" at home and their "school language" at school.

### 2.3.4 Translanguaging

Translanguaging (TL) was first used in education in the 1980s by the Welsh in Wales (Baker, 2011). Williams (1996) suggests that the process of translanguaging involves simultaneously accessing prior knowledge from the language storage base and choosing the form and mode of output. The origin of the word comes from the Welsh word "trawsieithu." The preface "trans" means "across"; therefore, translanguaging is loosely defined as the process through which an individual "moves across" languages in his/her linguistic repertoire in a way that creates meaning and space for the creation of new language (Baker, 2011). Baker states that this concept was popularized by Cenn Williams and, later, Ofelia Garcia (p. 288).

Translanguaging focuses on languages in interrelationship with one another. One way to understand this further is to examine the reasons why bilingual students/ELLs translanguage in
the classroom. Bilinguals translanguage for primarily two reasons: 1) to create meaning/maximize communication, and 2 ) to mediate mental processes (Garcia, 2009).

The first reason bilinguals translanguage is to create meaning and maximize communication. Garcia (2009) defines translanguaging as the act of accessing different features of a bilingual's linguistic repertoire in order to maximize communicative potential. She highlights translanguaging as an approach to bilingualism that does not focus necessarily on language, but rather on making sense of multilingual worlds. In other words, she views translanguaging as a way for bilinguals to understand the information they receive and as a medium to make sense of that information. According to Garcia (2009), translanguaging is the typical way in which bilinguals engage their bilingual worlds, making it a natural and comfortable process. Translanguaging is not merely the softening of borders as argued with code-switching and code-mixing, but rather, a conscious choice to create language meaning from the bilingual's perspective (Garcia \& Kleyn, 2016).

Baker, Jones, and Lewis (2012) state that bilinguals translanguage to gain understanding in everyday communication and to achieve interactions with others (p. 650). For Williams (1996), translanguaging involves simultaneously accessing prior knowledge from the language storage base and choosing the form and mode of output to maximize communication. Creese and Blackledge (2010) argue that both languages (or all of the languages within an individual's repertoire) are needed to convey a full message (p. 108). For them, bilinguals cannot communicate in a way that is truly representative of their intended meaning without the use of, or process of, translanguaging by which all of the languages at their disposal are informing one another. For all of these authors, bilinguals translanguage in order to communicate their intended meaning in the most effective manner possible at the time.

The second reason bilinguals translanguage is to mediate mental processes (invoke thinking and learning). Garcia (2009) argues that translanguaging is systematic, strategic, and sense-making for both the speaker and the listener. Baker (2011) similarly claims that both languages are used in an integrated and coherent way to organize and mediate mental processes in learning. He states, "translanguaging is the process of making meaning, shaping experiences, understandings and knowledge through the use of two languages. Both languages are used in an integrated and coherent way to organize and mediate mental processes in learning" (p. 288).

Baker (2011) argues that translanguaging is the process of shaping experiences and gaining understanding through the use of two or more languages. He posits that the combination and interaction of two or more languages creates a space for new versions of language. That new space allows for new language, new experiences, and new understandings that could not be achieved through a monolingual or monoglossic knowledge base (p. 289).

This idea suggests the utility of translanguaging for the bilingual, and how versatile the process can be for the bilingual in making sense of his/her world. For teachers, it also highlights how translanguaging might be used to encourage their students to think across their languages, essentially providing them with the medium needed for their languages to inform one another and successfully complete academic tasks.

### 2.4 Translanguaging Pedagogy

In discussing a rationale for my study, I refer to a framework from Garcia and Kleyn's (2016) work on translanguaging stance, design, and shift. This is supported with some examples of things teachers do who subscribe to translanguaging pedagogy.

### 2.4.1 Translanguaging Stance

To adopt a translanguaging stance requires teachers to go against the norm in education. As Garcia and Kleyn (2016) state, "Schools in the United States have traditionally functioned as English-medium schools, with little interest in bilingualism or in teaching languages other than English" (p. 20). As such, this ideology has greatly impacted teacher views towards bilingualism. However, with the increasing numbers of ELLs entering the school system, teachers have had to adjust, and sometimes abandon, out-dated ideologies in the interest of successfully meeting the needs of their culturally and linguistically diverse students. Those teachers who chose to take on the challenge, have started looking at strategies such as translanguaging.

However, in order to do this, teachers need to view translanguaging as a pedagogical choice to use multiple languages in the classroom, not as a deficiency method for students but as a pedagogical strategy to develop language. Creese and Blackledge (2010) state that schools/teachers need to "go beyond acceptance or tolerance of children's languages, to 'cultivation' of languages through their use for teaching and learning" (p.103).

The first requirement for utilizing translanguaging successfully in the classroom is for teachers to develop a stance that bilingualism is a resource rather than a problem to overcome.

Garcia and Kleyn (2016) state, "teachers who take up translanguaging must first develop a stance that bilingualism is a resource at all times to learn, think, imagine, and develop commanding performances in two or more languages" (p. 21). Put another way, teachers should view their students' linguistic repertoires as vast resources among which to strategically encourage interrelationship and help mediate, as they create meaning and maximize communication. Secondly, their stance should position the students' languages as necessary and available to them at all times. May (2014) posits that "translanguaging does not refer to the use of two separate languages, or even the shift of one language or code to the other, since there isn't $a$ language" ( p . 155). Third, teachers must believe that translanguaging transforms positionalities, essentially empowering students to use their languages in unique and creative ways to achieve classroom objectives. It returns the power of language acquisition and production to the students.

One particularly effective strategy, based in translanguaging pedagogy, is for teachers to view their bilingual students as having a linguistic repertoire that is present at all times. Garcia and Kleyn (2016) refer to this as "la corriente," or the "undercurrent" (p. 23). The authors argue that using translanguaging pedagogy as a choice in the classroom gives bilingual students the space necessary to bring those undercurrents to the surface and use them to access the classroom materials more easily. By accessing all of the resources available in their linguistic repertoires, bilingual students are able to make sense of the tasks at hand and contribute in a productive way in the classroom.

In following this conceptualization, "la corriente" provides a good visual of how translanguaging works. Imagine the undertow of an ocean. Although it is beneath the surface, it affects the entire ocean. The undercurrent affects how big the waves are, how strong the waves are, how choppy or calm the water looks on the surface, and it plays a role in what it brings to the surface from the ocean floor. It also impacts those that enter the water and those that reside in it. This visualization is similar to the Iceberg model presented earlier in that it helps you visualize the knowledge base that bilinguals pull from in creating language. Translanguaging acts in similar ways for the bilingual student. The key difference between translanguaging and the Iceberg model, however, is that the Iceberg model is static and has two separate peaks on the surface, acting as two separate languages. With "la corriente" the ocean is dynamic and fluid indicating that there is no separation between languages.

According to Garcia and Kleyn (2016), bilinguals all have a linguistic undercurrent that teachers can tap into through intentional translanguaging lessons that utilize key aspects of their student's "corrientes." For Garcia and Kleyn (2016), the intentional use of translanguaging in the classroom creates the space necessary for students to access prior knowledge bases, allow languages within their linguistic repertoires to inform one another, and maximize communication. If bilinguals have rich undercurrents, full of this type of information, then it makes sense for teachers to encourage translanguaging as a way to achieve success in the classroom.

### 2.4.2 Translanguaging Design

Translanguaging design is a key construct of successful translanguaging. There is a difference between allowing students to speak multiple languages and teachers purposefully drawing on multiple languages in their classrooms. As a teacher, simply allowing your students to use their first language does not automatically mean that you are purposefully and intentionally utilizing those languages to enhance understanding of the lesson or helping your students maximize communication in the target language. Creese and Blackledge (2010) discuss translanguaging as an intentional choice to create the environment necessary for drawing on the totality of linguistic resources available (p. 112). Once teachers encourage a purposeful, intentional use of the forms of communication (code-switching, code-mixing, code-meshing, thinking in the L1, etc.), it becomes a process called translanguaging. According to Garcia and Kleyn (2016), "designing translanguaging instruction requires three elements 1) constructing collaborative/cooperative structures, 2) collecting varied multilingual and multimodal instructional resources, and 3) using translanguaging pedagogical practices" (p. 21).

Translanguaging can and should be determined by the needs of the students. In other words, a teacher should be aware of the languages within her/his classroom and strategically utilize them in ways that enhance learning. As Garcia and Seltzer (2016) point out,

In order to teach bilingual students in today's super-diverse classrooms, we must move past the traditional question of how we teach a second language. Instead, teachers must ask themselves a different question: how can we engage students in appropriate language features associated with a second language into their own repertoire? (p. 28)
Because translanguaging refers to the deployment of a speaker's full linguistic repertoire that is constantly evolving, it makes sense that translanguaging works best in interaction with bilingual
peers and within a collaborative classroom environment. As Collins and Cioè-Peña (2016) point out, "Taking up translanguaging allows the teacher to adapt, and provide the appropriate language input for individual children, and differentiate instruction while ensuring that all students are working towards achieving skills reflected in the lesson standards and objectives" (p. 126). One way of successfully encouraging translanguaging is to group bilinguals by similar languages so that they can share linguistic features and communicative practices with one another as they create meaning.

Another way to design instruction around translanguaging, is to provide students with multilingual and multimodal instructional resources. This can include things like translated texts, multilingual books, bilingual videos, Internet resources, inviting bilingual speakers into the classroom, hosting cultural events, etc. According to Hornberger and Link (2012), the continua of bilingualism brings into focus (along all of its dimensions--of context, content, media, and development) the need to take into account the creation of a learning environment "that recognizes and builds on the language and literacy repertoires students bring to school" (p.243). While this increases the initial work for teachers, it also pays off in the end with student empowerment and successful language acquisition. Garcia and Kleyn (2016) state that, "translanguaging simultaneously develops in bilingual students the capacity to bring their own language practices into the classroom, filling these practices with potential for academic and intellectual engagement rather than keeping them in their heads or in their homes" (p.23).

The following are three examples from Collins and Cioè-Peña (2016), where teachers effectively designed and used translanguaging strategies with their bilingual students in the classroom.

In the first example, the teacher designed a social studies lesson based on the Common Core Standards set forth by the Federal Department of Education and the ELA accommodations recommended by the district she works in. The tasks involved providing an overview of the American Revolution, reviewing primary/secondary documents to include the Declaration of Independence (DOI), breaking up into small groups to analyze and paraphrase sections of the DOI, sharing as a whole group, and gauging comprehension through exit slips.

For this lesson, the teacher planned the translanguaging in advance. Since the Declaration of Independence (DOI) was in English, the teacher was able to determine that she needed bilingual resources to support her students' learning during the lesson. She made the decision to
provide English and Spanish versions of the DOI, a bilingual video about the American Revolution, handouts in both languages, and English sentence frames with parallel Spanish translations (Collins \& Cioè-Peña, 2016, p. 123). She also began the lesson with a discussion about intentional language use, essentially empowering the students to understand her strategy and intentional use of translanguaging. She also positioned the students as the experts, using their linguistic repertoires in interrelation with one another to meet the objectives of the lesson.

The following exchange took place in the example provided by Collins and Cioè-Peña (2016):

Teacher: I'm writing down the information of the story. Do I have to write it in English or Spanish?

Student: En Español (in Spanish).
Teacher: In Spanish? Everybody has to write it in Spanish?
Student: No.
Teacher: Then what?
Student: In English.
Teacher: Everybody has to write it in English?
Student: It can be in English or Spanish
Teacher: It can be in whatever language you need in order to take the notes. You can write in English or Spanish. (p. 124)
The important thing that this teacher did was inform the students that translanguaging is available for their use if and when they need it. She/he also made it clear that it is not a "one-size-fits-all" strategy and that the students could, and should, use it as they see fit to make sense of the material and complete the tasks. By encouraging that they use their languages in creative ways, and when they felt the need, the teacher empowered them to develop both their understanding of the content matter, and to develop their bilingualism and bi-literacy.

In the second example, the translanguaging was spontaneous and validated by the teacher by reiterating what the students said in English. In the following dialogue, you can see how the students are listening to the lesson and responding in both languages.

Teacher: OK, so a primary document, what are some examples of a primary document?
Student 1: A letter?
Teacher: A letter. That's a great example. What else?

Student 2: A diary.
Teacher: A diary. OK.
Student 3: A newspaper.
Teacher: A newspaper, anything else?
Student 4: Picture.
Teacher: A picture, so it could be from that time period.
Student 5: La ropa.
Teacher: So clothing from that time period, anything else? Could be artifacts, right?
Student 6: Artes.
Teacher: ¿Artes? So art from that time period.
Student 7: Monedas.
Teacher: Money from that time period. So, different things as long as it comes from that time period. (Collins \& Cioè-Peña, 2016, p. 128)
The key thing the teacher did here was respond to the students who offered Spanish answers in English. This validated the efforts of the students, reinforced the translanguaging strategy, expressed solidarity with the momentum of the conversation, and encouraged the students to listen to one other. This practice also increases student participation because it requires involvement from everyone. For teachers who do not share the same L1 as their students, bilingual peers can be utilized to translate the answers, or translation devices can be provided for the students.

In the third example, we see how translanguaging can be used to increase student confidence and participation. During the previous lesson's reflections, the teacher encouraged students to share whether translanguaging helped them or not, and how. The following excerpt is from a student response:

Yo me sentí como inteligente y también...como capaz para ayudar a mis amigos, mis compañeros; los que estaban en el grupo no saben hablar inglés y les traducía, los ayudaba. (I felt smart and able to help my friends, my classmates; those who were in the group and don't speak English, I translated for them, I helped them.) (Collins \& CioèPeña, 2016, p. 134)

This student is sharing that translanguaging really helped him/her feel useful and important. For teachers, this means that encouraging translanguaging in the classroom can position the students
as the experts, essentially increasing their self-confidence and willingness to participate in the lesson. That confidence also impacts how students view one another, increasing their cooperation and collaboration by correcting one another and being willing to accept guidance from their peers. It is an effective strategy because it places the rate of success on the students, encouraging them to use their linguistic resources together.

The following additional examples come from Garcia, Johnson, and Seltzer's (2017) book on the translanguaging classroom. The first is an instance where the teacher was not bilingual, and the official language of her classroom was English. She grouped her bilingual students together so that they could leverage one another's linguistic resources to make sense of the lesson. During a lesson on environmentalism, the teacher used translanguaging strategically to introduce the public service announcement (PSA) genre to the class. She began her lesson by showing the public service announcement to the class in English, followed up by showing it in Spanish. She then encouraged her class to discuss the PSA and come up with a definition of the PSA genre and to discuss the effectiveness of the public service announcement and why. She then facilitated a class discussion where she synthesized the students' answers in English. Next, she gave each group of students a different public service announcement to analyze by giving some groups an English version and some groups a Spanish version. She then encouraged the groups to discuss their effectiveness, using a handout she provided with guiding questions. The handouts also had images that corresponded to the different public service announcements. Students were encouraged to use all of the linguistic resources at their disposal, including those provided by the teacher, and from one another. Finally, after the students shared their responses to the questions, the teacher directed her students to create their own public service announcements where they were free to incorporate other languages and styles to convey their message. Each member within the groups was required to participate, and students were encouraged to share their productions with their families and fill out student self-assessments and family assessments.

This teacher used translanguaging design by providing her students with multi-modal and bilingual resources to help them access the material more easily. She also paired bilinguals together by similar language, and encouraged interaction among her students to enhance the sharing of linguistic features across languages. Furthermore, she provided resources with nonverbal cues such as images that corresponded the materials. This allowed for students to
make connections through other modes besides language. This is especially useful for monolingual students who struggle with navigating a lot of new information at once in the target language. Finally, she used translanguaging design to help the students make personal connections to the material by encouraging them to create their own public service announcements using their varying languages and linguistic styles. She also added that the students would be showing their productions to their families, which was a clever way of using the assessment tool to help manage student content, while also encouraging student effort. As Garcia, Johnson, and Seltzer (2017) state, "teachers can use a translanguaging design to tap into and leverage the translanguaging corriente in ways that accelerate bilingual students' content and language learning at school" (p. 165).

The second example from Garcia et al. (2017) is of a teacher who uses translanguaging design to differentiate instruction for her bilingual students. As the authors state, not all bilingual students perform equally in oracy and literacy in English and in Spanish. Therefore, teachers need to differentiate their content, language, and literacy instructions to meet students where they are individually and engage all students in learning. (p. 134)
During the lesson, the teacher organized the readings for her students by first considering her students' different language proficiencies. She then assigned students to different groups according to their English language development and assigned them appropriate versions of the same reading. Each group had the same questions, presented in both English and Spanish, and the readings were also provided in both languages with instructions to read it in both or one of the languages, as needed. After the small group discussions, the teacher brought the students back into a larger group to discuss their answers to the questions.

The key aspect of this teacher's translanguaging design was providing her students with the same three questions to answer even though the reading assignment was modified for their English proficiency levels. This allowed for her students to participate in the large group discussion, after their small group work was completed, in a meaningful and relevant way. She also provided her students with the option to read the article in English or Spanish, which gave them ownership of the assignment.

While there are many other successful examples of translanguaging in the classroom, the key concept for teachers to understand is that by encouraging translanguaging, they are giving
their students access to challenging material, and motivating them to complete the work and maintain engagement throughout the lessons.

### 2.4.3 Translanguaging Shift

In addition to stance and design, teachers also need to be aware of the shifts that will occur once they embrace translanguaging in the classroom. They should be prepared to shift their instructional patterns and practices to respond to how their students use their languages. They must also realize that their students will create language moments that provide the teacher with opportunities to encourage translanguaging. This requires skill in knowing how to recognize the language moments, and how to utilize translanguaging so that it meets the most critical needs of the bilingual student at that moment. Garcia and Kleyn (2016) state,

No amount of planning can absolutely set the course of a lesson, for even when we teach by grouping students into what education call "levels" or "stages", there will be differences in the ways in which students use their repertoires. Teachers then must also respond to these differences by being prepared to shift their instructional design. (23) Teachers who are responsive and flexible to these shifts in instruction, increase the success of their teaching practices and the impact they have on their students' learning.

In this chapter, I have reviewed and discussed the literature that pertains to my research on translanguaging and language choices in the classroom. I have explored 1) teacher attitudes, 2) definitions of bilingualism, 3) multilingual practices and monolingual teacher views, and 4) translanguaging pedagogy. In addressing teacher attitudes, I have discussed how teacher attitudes matter and the origin and impact of negative teacher attitudes toward bilingualism, ELLs, and language choices in the classroom. I have also discussed teacher practices that place emphasis on English-only education.

In defining bilingualism, I have discussed proficiency, use, and balance, and how those definitions and applications impact bilinguals and teachers of bilinguals. I also discussed four cognitive theories that provide background to views on bilingualism. Finally, I discussed dynamic bilingualism and how it provides an additive view of bilingualism, in contrast to the popular deficit view held by many educators.

In discussing multilingual practices and monolingual teacher views, I provide background for how the use of more than one language has been described and viewed. In that respect, I discuss code-switching, code-mixing, code-meshing, and translanguaging.

Lastly, I discussed translanguaging pedagogy within the framework of stance, design, and shift.

The following chapter focuses on the methodology of my particular research.

## Chapter 3 Methodology

My research delves into an area of inquiry that explores how I, as the ELL teacher, encourage translanguaging, what factors impact my expectations and attitudes towards translanguaging, and how those expectations and attitudes change over the course of the study This is done from an autoethnographic stance where professional "scenes" are recalled and used in context with my data to support my analysis, and inform my awareness as a language teacher.

This section defines and discusses action research, teacher action research, and autoethnography. I also discuss how the research design conceptually fits within my research. Additionally, I discuss constructivist grounded theory as my analytical framework, as well as my own positionalities. Finally, I outline the perimeters of my research, to include the setting, the participants, the research procedures, and the timeline.

My research questions are the following: 1) How and why do I encourage translanguaging with my ELL students? 2) What factors impact my expectations and attitudes towards translanguaging? 3) How do my own expectations and attitudes towards translanguaging change over the course of the action research?

### 3.1 Research Design

My research is qualitative action research. Before delving into action research and teacher action research, it is necessary to discuss qualitative research. Denzin and Lincoln (2018) define qualitative research carefully. They state,

Qualitative research, as a set of interpretive activities, privileges not single methodological practice over another. As a site of discussion or discourse, qualitative research is difficult to define clearly. It has no theory or paradigm that is distinctly its own. ... Multiple theoretical paradigms claim use of qualitative research methods and strategies, from constructivism to cultural studies, feminism, Marxism, and ethnic models of study. Qualitative research is used in many separate disciplines. ... It does not belong to a single discipline. (p. 12) The authors are referring to the vast nature of qualitative research and how it can be applied to a multitude of situations and/or research contexts. The best way to describe qualitative research, then, might be to look at how it can be used within the context of my study. Richards (2003) provides three compelling reasons for rejecting the claim that only quantitative research is valid.

The first reason is that experiments and surveys can only take us so far. There are situations where qualitative research offers the best source of illumination (Richards, 2003). To give an example, consider the effectiveness of evaluating statistics (quantitative research) on different language strategies in the classroom, to evaluating the applicability of teachers using those strategies (qualitative research) in the classroom. The latter would prove to be more useful in my context.

The second reason for adopting a qualitative approach is that it is primarily a personcentered enterprise (Richards, 2003) and, therefore, very applicable to research around people, how they interact, and how they learn. Richards states, "as practicing teachers, we operate in a professional context which is at best only loosely predictable but where we can draw strength from our shared understandings and experiences" (p.9).

The third strength of qualitative inquiry is its ability to transform the researcher (Richards, 2003). The impact of the investigative process on the researcher is profound and also tends to impact their work/research environment, essentially causing change on a larger scale. Qualitative researchers can also influence social policy. As Denzin and Lincoln (2018) state,

Qualitative researchers can isolate target populations, show the immediate effects of certain programs on such groups, and isolate the constraints that operate against policy changes in such settings. Action-oriented qualitative researchers can also create spaces for those who are studied (the other) to speak. The evaluator becomes the conduit for making such voices heard. (p. 22)

Similar to its multi-layered definition, qualitative researchers use a variety of research methods to collect their data. Mills (2014) states that qualitative research uses, "narrative, descriptive approaches to data collection to understand the way things are and what the research means from the perspectives of the participants in the study" (p. 6). Denzin and Lincoln (2018) agree by stating that qualitative research is approached from multiple methods and involves an interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter. "This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them" (Richards, 2003, p. 11). Therefore, qualitative methods of data collection might include face-to-face interviews, observations, video recordings, and other human interactions (Mills, 2014). For my particular research context, I used field
notes, audio files, and reflexive journaling alongside the discoveries that came out of the teacher action research process.

### 3.2 Action Research

According to Herr and Anderson (2015), Kurt Lewin was the first to develop a theory of action research in the social sciences (p. 12). Lewin $(1946,1948)$ believed that "knowledge should be created from problem-solving in real-life situations" (Herr \& Anderson, 2015, p. 12). His work on human dynamics also led to later research on work teams, and his theories on organizational and social change were embraced and used by a growing number of human relations movements (p.12). One organizational realm conducive to action research is education. Within education, teachers use action research for a number of reasons: to include enlightenment around an aspect of teaching or learning and to promote change within the system. Herr and Anderson (2015) support this view by stating that action research, "transcends mere knowledge generation to include personal and professional growth, and organizational and community empowerment" (p.1).

Herr and Anderson (2015) provide a schematic for the characteristics of effective action research. They provide a table by Kemmis and McTaggart (2005) that outlines the aspects of participatory research. While my particular context focuses on teacher action research, the same fundamentals apply. According to Kemmis and McTaggart (2005), good action research includes the following characteristics:

1. It is a social process and focused on the interrelationship between an individual and their social environment.
2. It is fundamentally participatory, where participants go to work on themselves, examining the relationship between knowledge, identity, agency, and practice.
3. It is practical and collaborative, in that it involves groups investigating in relationship their practices (including their relational practices).
4. It is emancipatory in that it helps people address the constraints of irrational, unproductive, unjust, and unsatisfying social structures that limit their selfdevelopment and self-determination.
5. It is critical in the way it encourages participants to contest the ways they are positioned to view the world in particular ways.
6. It is reflexive in that the object of investigation is to change the world for the better in a number of ways: practice, knowledge of practice, social structures, and social media (which we might call discourse structures).
7. It aims to transform both theory and practice, and views these as mutually dependent. (p. 17)

Action research is defined as an ongoing, creative activity that exposes the researcher to instances and moments where discovery and reflection can occur. Mills (2014) refers to the process as "wonderfully uncomfortable" (p. 4). It is how we, as researchers, deal with that uncertainty along that journey of discovery that positions us as perpetual learners (Mills, 2014). Furthermore, action research tends to shift the focus of control from the academic researcher to those traditionally called subjects. In other words, while traditional research involves outsiders studying insiders, action research involves insiders (and requires insider perspectives) in a collaborative effort of continual discovery.

The action research cycle includes the iterative elements of plan, act/observe, and reflect (Kemmis \& McTaggart, 1988). Maxwell (2003) discusses how the cycle consists of researchers "attempting a process of improvement" (p.5). In general, action research requires a prior question or questions, systematic collection of data over time, and analysis of that data (Maxwell, 2003). While the goal of the analysis is to come up with answers to the question(s), the lack of answers is not necessarily a problem since the analysis "will often suggest ways forward perhaps leading to another cycle of action research" (p. 5)

A number of elements can influence the action research cycle. Factors such as the addition of more people into the action research group can affect how long the research takes place, and how complex the data collected is. Therefore, it is important to be flexible throughout the research process so that the end product is useful for the researcher. Maxwell (2003) supports this idea by stating, "In writing an action research study, the aim is not to generalize, but to create a written account that is robust enough for others to make sense of" (p. 4). Teachers are especially equipped for this type of research because of their interests in their students, having access to the data on a daily basis, and being able to directly apply the results of the analysis into their work. Maxwell (2003) states that "action research in situ works from teachers' (and others) perceptions and takes into account realities located there" (p.4). In other words, the research questions come from the work of the teachers themselves. Similarly, the analysis and results are
also written for other teachers to understand and hopefully use in their own classrooms. Kemmis and McTaggart (1988) support this idea of professional development through process and research by stating, "action research is at its best when emancipatory action takes place where all those involved are affected" (Maxwell, 2003, p. 4).

According to Herr and Anderson (2015), action research requires a few key elements to make is truly a "spiral of action cycles":

1. To develop a plan of action to improve what is already happening.
2. To act to implement the plan.
3. To observe the effects of action in the context in which it occurs.
4. To reflect on these effects as a basis for further planning, subsequent action and on, through a succession of cycles. (p. 5)

Mills (2014) also offers a 4-step process for engaging teachers in action research (p. 8):

1. Identify an area of focus.
2. Collect data.
3. Analyze and interpret data.
4. Develop an action plan.

In the next section, I discuss TAR (teacher action research) and how it provides the methodology for my research.

### 3.3 Teacher Action Research

According to the literature, those involved in action research are primarily interested in the knowledge generated from their research to inform their setting. This observation is most evident in the field of education where teachers use action research to inform instruction while using data from their daily professional experiences with students and co-collaborators/teachers. Mills (2014) opines that:

Action research is a systematic inquiry conducted by teacher researchers, principals, school counselors, or other stakeholders in the teaching/learning environment to gather information about how their particular schools operate, how they teach, and how well their students learn. (p.8)

Mills (2014) discusses how relevant and accessible action research is for teachers. Teachers are more likely to legitimize data and theories from actual classrooms because of their direct
applicability to their daily work. Mills (2014) states that "teachers are more committed to taking action and effecting positive educational change in their own classrooms and schools based on their findings" (p. 5).

Teacher action research applies to my study because of it being immediately useful in the field and supportive of professional development. Mills (2014) supports this by stating, "action research assumes that teacher researchers are vested in their craft and committed to continuing their professional development, their teaching, and the success of their students" (p. 11). In fact, Mills (2014) goes on to say that teacher action research "can also enhance the lives of professionals" (p.13). In other words, teacher action research is primarily about developing the professional disposition of teachers. Based on that premise, Osterman and Kottkamp (1993) suggest a list of rationales for teacher action research being a reflexive process:

1. Everyone needs professional growth opportunities.
2. All professionals want to improve.
3. All professionals can learn.
4. All professionals are capable of assuming responsibility for their own professional growth and development.
5. People need and want information about there own performance.
6. Collaboration enriches professional development.
7. The results of research are immediately applied to a concrete situation. (p. 2,3,17)

In my particular study, I evaluate my own teaching from an autoethnographic stance. I reference my field notes and reflexive journals and reflect on pertinent conversations with other teachers. I also reference language moments with my students (via recorded audio files) to evaluate the utility of translanguaging in language acquisition, within the context of my research questions. The discoveries are analyzed cyclically as I use constructivist grounded theory to develop my informed awareness.

Keeping these processes in mind, I adopted Kemmis and McTaggart's (2005) list of characteristics for participatory action research and compared them to my context of teacher action research. Table 3.1 illustrates how my research addresses each of the seven characteristics outlined by Kemmis and McTaggart (2005). The chart also depicts how teacher action research is distinct from participatory action research, within the context of my research.

Table 3.1: Comparison Between Teacher Action Research \& My Research Context

| Kemmis and McTaggart (2005) <br> Characteristics of Participatory Action Research: <br> (Adopted to correlate to Teacher Action Research) | Crace-Murray <br> Teaching English Language Learners in Alaska: <br> A Study of Translanguaging Choices. |
| :---: | :---: |
| 1. It is a social process and focuses on the interrelationship between an individual and their social environment. | Language learning is a social process that focuses on the interrelationship between students, teachers, and functional interlocutors. Translanguaging also relies on relationships between funds of knowledge and new content. Language choice stems from a student's interaction with his/her social environment and his/her needs. |
| 2. It is fundamentally participatory, where participants go to work on themselves, examining the relationship between knowledge, identity, agency, and practice. | I examine how and why I encourage or discourage translanguaging in the classroom with my ELL students. From an autoethnographic stance, I recall language moments to support my observations and help analyze my field notes, reflexive journaling, and findings. The themes, patterns, questions, and informed awareness that arise out of the analysis is the "work" that is being done on myself and my teaching. |
| 3. It is practical and collaborative, in that it involves groups investigating in relationship their practices (including their relational practices). | My research is practical in that it directly informs my teaching. I also hope to provide enough discussion and discovery to encourage other teachers to explore translanguaging as a tool in language acquisition for ELL students. |
| 4. It is emancipatory, in that it helps people address the "constraints of irrational, unproductive, unjust, and unsatisfying social structures that limit their selfdevelopment and self-determination." | Within my research, the aim is for me to inform my teaching. The self-evaluation process intrinsically includes evaluating new teaching strategies for the classroom that encourage language learning. Because of the effect teachers have on their classroom environments and, therefore, their students, the "emancipatory" effect of selfgrowth as a professional will, in turn, affect my students and how they feel about language choices. |
| 5. It is critical in the way it encourages participants to contest the ways they are positioned to view the world in particular ways. | The process of planning, acting, and reflecting elicits metacognitive thinking about my own teaching practices. The autoethnographic stance allows me to incorporate past experiences in a way that not only supports my data, but also acts as a liaison between my data and my informed awareness as a teacher. |
| 6. It is reflective in that the object of investigation is to change the world for the better in a number of ways: practice, knowledge of practice, social structures, and social media. | Translanguaging allows for the speaker/language learner to access their language repertoire in a way that is liberating. It allows the speaker to intentionally use what she he already knows to create meaning in the new context. This can take the form of codeswitching, code-mixing, code-meshing, thinking in the L1, responding to having the option to translanguage, or using computerassisted translation devices. My research explores how I, as a teacher, encouraged or discouraged translanguaging with my ELL students, what factors impacted my expectations and attitudes towards translanguaging, and how my own expectations and attitudes towards translanguaging changed over the course of the action research. From an autoethnographic stance, the discovery will hopefully inform not only my own teaching, but other teachers of language as well. |
| 7. It aims to transform both theory and practice, and views these as mutually dependent. | Throughout my research, I focus on the connection between theory and practice and use my self-discovery as a tool for encouraging transformation in my teaching. |

There are distinct differences between the characteristics of participatory action research (PAR) and teacher action research (TAR). For the purposes of my research, the following differences are explained within the context of teacher action research from an autoethnographic stance. First, the social process of TAR focused more on the interrelationship between myself and my teaching practices with my students, and the interrelationship between the languages during translanguaging. This differs from PAR being a social process that focuses on individuals
in interrelationship with their environments. Secondly, as a TAR participant, the work was on myself and my teaching practices instead of on multiple participants. Thirdly, my TAR does not focus on practices in relationship with one another, but rather, focuses on my teaching and my encouragement of translanguaging in the classroom. Fourth, my TAR is emancipatory in that it helped me inform my teaching, and not necessarily change the social structure of education. Fifth, my TAR elicits metacognitive thinking and meta-analysis of my own practices. It does not encourage participants to contest the ways they are positioned to view the world, as in PAR. Sixth, my TAR is less global and more specific to my profession. Although what I learned through the process impacts how I teach future students, the objective of my research is not to change social structures. Lastly, I use my discoveries from my TAR to inform my teaching and become a better language teacher. While PAR focuses on transforming both theory and practice, my TAR aims to transform my teaching practices and how I utilize translanguaging in the classroom with my students.

Within teacher action research I examine my teaching practices. This examination is precisely what I do from an auto-ethnographic stance.

### 3.4 Autoethnographic Stance

Autoethnography is an approach to research and writing that seeks to describe and systematically analyze personal experience in order to understand cultural experience (Ellis \& Bochner, 2000). It involves looking at an area of concern or interest, recognizing and analyzing its cultural connectedness, and reflecting on and incorporating one's past experiences and selfawareness in a way that illuminates increased understanding. It can take many forms, such as story telling, narratives, short stories, poetry, photographic essays, and journaling. It is the iterative, simultaneous process of introspection and analysis that occurs in this type of research design that makes it appropriate for bringing together the different aspects of my research within the field of education.

Ellis and Bochner (2000) define autoethnography in this way:
Autoethnography is an autobiographical genre of writing and research that displays multiple layers of consciousness, connecting the personal to the cultural. Back and forth, autoethnographers gaze first through an ethnographic wide-angle lens, focusing outward on social and cultural aspects of their personal experience; then, they look inward,
exposing a vulnerable self that is moved by and may move through, refract, and resist cultural interpretations. (p. 739)

Ellis and Bochner's (2000) definition indicates that through the process of involving the self in research, things like emotion, dialogue, self-consciousness, and spirituality have become not only relational to one another and to social research, but also connected to culture. They contend that one cannot simply do qualitative research without involving the self and all of the history, perspectives, and emotions that come with one's "self" (Ellis \& Bochner, 2000). Furthermore, autoethnographies allow the author to share authority with the subjects and with the readers of the research (Ellis \& Bochner, 2000). According to this theory, socio-cultural topics that are written about in a meaningful and evocative manner allow the author to write about her/his experiences in her/his own voice. It also allows the research subjects to become equal participants/co-learners with the author and invites the readers to share an emotive connectedness with the author and topic(s). With the goal of most research being to gain better understanding around the subject matter or topic, autoethnographies provide the researcher/author with the opportunity to not only explore the implications of their data analysis on a scientific level, but also on a socio-cultural and personal level. It provides the reader with information through venues that are inherently connected to the personal, subjective realm (Carspecken, 1996).

Chang (2008) supports this idea by, first, distinguishing autoethnography from anthropology. Chang's (2008) research indicates that while autoethnography shares the storytelling aspect with other genres of self-narrative, it "transcends mere narration of self to engage in cultural analysis and interpretation" (p. 43). Chang (2008) further contends that it is the interpretive nature of autoethnography that separates it from other forms of self-narration and anthropological discussions.

Chang (2008) further proposes that autoethnography should be ethnographic in its methodological orientation, cultural in its interpretive orientation, and autobiographical in its content orientation (p. 48). Given that schema, autoethnographers should be willing to be vulnerable while also being committed to deep analysis and interpretation of the socio-cultural environment (Chang, 2008). Chang (2008) indicates that autoethnographies are researcherfriendly and autoethnographers are privileged with a holistic and intimate perspective on their familiar data.

### 3.5 Conceptual Applicability

Autoethnography provided a good fit for my study because of the diverse nature of my research. Chang (2008) argues that
the transformative potential of autoethnography is universally beneficial to those who work with people from diverse cultural backgrounds. Through increased awareness of self and others, they will be able to help themselves, and each other, correct cultural misunderstandings, develop cross-cultural sensitivity, and respond to the needs of cultural others effectively. (p. 54)

Having students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds allowed me to work with rich data while recalling my own cultural and linguistic experiences in a way that enhanced my interpretation of different socio-cultural phenomenon around translanguaging and language choices in the classroom.

### 3.6 Analytic Framework

I use constructivist grounded theory for the analytic framework of my study. Constructivist grounded theory has been described as a guideline to research and a path to get through it (Charmaz, 2014). It not only provides the steps to developing an informed awareness, but also the path for that discovery to occur. Charmaz (2014) supports this claim through her analysis of the logic in using constructed grounded theory for research. She states, "as we learn how our research participants make sense of their experiences, we begin to make analytic sense of their meanings and actions" (p. 19). Pursuant to my research context, constructivist grounded theory fits well. As the teacher/researcher, I make sense of my experiences with my ELL students and make analytic sense of the meanings and actions that occur as a result. Those analyses further instigate self-awareness as a teacher that influences how I teach ELLs. That cyclical, iterative process of questioning, collecting data, coding, discussing, analyzing, theorizing, and acting makes up the process of discovery. Charmaz (2014) provides the following as a basic set of strategies that grounded theorists use in their research that sets them apart.

1. Conduct data collection and analysis simultaneously in an iterative process.
2. Analyze actions and processes rather than themes and structure.
3. Use comparative methods.
4. Draw on data (e.g. narratives and descriptions) while developing new conceptual categories.
5. Develop inductive abstract analytic categories through systematic data analysis.
6. Emphasize theory construction rather than description/application of current theories.
7. Engage in theoretical sampling.
8. Search for variation in the studies categories or process.
9. Pursue developing a category rather than covering a specific empirical topic. (p. 15) Within this analytic framework, I used initial coding, coding by incident, and memo-writing to analyze my data.

Initial coding consisted of word-by-word coding and line-by-line coding. These were complementary coding strategies for my research because I focused on nuanced portions of speech to determine how my encouragement to utilize translanguaging in the classroom impacted student language acquisition. As Charmaz (2014) states, "word-by-word analysis forces you to attend to images and meanings. You may attend to the structure and flow of words, and how both affect the sense you make of them, as well as their specific content" (p. 124). Similarly, with line-by-line coding, naming each line of my written data helped develop themes and my analysis. Charmaz (2014) states, "line-by-line coding enables you to take compelling events apart and analyze what constitutes them and how they occurred" (p. 125). Using these strategies, I used word-by-word and line-by-line coding within my audio file transcriptions, field notes, and reflexive journal entries. Having these codes to build from strengthened the foundation for my study. I built my analysis, step-by-step, from the ground up.

I also coded by incident to analyze the critical incidents that occurred in the language moments with my students. David Tripp (2012) defines a critical incident as beginning with a thorough accounting of the event and a detailed description of the experience. Ayres (2013) states, "we create a critical incident through analysis. ... an incident becomes a critical incident as a result of critical thinking about it" (paragraph 5). The point of the analysis is to uncover something new. According to Tripp (2012), the process of identifying critical incidents consists of observing the situation, creating the critical incident, planning a response, implementing the response, observing the effects, and then creating another critical incident if necessary. Tripp (2012) provides a list of prompts for the researcher to consider when thinking about critical incidents: 1) consider all the positive/negative interesting points about the situation, 2) consider
the alternatives/possibilities/choices which were also available, and 3) consider the alternate viewpoints/perspectives/opinions possibly held by others (Ayres, 2013, paragraph 7).

For my research context, I identified the critical incidents within the language moments, identifying the moments where translanguaging occurred and what factors impacted them. Charmaz (2014) supports this process by stating that with coding incidents, "you compare incident with incident, then as your ideas take hold compare incidents to your conceptualization of incidents coded earlier" (p. 128). This framework helped me gain analytic insight as I addressed my research questions, informed my awareness as a teacher, and solidified my findings.

During triangulation of my data, I also used memo-writing. As Charmaz states, "Memos chart, record, and detail a major analytic phase of our journey. We start by writing about our codes and data and move upward to theoretical categories and keep writing memos through the research process" (p. 162). By writing about the codes early on in the research process, I analyzed my data and identified codes that stood out and formed theoretical categories. Throughout this process, new ideas surfaced and I compared the critical incidents to one another, highlighting the ones that recurred the most often. Charmaz (2014) also states that, "Memowriting creates an interactive space, for conversing with yourself about your data, codes, ideas, and hunches" (p. 162). These memos prompted me to categorize my codes into action-based categories and relate them to my research questions. These categories and relationships then helped inform my findings.

### 3.7 Synergic Relationship of Autoethnography, Constructivist Grounded Theory, \& AR/TAR

Autoethnography and constructivist grounded theory pair well together and support one another because of the structural similarities they share. As reported by Ellis (2004), autoethnographies usually showcase concrete action, dialogue, emotion, embodiment, spirituality, and self-consciousness (p.38). These features are usually relational and directly applicable to the researcher's personal and professional lives. Similarly, because autoethnographies require a deeply introspective and reflective lens during the process of discovery, their "results" or findings are subsequently open to multiple interpretations. Autoethnographies are also a better fit for the socially based researcher.

Similarly, in constructivist grounded theory, the researcher is the one on the path of discovery. She/He is the one doing the systematic, cyclical, iterative process of observing, collecting data, reflecting, and analyzing. She/He is not only viewing her/his situation, but also theorizing on how to interpret her/his work and findings into useful theories. Charmaz (2014) buttresses this point by stating, "a constructivist theorizes the interpretive work that research participants do, but also acknowledges that the resulting theory is (also) an interpretation" (p. 239). Therefore, examining how people construct actions and meanings can lead grounded theorists to theorize answers to 'why' questions (p. 240).

In terms of my research context, these 'why' questions are rooted in my research questions, the utility of translanguaging in the language classroom, and how my past experiences support my data and help guide my process of discovery towards an informed awareness as a language teacher from an autoethnographical stance. The synergic relationship between autoethnography and constructivist grounded theory can be summed up into two main aspects: they both place an emphasis on the researcher being the reflective, responsive change agent; and the process of discovery is cyclical, iterative, and systematic.

Furthermore, Whitehead (1989) and Webb (1996) promote the idea that action research is a self-reflective process focused on the individual. This focus on the individual practitioner involved in understanding how practitioners learn their craft is similar to Schon's (1983) ideas. This is similar to Ellis' (2004) notion of autoethnography as a way to focus on one's own personal and professional selves. And, in turn, this kind of reflective study of one's selves or positionalities, according to Herr and Anderson (2015), is integral to action research.

### 3.8 Positionalities

As with any situation, one's position or location within an organization or community makes for varying vantage points and different levels of contribution and perspectives. Herr and Anderson (2015) posit that the same dynamic applies to researchers. They provide a list of multiple ways to think about one's positionality within an action research project:

1. Insider/outsider positionality vis-à-vis the setting under study.
2. Hierarchical position or level of informal power within the organization/community.
3. Position vis-à-vis dominant groups in society-class, race, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, age, ability/disability, religion, and so forth.
4. Position within colonial relations within and between nation states. (p. 54)

In terms of my particular positionalities, I offer the following as dialogue that encompasses my current awareness, while also realizing that my awareness evolves throughout the analytic process. From an autoethnographic stance, I am an integral part of the research process because I am both researcher and participant. I am able to contribute to the conversation with my own teaching and language learning experiences from the past, and share what strategies I have used to address translanguaging and language choices in the classroom. I also have the ability to incorporate my findings directly back into the classroom.

I am both an insider and an outsider with regard to my positionality in the setting. I am a teacher, however, I was also an emerging bilingual in immersion settings, learning Indigenous languages as a young child, and a world language as a young adult. Therefore, I understand the struggles and concerns involved in language learning and around language choices in the classroom. As a teacher, I also understand the frustrations that teachers have around accountability for student test scores and how ELLs factor into that. Having worked as an English language acquisition specialist, I have witnessed teachers advocate against ELLs being on their class roster so that they would not have to "deal with" the varied teaching strategies needed to include them in the learning process and help them succeed on standardized tests. Furthermore, as a parent of bilingual children, I have a keen understanding of the stigmas and labels that are associated with ELL students.

In terms of my research within the Anchorage School District, I am a former ASD employee, having taught Spanish at an urban middle school for one year, and having taught English language acquisition for two years at both the elementary and middle school levels. These positions place me at the position of insider when considering the teaching community. Conversely, from a student perspective, teachers belong to the dominant group and there exists a level of hierarchy. That division sometimes creates a level of separation that requires finesse in bridging that gap and creating trust between teachers and their students.

On another level, having a European phenotype alienates me from some groups. Based on certain stereotypes that place pressures on speakers of certain languages to appear and/or look a certain way, my outer appearance causes some teachers and students to label me as "an outsider." As a speaker of an Indigenous language, I am often surprised by the reactions I receive from non-speakers since I am not of Yugtun descent. Interestingly enough, having been accepted
and baptized by the Yugtun community at the age of nine, I find that most of the misunderstandings and/or judgments made about my "Yup'ik-ness" come from those who are not of the Yugtun community. Generally speaking, people who belong to the Yugtun community consist of people who identify with and live the Yugtun way. This can consist of knowing or using the Yugtun language, living by Yugtun beliefs and ways of knowing, and respecting Yugtun elders and traditions.

Lastly, my positionality vis-à-vis dominant groups in society and within colonial relations between nation states, can be summarized as the following. I am a middle-aged, Caucasian woman, who is strong in her faith and family values. I grew up in rural Alaskan villages and have been exposed to a variety of Indigenous cultures and languages. I have experiential knowledge of the values and traditions inherent to those cultures and have developed a multicultural identity of Indigenous worldviews, familial-based values, and worldly applications. That "hybrid mix," if you will, places me in a unique position to relate to students learning language and the methods they use to create meaning because I have gone through the same processes myself in both Indigenous and world language contexts when I learned Dena'ina and Yugtun as a child, and Spanish as a young adult. Herr and Anderson (2015) posit that "knowledge production from all positions is valid as long as one is honest and reflective about the limitations of one's multiple positionalities and takes them into account methodologically" (p. 59). I address and develop these positionalities from an autoethnographic stance as I analyze my data, address my research questions, recall scenes from my past that help me make sense of my data, and refine my awareness as a teacher.

### 3.9 Setting

My research took place in three schools within the Anchorage School District (ASD). The Anchorage school district is the largest school district in Alaska, with close to 50,000 students in over 90 schools. The school district encompasses 2,000 square miles from Girdwood to Chugiak (retrieved from www.asdk12.org, n.d.).

ASD is a minority-majority district, meaning that the minority populations make up the majority of the student population. According to the ASD website, $56 \%$ of enrolled students are non-white, and while 80\% of enrolled students speak English at home, 99 languages are
represented in the student body. In the year 2014, 5,745 students were eligible for English language acquisition services (retrieved from www. asdk12.org, n.d.).

I collected my data from an elementary school in Eagle River, a middle school in Eagle River, and a middle school in Chugiak, Alaska.

### 3.10 Participants

Being that my research is TAR (teacher action research) focusing on my own practice and is approached from an autoethnographic stance, I am the sole participant in my study. Although I worked with ELL students, teachers, administrators, and parents, the focus of my research is on myself as a teacher. I had 55 ELLs on my case-load during academic year 201617. Of those 55 ELLs, 31 were at the elementary school, 13 were at middle school \#1, and 11 were at middle school \#2. I worked directly with 39 of them, while the ELL tutor worked with the remaining students. Of the 39 students I worked with directly, I collected data from my interactions with 9 of them. Furthermore, of the 9 ELLs from whom I collected data, 3 of them were monolinguals with their first language (L1) being a language other than English. Within the group of 9, eleven languages are represented, including English.

Because I am contributing to the conversation and guiding the process of discovery, my qualifications are also applicable. I am a certified secondary education teacher with endorsements in ESL K-12, Bilingual Education K-12, Spanish 7-12, and Social Studies 7-12. I have twelve years of teaching experience, within three states and two countries. In the United States, I have taught in New Mexico, Alaska, and Colorado. Internationally speaking, I have taught in Argentina. My teaching experience spans elementary grades, secondary levels, and tertiary levels (college level as an adjunct professor). I have two bachelor's degrees: one in International Affairs and Latin American studies from Lewis and Clark College in Portland, Oregon, and the other in Secondary and Bilingual Education from the College of Santa Fe in New Mexico. I hold a master's degree in Public Administration from the University of North Carolina-Greensboro, and am currently pursuing my doctorate in Applied Linguistics with a cohort focus on Native language maintenance and revitalization from the University of AlaskaFairbanks.

### 3.11 Research Procedures

In order to better understand my own practice, I obtained permission to record my interactions with some of my students. The focus of the analysis was on my own teaching practices and the decisions I made as the interlocutor. My research procedures included field notes, audio recordings, and reflexive journals, and I referred to my students in generic terms.

Since I worked at 3 schools as a 80 FTE (Full-Time Employee), meaning I was an 80\% employee, and the majority of my caseload was at the elementary school, I worked at the elementary school two days a week, at middle school \#1 one day a week, and at middle school \#2 one day a week. I worked at middle school \#1 on Mondays, at the elementary school on Tuesdays and Thursdays, and at middle school \#2 on Wednesdays. On Fridays I worked on compiling my data.

The languages represented within the data pool at the elementary school were Hmong, Vietnamese, Samoan, German, Spanish, Mien, Inupiaq, and English. The languages represented within the data pool at middle school \#1 were Yugtun, Ukranian, Russian, and English. The languages represented within the data pool at middle school \#2 were Spanish and English.

Table 3.2: School Site Schedule/11 Languages

| MONDAY: | TUESDAY: | WEDNESDAY: | THURSDAY: |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Middle School \#1 | Elementary School | Midde School \#2 | Elementary School |
| Languages: Yugtun, Ukranian, | Languages: Hmong, | Languages: Spanish, English | Languages: Hmong, |
| Russian, English | Vietnamese, Samoan, German, |  | Vietnamese, Samoan, German, |
|  | Mien, Inupiaq, English |  | Mien, Inupiaq, English |

Tables 3.3 and 3.4 offer a view of what data collection instrument was used for each research question, what the data analysis framework looks like, and the length and dates associated with each data instrument.

Table 3.3: Data Collection Instruments/Data Analysis Framework

| Research Questions: | Data Collection Instrument: | Data Analysis: |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| As a teacher, how and why do I encourage or <br> discourage translanguaging with ELL <br> students? | ELL sessions, Observations, Field Notes, <br> Audio Recordings, Reflexive Journals, <br> Conversations with teachers, parents, and <br> administrators. | Transcribe, code, theorize, guide discovery <br> around translanguaging, and develop an <br> informed awareness of myself as a language <br> teacher. |
| What factors impact my expectations and <br> attitudes towards translanguaging? How <br> does this compare to the expectations and <br> attitudes expressed in the literature? | Field Notes, Audio Recordings, Reflexive <br> Journals, Journal articles and texts around <br> translanguaging, action research, teacher <br> action research, auto-ethnography, and <br> constructed grounded theory. | Transcribe, code, theorize, guide discovery <br> around translanguaging, and develop an <br> informed awareness of myself as a language <br> teacher. |
| How do my own expectations and attitudes <br> towards translanguaging change over the <br> course of the action research? What are the <br> critical incidents? | Reflexive Journals, and recollections from <br> the past that support and/or provide insight <br> into understanding my data. | Transcribe, code, theorize, guide discovery <br> around translanguaging, and develop an <br> informed awareness of myself as a language <br> teacher. |

Table 3.4: Data Instruments/Numbers/Dates

| Instrument | Number Collected | Total Pages/Minutes | Dates Collected |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Field Notes | 67 | 100 typed pages | Sept. 26, 2016-April, 27, 2017 |
| Audio Files | 23 | $182: 35$ <br> Minutes: Seconds | Jan. 12, 2017-April 27, 2017 |
| Reflexive Journals | 29 | 29 typed pages | Dec.12, 2016-April 27, 2017 |

### 3.12 Field Notes

I began collecting field notes on September 26, 2016, and concluded on April 27, 2017. Field notes consisted of not only documenting what transpired during the ELA (English language acquisition) sessions, but also noting if and how each research question was addressed during the session. For example, after documenting the lesson and any language moments that occurred during the session, I answered the research questions respectively and noted if the session addressed them. I assigned each research question a symbol that I used within the field notes to correlate with my entries. The following depicts the research questions and their corresponding symbols:
Research Question \#1:
As a teacher, how and why do I encourage or discourage translanguaging with ELL students? (Symbol: ${ }^{\wedge}$ )
Research Question \#2:
What factors impact my expectations and attitudes towards translanguaging? How does this compare to the expectation and attitudes expressed in the literature? (Symbol: \#)
Research Question \#3:
How do my own expectations and attitudes towards translanguaging change over the course of the action research? What are the critical incidents? (Symbol: @)

For the field notes, I documented what happened and how the session addressed the research questions. Personal observations, reflexive responses, patterns, questions, supplemental conversations, and things that I wanted to expand upon were all noted; however, they were put in brackets as a reminder to expand upon them later in my reflexive journaling. Over the course of my data collection, I made 67 field note entries between all three schools, totaling 100 typed pages. Table 3.5 details the location, dates and length of each field note entry.

Table 3.5: Field Notes Written

| Instrument | Location | Date | Length |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Field Note | Middle School \#1 | 9/26/16 | 1 typed page |
| Field Note | Middle School \#2 | 9/27/16 | 1 typed page |
| Field Note | Middle School \#1 | 10/03/16 | 1 typed page |
| Field Note | Elementary School | 10/10/16 | 1 typed page |
| Field Note | Middle School \#1 | 10/10/16 | 2 typed pages |
| Field Note | Elementary School | 10/11/16 | 2 typed pages |
| Field Note | Middle School \#2 | 10/12/16 | 2 typed pages |
| Field Note | Elementary School | 10/13/16 | 2 typed pages |
| Field Note | Middle School \#1 | 10/17/16 | 1 short line |
| Field Note | Elementary School | 10/18/16 | 1.5 typed pages |
| Field Note | Middle School \#2 | 10/19/16 | 1 typed pages |
| Field Note | Elementary School | 10/20/16 | 7 typed pages |
| Field Note | Middle School \#1 | 10/24/16 | 1 typed pages |
| Field Note | Elementary School | 10/25/16 | 1 typed page |
| Field Note | Middle School \#2 | 10/26/16 | . 5 typed page |
| Field Note | Elementary School | 10/27/16 | . 5 typed page |
| Field Note | Middle School \#1 | 10/31/16 | 1 typed page |
| Field Note | Elementary School | 11/1/16 | 1.5 typed pages |
| Field Note | Elementary School | 11/03/16 | 1 typed page |
| Field Note | Middle School \#1 | 11/7/16 | 1 typed page |
| Field Note | Elementary School | 11/8/16 | 1.5 typed pages |
| Field Note | Middle School \#2 | 11/9/16 | 1 typed page |
| Field Note | Elementary School | 11/15/16 | 2 typed pages |
| Field Note | Middle School \#1 | 11/21/16 | 2 typed pages |
| Field Note | Middle School \#2 | 11/23/16 | 1.5 typed pages |
| Field Note | Middle School \#1 | 11/28/16 | 1.5 typed pages |
| Field Note | Elementary School | 11/29/16 | 1 typed page |
| Field Note | Middle School \#2 | 11/30/16 | 1.5 typed pages |
| Field Note | Elementary School | 12/01/16 | 1.5 typed pages |
| Field Note | Middle School \#1 | 12/5/16 | 1 typed page |
| Field Note | Elementary School | 12/6/16 | 2.5 typed pages |
| Field Note | Elementary School | 12/8/16 | 2 typed pages |
| Field Note | Middle School \#1 | 12/12/16 | 2.5 typed pages |
| Field Note | Elementary School | 12/13/16 | 1 typed page |
| Field Note | Middle School \#2 | 12/14/16 | 4 typed pages |
| Field Note | Elementary School | 12/15/16 | 1 typed page |
| Field Note | Elementary School | 12/20/16 | 1 typed page |
| Field Note | Elementary School | 1/10/17 | 1.5 typed pages |
| Field Note | Elementary School | 1/12/17 | 1 typed page |
| Field Note | Elementary School | 1/17/17 | . 5 typed page |
| Field Note | Middle School \#2 | 1/18/17 | 1 typed page |
| Field Note | Elementary School | 1/24/17 | 4 typed pages |

Table 3.5 continued

| Field Note | Middle School \#2 | 1/25/17 | 1.5 typed pages |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Field Note | Elementary School | 1/31/17 | 1 typed page |
| Field Note | Middle School \#2 | 2/15/17 | 2 typed pages |
| Field Note | Elementary School | 2/16/17 | 1 typed page |
| Field Note | Elementary School | 2/28/17 | 1 typed page |
| Field Note | Middle School \#2 | 3/1/17 | 2 typed pages |
| Field Note | Middle School \#1 | 3/6/17 | . 5 typed page |
| Field Note | Elementary School | 3/7/17 | 1 typed page |
| Field Note | Middle School \#2 | 3/8/17 | 1.5 typed pages |
| Field Note | Middle School \#1 | 3/20/17 | 1.5 typed pages |
| Field Note | Elementary School | 3/21/17 | . 5 typed page |
| Field Note | Middle School \#1 | 4/3/17 | 3 typed pages |
| Field Note | Elementary School | 4/4/17 | 3 typed pages |
| Field Note | Middle School \#2 | 4/5/17 | 1.5 typed pages |
| Field Note | Elementary School | 4/6/17 | .5 typed page |
| Field Note | Middle School \#1 | 4/10/17 | 1 typed page |
| Field Note | Elementary School | 4/11/17 | 1 typed page |
| Field Note | Middle School \#2 | 4/12/17 | 1.5 typed pages |
| Field Note | Middle School \#1 | 4/17/17 | 1.5 typed pages |
| Field Note | Elementary School | 4/18/17 | 1 typed page |
| Field Note | Middle School \#2 | 4/19/17 | 1.5 typed pages |
| Field Note | Elementary School | 4/20/17 | 1 typed page |
| Field Note | Elementary School | 4/25/17 | 1 typed page |
| Field Note | Middle School \#2 | 4/26/17 | 1.5 typed pages |
| Field Note | Elementary School | 4/27/17 | 1.5 typed pages |
| TOTAL |  |  | 100 typed pages |

### 3.13 Audio Files

Using the voice memo feature on my i-Phone, I recorded 23 audio files between January 12, 2017 and April 27, 2017, totaling 182 minutes and 35 seconds. The audio recordings ranged from a few seconds in length to over 22 minutes long. Table 3.6 details the location, date and length of each audio file recording.

Table 3.6: Audio Recordings Collected

| Instrument | Location | Date | Length (Minutes: Seconds) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: |
| Audio Recording | Elementary School | $1 / 12 / 17$ | $12: 17$ |
| Audio Recording | Elementary School | $1 / 13 / 17$ | $12: 17$ |
| Audio Recording | Elementary School | $1 / 17 / 17$ | $10: 41$ |
| Audio Recording | Elementary School | $1 / 24 / 17$ | $: 25$ |
| Audio Recording | Elementary School | $1 / 25 / 17$ | $: 20$ |
| Audio Recording | Elementary School | $1 / 31 / 17$ | $17: 32$ |

Table 3.6 continued

| Audio Recording | Elementary School | $2 / 16 / 17$ | $3 / 1 / 17$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Audio Recording | Middle School \#2 | $3 / 01$ |  |
| Audio Recording | Elementary School | $22: 06$ |  |
| Audio Recording | Middle School \#2 | $3 / 8 / 17$ | $18: 22$ |
| Audio Recording | Middle School \#2 | $3 / 8 / 17$ | $15: 01$ |
| Audio Recording | Elementary School | $3 / 21 / 17$ | $17: 47$ |
| Audio Recording | Elementary School | $4 / 4 / 17$ | $16: 41$ |
| Audio Recording | Middle School \#2 | $4 / 5 / 17$ | $14: 48$ |
| Audio Recording | Elementary School | $4 / 6 / 17$ | $12: 42$ |
| Audio Recording | Elementary School | $4 / 11 / 17$ | $18: 33$ |
| Audio Recording | Middle School \#2 | $4 / 12 / 17$ | $13: 32$ |
| Audio Recording | Elementary School | $4 / 18 / 17$ | $5: 32$ |
| Audio Recording | Middle School \#2 | $4 / 19 / 17$ | $16: 30$ |
| Audio Recording | Elementary School | $4 / 20 / 17$ | $14: 43$ |
| Audio Recording | Elementary School | $4 / 25 / 17$ | $11: 40$ |
| Audio Recording | Middle School \#2 | $4 / 26 / 17$ | $20: 54$ |
| Audio Recording | Elementary School | $4 / 27 / 17$ | $12: 16$ |
| TOTAL |  |  | $\mathbf{1 8 2 : 3 5}$ |

### 3.14 Reflexive Journals

Over the course of my data collection, I made 29 reflexive journal entries between December 12, 2016, and April 27, 2017, totaling 29 typed pages. In the evenings, I started out journaling about my feelings from the day, how I felt the sessions went with my students, and then expanded on the bracketed portions of my field note entries. Over the course of the data collection, I transitioned to including personal and professional past experiences and memories that correlated to the language moments of the day. These "scenes" or recollections helped me theorize about how I teach language, and how I can improve upon my teaching. Table 3.7 details the location, date, and length of each journal entry.

Table 3.7: Journal Entries Written

| Instrument | Location | Date | Length |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: |
| Reflexive Journal | At home | $12 / 12 / 16$ | $12 / 13 / 16$ |
| Reflexive Journal | At home | $12 / 14 / 16$ | 1 typed page |
| Reflexive Journal | At home | $12 / 15 / 16$ | 1 typed page |
| Reflexive Journal | At home | $12 / 19 / 16$ | .5 typed page |
| Reflexive Journal | At home | $12 / 20 / 16$ | 1 typed page |
| Reflexive Journal | At home | $12 / 21 / 16$ | .5 typed page |
| Reflexive Journal | At home | $1 / 11 / 17$ | .5 typed page |
| Reflexive Journal | At home | $1 / 20 / 17$ | 2.5 typed pages |
| Reflexive Journal | At home | 1 typed page |  |

Table 3.7 continued

| Reflexive Journal | At home | $1 / 24 \& 1 / 25 / 17$ | 2 typed pages |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: |
| Reflexive Journal | At home | $1 / 31 / 17$ | 1 typed page |
| Reflexive Journal | At home | $3 / 1 / 17$ | 1 typed page |
| Reflexive Journal | At home | $3 / 7 / 17$ | 1 typed page |
| Reflexive Journal | At home | $3 / 20 / 17$ | .5 typed page |
| Reflexive Journal | At home | $1 / 21 / 17$ | 1 typed page |
| Reflexive Journal | At home | $1 / 4 / 17$ | $4 / 5 / 17$ |
| Reflexive Journal | At home | $4 / 6 / 17$ | 1.5 typed pages |
| Reflexive Journal | At home | 1 typed page |  |
| Reflexive Journal | At home | 1 typed page |  |
| Reflexive Journal | At home | $4 / 11 / 17$ | 1 typed page |
| Reflexive Journal | At home | $4 / 12 / 17$ | 1 typed page |
| Reflexive Journal | At home | $4 / 17 / 17$ | .5 typed page |
| Reflexive Journal | At home | $4 / 18 / 17$ | 1 typed page |
| Reflexive Journal | At home | $4 / 19 / 17$ | 1.5 typed pages |
| Reflexive Journal | At home | $4 / 20 / 17$ | 1.5 typed pages |
| Reflexive Journal | At home | 1 typed page |  |
| Reflexive Journal | At home | $4 / 26 / 17$ | 1 typed page |
| Reflexive Journal | At home |  | 1 typed page |
| TOTAL |  |  | 29 typed pages |

### 3.15 Timeline

Table 3.8 depicts the timeline for my research and data collection. Due to the fluid nature of school schedules and unplanned events at each school, certain research procedures began and ended on different dates for each site. The time taken to collect the data was approximately nine months. Table 3.8 shows the months in which each type of research instrument was used to collect data. The month of August was also used to obtain permission forms from the school district and from the principals at all three sites. Additionally, the months of December and January were used to collect permission forms from the families of the English language learners.

Table 3.8: Research Timeline

| 2016 | September | October | November | December | 2017 | January | February | March | April |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Field Notes |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Audio <br> Recordings |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Journaling |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

The following chapter presents the language moments in detail, and my analysis of the critical incidents that led to discovery.

## Chapter 4 Data Analysis

My research questions are 1) As a teacher, how and why do I encourage or discourage translanguaging with my ELL students? 2) What factors impact my expectations and attitudes towards translanguaging? 3) How do my own expectations and attitudes towards translanguaging change over the course of the action research?

The following series of excerpts come directly from my data collection instruments, consisting of audio files, field notes, and reflexive journal entries. I present and analyze language moments where my decisions, as a teacher, impacted how language was used. I critically reflect on those moments, from an autoethnographic stance, while addressing my research questions. In cases where the language moments are drawn from field notes or journal entries, I provide quotations from my own reflexive writing, whereas quotations from learning moments in the classroom are drawn from the audio files. All of the excerpts are presented chronologically to protect the situational and contextual language moments. The focus is on my decision making and understanding of my own practice.

### 4.1 Language Moments

Each language moment consisted of a pull-out or in-class support session with an ELL and me. For one session, the language moment consisted of two ELL students, and for another session, the language moment came from a session with four ELL students. Each language moment contained recorded dialogue of the interaction(s) with the students, and/or a reflexive field note and journal entry written the same day as the session. How I interact with ELLs early on in the study impacted my awareness as a teacher, subsequently affecting later interactions with my students. Therefore, the language moments are presented in chronological order to highlight my development and journey as an ELL teacher over time.

I define a language moment as a highlighted portion of an interaction between my student(s) and me that contains the contextual framework for the critical incident. Similarly, I identify critical incidents as the specific moments where the interactions elucidate my research questions (Tripp, 2012), showcasing 1) how and why I, as a teacher, encourage or discourage translanguaging with ELL students, 2) what factors impact my expectations and attitudes towards translanguaging, and 3) how my own expectations and attitudes towards translanguaging change over the course of the study.

The data come from my interactions with 9 ELL students. Throughout my analysis of language moments derived from these interactions, I refer to my audio files, field notes, and reflexive journaling. I reference all students as [Student], or [S], and reference their regular classroom teachers as [Mrs.].

This chapter includes discussion of 14 language moments, of which six originate from audio files, and eight from field notes. One language moment (LM 11) originated from both an audio file and a field note. Of the 18 data collection dates that shared contributions from all three instruments, I chose 14 that contained the richest data on translanguaging and language choices in the classroom. Using triangulation within the analytic framework, I analyzed the language moments and their critical incidents, within the context of my research questions.

### 4.1.1 Language Moment 1: Uruguay

The following language moment took place with a middle school student. His mother is originally from a remote Yup'ik village and is the only immediate family member who speaks Yugtun to him. He is an emerging bilingual whose oral proficiency in Yugtun (Yup'ik Eskimo) is novice or low. However, he has a relatively high level of understanding in the Indigenous language. He prefers to speak in English at school but responds favorably to Yugtun instruction. He was identified as an ELL because Yugtun was listed as the other language spoken at home on the Parent Language Questionnaire (PLQ) during his registration process with ASD.

During our session together, the social studies teacher prompted the students to complete a task for a project that required them to research a country and complete a fact worksheet. The following is an excerpt from my field note for that day.

Excerpt from Field Note collected on 12-12-16:
1-Today was a great day with [Student]. I asked him what he did over the weekend and 2-he said that he checked on his mom. He seems to do so much better after he sees his 3 -mom in the hospital. The teacher was out today and had a substitute so I introduced

4-myself and told her I will support him. during research time in the library today.
5-She was pleased to have the help.
6-Today we worked on round 3 of the three week social studies project. He was given
7-the country of Uruguay and I told him that I used to live in Argentina, next door to
8 -Uruguay, and he was very interested. We got almost the entire worksheet filled out

9-using the Country Grams website. I was able to translanguage with him today by 10-using both Spanish and Yugtun. He asked me how to say Uruguay in 'a non-white 11-way', so I taught him to pronounce Uruguay correctly. He then shared it with a 12-friend. When I showed him the country of Paraguay on the map and asked him how 13 -to pronounce it correctly, he was able to do it. I encouraged translanguaging because 14-it helps make connections between current knowledge and information your brain is 15 -trying to navigate and acquire. When he asked me where the capital of Uruguay 16-(Montevideo) was on the map, I answered him in Yugtun and said, "waniwa", 17-meaning "here" in Yugtun. He said, "OK, Quyana". He then heard a peer say that 18-they got the country of Guyana and he smiled and said, "It sounds like Quyana!" I 19-agreed and told him that it is neat to make those connections.

I sensed that the substitute was struggling with how to support the ELLs in the class, so I offered my help and she seemed relieved to have my assistance. My support as the ELL teacher normally varied for this student. Once a week I would touch base with his teachers and see where he needed the most support and then I would sit in on a class with him, modeling how to take notes, helping facilitate group work, and helping him understand assignments and complete missing work. This session focused on modeling how to do research and stay on task. My presence in the computer lab also provided the substitute with another adult in the room to help with any classroom management issues that arose. She was very grateful and took advantage of my presence by taking a short break while I watched the class. It was important for the other students to see that I am available to help everyone, as well as this student, which also helped deter some of the attention away from him, which he seemed to like. In middle school, students tend to be especially impressionable to peer influence. ELLs, in particular, suffer from a variety of stereotypes that stem from their cultural and linguistic differences. For this student, it was no different. Students would often make fun of his accent or Village English, as well as poke fun at him for being unbathed or for wearing dirty clothes. I took it upon myself to take those moments to turn them into lessons where I would teach tolerance or cultural sensitivity, which seemed to help solidify trust between the ELL and myself as the teacher.

When I found out that this student was assigned the country of Uruguay for the class assignment, I immediately thought of making a more personal connection and told him, on line 7, that I used to live and study in Argentina, a country next to Uruguay in South America. He
appeared to find that very interesting and noticed that I pronounced it differently than his teacher had, so I helped him pronounce the country name with the proper Spanish pronunciation. In doing this, I likened some of the vowel sounds to those in the Yugtun language and noted that the vowels in Spanish sound similar to their proper pronunciation in the Yugtun language. Since he had been exposed to both English and Yugtun his whole life, I wanted to make connections between his languages to help him better understand the assignment. This type of translanguaging allowed for him to access his languages and make a connection between his prior knowledge of conversations with his mother in Yugtun (and his Yugtun teacher at school in the village) and acquiring new content through his current social studies class. I found it especially interesting, on lines 10-11, that he asked me to pronounce the country name in "a nonwhite way." For this student, whose language repertoire consists of both English and an Indigenous language, asking for "a non-white way" of pronunciation meant providing him with guidance on how to sound "Native" to the language. In other words, he did not want to sound like other "white people" who try to speak his Indigenous language and do a poor job. He expressed that he wanted to pronounce the country name the way the people from that country would pronounce it. I would imagine that this particular thought process is more common for speakers of Indigenous languages, whose cultures involve historical trauma from the "white man," than speakers of non-Indigenous languages.

It appeared to me that it was important to this student to show respect for the people of Uruguay by properly pronouncing the name of their country. I agreed with him and honored his request by teaching him how to pronounce it correctly and by helping him connect it to his own culture and language. Once he knew how to pronounce the name correctly, he was eager to share it with his peers and was able to apply what he had learned to a similar country name, "Paraguay." Asking him to pronounce "Paraguay" reinforced what I had taught him and demonstrated applicability, suggesting that translanguaging can be as simple as pronouncing words correctly. The reason I taught this pronunciation was to help this student value his Indigenous language. Through application, I was able to show him how knowing more than one language was beneficial to learning new content across subject matters. Teaching him how the Yugtun vowel sounds helped him pronounce the Spanish vowel sounds correctly prompted
him to think critically about the possibility that people from other countries might also appreciate a more "Native-like" pronunciation of their country names. As his ELL teacher, I
used translanguaging to inspire these types of connections between languages within his linguistic repertoire, which produced an in-depth discussion between us about cultural differences and what pronouncing something in "a non-white way" meant.

The critical moment for this session occurred when he asked me where the capital of Uruguay (Montevideo) was on the map, and I answered him in Yugtun, saying "waniwa," meaning "here" (while pointing to it on the map). He answered me with, "OK, Quyana," meaning "OK, Thank you (in Yugtun). My choice to translanguage and use "waniwa" instead of "here" was intentional and strategic. I code-switched to Yugtun because we had just used the vowel sounds from Yugtun to help him understand the Spanish pronunciation of the vowels in order to properly pronounce the country name. I had already prompted him to access his prior knowledge, so he was demonstrating that he was actively thinking across languages, making connections. I wanted him to stay in that mode of thinking because it was appearing to produce a higher level of thinking. Because I also speak both of his languages, I was able to use a word from Yugtun that is commonly used to point to things close by. By modeling translanguaging, he responded quickly and code-switched himself saying, "OK, Quyana." on line 17.
To quote my field notes from this session,
Excerpt from Field Note collected on 12-12-16:
1-While [S] didn't always demonstrate pride in his Indigenous language and culture, he
2-did respond favorably to me when I modeled translanguaging by showing him how to
3-connect knowledge between his languages to understand new content. He also enjoyed
4-incorporating words from his Indigenous Lang. in a way that showed solidarity with
5-the translanguaging momentum, and protection of his language by excluding others 6 -from its meaning.

It appeared to me that he used "OK" in English, and then followed it up with "Quyana" (Thank you) in Yugtun to show solidarity with our translanguaging momentum. It also indicated to me that he wanted to thank me in a language that we both shared, but not many others around him did, demonstrating a sense of pride for his Indigenous language, and privacy that was afforded the both of us. As his interlocutor, I felt that his use of Yugtun indicated solidarity.

My choice to translanguage appeared to embolden this student so much that when he heard a peer in the computer lab say aloud that they had the country of Guyana, he immediately made the connection on his own and told me that it sounded like the Yugtun word,
"Quyana." This is the second critical incident. We then discussed how interesting it was that he made that connection, and pondered what other similarities might exist between his languages, the Yup'ik culture, and other languages and cultures around the world. It is likely that the student would not have been as interested in the subject, had I not demonstrated how he could relate to certain parts of the assignment through translanguaging. Similarly, as his teacher, without translanguaging, I might not have gotten the same level of participation from the student. Therefore, translanguaging, and modeling its utility in the classroom, can help students relate to the tasks at hand and produce work that is more representative of their understanding of the assignment(s).

My session with this ELL student prompted me to write about what transpired and how the language moment presented itself during our time together. The following excerpt from my field note addresses how the language moment and critical incidents contribute to discussion about modeling as a form of translanguaging, and translanguaging to show solidarity.

Excerpt from Field Note collected on 12-12-16:
1-My expectations are for ELLs to create hybrid language through translanguaging, by
2-using all of their languages to make new meaning. When an ELL does not embrace
3-that, I find it difficult to understand. Not all ELLs demonstrate pride in their cultural
4-and linguistic differences.
5-Modeling translanguaging also prompted him to think critically about how speakers of
6-other languages might appreciate a more culturally and linguistically-responsive
7 -representation during the learning process. As the teacher, I found it interesting that by
8 -simply modeling translanguaging, [ S ] became instantly vested in doing the
9-same, eventually taking ownership of the process himself.
Although I cannot be sure about how translanguaging caused this student to think critically, I can be sure that the process of translanguaging caused him to use his Indigenous language in a way that increased understanding in English. Through my journaling, I indicate that I hope translanguaging supports critical thinking on the part of my students. Through modeling translanguaging, I also encouraged reciprocity, which appeared to help him make connections across languages and, ultimately, increase understanding in English. The encouragement of translanguaging also appeared to impact the student's decision to demonstrate solidarity with the language moment, and with showcasing language pride.

### 4.1.2 Language Moment 2: Science Translation

The background for this next language moment consists of myself, and a middle schoolaged student from Mexico who moved to Alaska to live with her aunt. She travelled to this country alone, not knowing what to expect.

When I met this student, she was extremely shy and a monolingual Spanish speaker. She very quickly became an emerging bilingual who embraced the translanguaging process in her learning. The following excerpt is taken from my field notes.

Excerpt from Field Notes collected on 12-14-16:
1-After the science teacher returned to the classroom, [S] asked me in Spanish to 2-clarify everything again in Spanish. I told her, in Spanish, that I was going to begin 3-code-switching with her (both in oral and written forms) from now on to help 4-demonstrate how she can communicate with teachers and friends. She agreed. I began 5-writing down everything she needs to do for science class in Spanish and she told me 6-that I don't need to explain it in Spanish-just a few words here and there so I began

7-writing it in English while she followed along with her eyes. When she got to a
8 -word she didn't understand, she asked me (in Spanish) what it meant, and I then wrote
9-it again in Spanish and asked her in English if she understood. She responded in 10 -English that she did. The transition to translanguaging for her was easy and natural 11 -and it was a fun exchange for us both. [S] had been translanguaging for a while, but 12-didn't know it.

On line 1, we see that this student and I already had a working relationship and she was accustomed to asking me for help with interpreting and translating what her monolingual English-speaking teachers asked of her in class. For this instance, her science teacher had explained the assignment to her in English, while providing semi-translated worksheets, using a translation program I had provided to them. Her teachers typically waited until Wednesdays, when I was at that school, to communicate with her. Therefore, on Wednesdays, I interpreted what the teachers wanted her to know about the week's assignments in their classes. I also sat next to her throughout her science, language arts, and math classes on those days, offering interpretation and translation support for her and her teachers. On the other days, the ELL tutor helped by working with the school Spanish teacher to translate the assignments for her. Sometimes, if there was a lot of work to do, I would take this student into the hall or the
computer lab, and we would work alone on raising her understanding of the assignments and getting her caught up on homework assignments.

For this session, the science teacher had explained everything to me in English and then returned to the classroom. The student immediately asked me to clarify what she had said, in Spanish, for her. She was comfortable asking me to do this for her since I had interpreted and translated for her since the beginning of the school year. She was also eager to communicate with me in her L1 (Spanish), and get caught up on everything she felt she had missed out on fully understanding since our previous lesson. Therefore, our sessions often included discussion around peer and teacher dynamics, school schedules, school assemblies, school announcements, lunchroom etiquette, and a number of other things that were not communicated to her during the week in her L1 or in a way that she could understand. Using the student's L1 (Spanish) to explain the material and create connections between Spanish and English in a way that helped her understand the target language (English) was translanguaging pedagogy. Acting as the interlocutor, my encouragement of translanguaging in the classroom positively impacted her rate of English acquisition.

On lines 2-4, I answered the student in Spanish because I wanted to connect with her and get her full attention. In Spanish, I reported on telling her that I was going to begin codeswitching with her both orally and in written form because I wanted to model how to translanguage, using both Spanish and English, in hopes of increasing her willingness to communicate with her teachers and peers.

While the student had been receiving partially translated worksheets and instructions from her teachers, the student had been reluctant up until this point to communicate orally with her teachers. However, she had become adept at producing bilingual written work, and turning in worksheets and assignments in both languages. I wanted to build upon that and expand it to include speech now that she was comfortable thinking in both languages.

On line 4, I noted that she agreed with me. On line 5, I reported that I began writing down everything the science teacher had asked me to convey to her. I started writing in Spanish until she politely interrupted me and told me that I did not need to explain it in Spanish unless we came across something she could not figure out. Because I felt I needed to begin by writing down everything in Spanish at first, my understanding of what translanguaging is and what it is capable of doing for the student was bound by my desire for her to succeed. I wanted her to make
as many connections between her languages as possible, through as many mediums as possible (visually, auditory, etc.) within the short time we had together. This suggests that the factors that impacted my expectations about translanguaging were greatly influenced by time restrictions, and my desire for the ELLs to succeed without consistent ELA support from her regular education teachers.

Because the student was generally waiting until Wednesdays to understand her assignments, she sat in class for a great deal of time with no support, trying to understand what was going on. The teachers often paired her with students who were part of the Spanish immersion program in the school; however, their Spanish was generally non-academic Spanish and not at an adequate proficiency level for teaching a peer. Her bilingual peers would often get frustrated trying to explain it to her, and she would get frustrated because their Spanish was difficult to understand or insufficient for comprehension. When I arrived on Wednesdays, the tension was visibly eased for the student, for her peers, and for her teachers. Unfortunately, per my schedule with ASD and my caseload of ELLs across three schools, I was only available to her one day per week.

When the student politely told me, on line 6 , that she no longer needed me to write everything down in Spanish for her to understand, I was both surprised and pleased. Up until this point, she had been receptive of this type of assistance. I was surprised that she expressed that she no longer needed to see it visually. My interpretation of her request at that time suggested that she felt comfortable enough with me to advocate for her learning. It was apparent to me that she had decided, on her own, that she was ready for the next step. She wanted to stretch her legs a little and see how much English she could understand as I wrote. I expect that step was difficult for her and I was proud she took a leap of faith in her abilities and newly acquired language acquisition skills. I still gave her the option of having it written in Spanish if she needed it, which acted as her safety net.

The critical incident for this session comes from line 7 where I switched to writing the instructions and assignments down in English after being prompted by the student that she was ready for the next step. In response to her request, I decided to quietly and smoothly transition to English, without verbally acknowledging that I would do so. I also began circling recognizable cognates to help her identify similarities between the two languages. This was a strategic, intentional choice I made to acknowledge that she was ready to move on and expand
her learning. Using translanguaging pedagogy this way helped guide her through the process of discovery, by using her L1 to inform her L2 and by placing her in charge of her progress.
Subsequently, by checking for understanding in English, I modeled its use and encouraged her to produce an answer in the target language.

I wrote the science teacher's instructions clearly and slowly, while the student followed along with her eyes. I also circled the cognates that I recognized as I wrote, without giving any explanation as to why I did it. It gave her time to process what it was I was writing. I gauged her understanding by watching her facial expressions and body language as she followed along with her eyes. Circling the cognates was a way to give her subtle hints about the similarities between the two languages and help her continue thinking bilingually. I did not have to explain why I was doing it because her understanding became evident once she recognized the cognates in both languages and applied them to the context of what I was writing. Often times, when she would ask me to translate an English word I had written down into Spanish, the definition was easily conveyed by simply pointing to one of the circled cognates and its context.

Lines 8-10 show that the translanguaging pedagogy I used consisted of me writing the instructions in English, circling recognizable cognates as I wrote, the student asking me in Spanish what certain words or phrases meant when she came across something she could not decipher, and my answering her by writing the word again (in Spanish), while checking for comprehension orally in English. She would then respond in English that she understood. If pointing to the cognate and its context did not clarify the definition of an English word for her, I would translate it into Spanish for her, writing it above its English version to create a visual connection between the two words. I would do this while asking her if she understood, in English. She consistently responded with "Yes" in English. The following excerpt from my field notes discusses how the translanguaging pedagogy of modeling and using the L 1 to inform the L2 applies to this language moment.

Excerpt from Field Notes collected on 12-12-16:
1-Factors such as my own experiences with translanguaging as a bilingual and trilingual,
2-and my witness to how translanguaging can lower anxiety for bilinguals, impacts my
3-attitude towards translanguaging being a useful language acquisition strategy.
4-These notes reflect how successful I felt the session was, and how modeling
5-translanguaging this way is an effective language acquisition strategy. They also

6-highlight the notion that translanguaging lowers anxiety for emerging bilinguals. 7-It appears, through my research, that translanguaging is also a very natural process for 8 -emerging bilinguals. Bilinguals are often already doing some form of translanguaging 9-before entering the classroom. In [S]'s situation, she had been translanguaging ever 10 -since she started thinking in both languages at school, and probably at home as well.

11-Once I modeled how to translanguage verbally, she was able to do it on her own 12 -without any more assistance or guidance.

The process appeared natural and smooth for both of us, which probably stems from my proficiency in Spanish, and her being on grade level in her L1 (Spanish) as well. My proficiency in Spanish helped me connect with her more quickly, building up a foundation from which we were able to grow together. She would correct my Spanish periodically when I came across a scientific word/concept or a technical math term that was difficult to translate or interpret correctly. Similarly, I would encourage her to translanguage by modeling the process and by encouraging her to think in her L1 before producing language in her L2. I would model what intentional code-switching looked and sounded like, encouraging her to try it out on paper and orally. She appeared more comfortable producing bilingual written work than speaking in English. Following the language acquisition continuum, it makes sense that speaking is the next to last language domain to develop after listening, and reading, and before writing. It was not until I modeled a conversation with her language arts teacher where I pretended to be an emerging bilingual Spanish-English student like herself that she attempted it on her own.

The following excerpt from my field note reflects my thinking around modeling and its utility in the bilingual classroom.

Excerpt from Field Notes collected on 12-12-16:
1-I encourage translanguaging by modeling it in speech, and in writing. . . demonstrating
2-its utility-both in the classroom and socially. With middle school kids, it works well
3-to model it first.
On lines 11-12 of the previous Field Note excerpt, I note that I include some reflection on the session that demonstrates that I was pleased with the outcome and would use this tactic again with other ELL students.

As a teacher, I found that my own experiences learning languages over the years has greatly impacted how I teach language. I tend to use methods that empower students, place them
in control of their rate of acquisition, lower anxiety, and feel natural. I modeled intentional code-switching for this student, demonstrating how translanguaging pedagogy can help her $L 1$ inform her $L 2$, and vice versa. I also used translanguaging pedagogy to lower her anxiety and identify and use similarities between her two languages. Our sessions helped me understand translanguaging pedagogy better, and differentiate between strictly code-switching and intentional translanguaging.

### 4.1.3 Language Moment 3: Peppers/Ants

This next language moment comes from a pull-out session with a third grade student. The student came to the U.S. in October of 2016 as a monolingual Vietnamese speaker. When he arrived in Alaska, he was faced with culture shock. He had to learn a new language, new foods, new climate, a new school system, etc. As his ELL teacher, I spent a great deal of time working with his teachers on providing him with a translation program and device, modeling ELA strategies, providing his teachers with resources to share with his parents, and facilitating effective communication between the student and his teachers.

For this session, I had been working with the student on some flashcards, writing down sight words he had been working on in class with his regular education teacher. Using a translation program, he had been translating the English sight words into Vietnamese and writing them down on the card next to their English equivalents. For this session, I focused primarily on the English alphabet letters and sounds. As a teacher, I felt it was important that he understand both the letter sounds, and the letter names in order to facilitate learning to read in English. The student had acquired quite a few English vocabulary words by this point so I asked him to give me a word that started with the letter on the card. I allowed him to provide the word in English or in Vietnamese. This session illuminates a language moment taken from my field notes on that day.

Excerpt from Field Notes collected on 12-20-16:
1-Most of the words he knew started with the letter while one word had the letter in the
2-middle. He knew how to spell some of them, but needed help spelling most of them.
3-He came up with these words in English for the corresponding letters: snake, sit, sing, 4-six, girl, gum, purple, apple, ate, ice cream, Jaci, jog. I asked him to show me

5-"jog" and "Jaci" and he ran around the room and then pointed to me. He then said, 6-"Bring laptop show you pepper Vietnam." I said, "Sure!" I took him to my computer

7 -and put in hot peppers and he laughed at the pictures and said, "Vietnam hot peppers!" 8-I said, "Yes! I like hot peppers. Do you like hot peppers?" He said, "Yes!" I said, 9-"Show me hot", and he waived his tongue and made an unpleasant face. I said, 10-"Good!" I then pulled out the IDEA Picture Dictionary and looked up the letters 11-he studied and showed him some more English words that use those letters. The 12-dictionary has great pictures and several languages for each word, including 13-Vietnamese! He pointed to "ant" and read the Vietnamese word for "ant" and then 14-said, "(Vietnamese word for 'ant') me arm! Red, orange, yellow Vietnam!" I said, 15-"Ouch!" What did [S] do? He then stood up and showed me how he pulled the ant 16-off his arm and stomped on him! He then said, "No die!" I said, "Wow!" I said, 17-"Time to go", and he said, "No." WOW!

On line 1, I discuss that most of the words he was able to come up with in English were words that began with the letter we focused on. For example, if we were studying the letter "S," he was able to come up with words that began with the letter " $S$ " in English. Only one of the words he came up with had the letter sound in the middle of the word. When we studied a letter, we studied the sound(s) the letter makes, and how to write it in the context of a word on an index card. I gave him the option of providing Vietnamese words as well.

On line 2, I stated that he knew how to spell most of the words he offered in English; however, he needed help spelling a few of them. On lines 3-4, I shared the words that the student came up with in English when prompted with a letter we had been studying together. For example, when prompted with the letter "S," he came up with the words "snake," "sit," "sing," and "six." When prompted with the letter "G," he came up with the words, "girl," and "gum." When prompted with the letter "P," he came up with the words "purple," and "pepper." For the letter "A," he came up with the words "apple," and "ate," and for the letter "J," he came up with the words "Jaci" and "jog."

The first critical incident occurred on lines $4-5$ when I state that I asked him to show me "jog," and "Jaci". I noted that the student ran around the room, and then pointed to me. While I had used this strategy before with ELL students, it was usually within the context of working with ELLs with whom I shared their first language. With my Spanish-English emerging bilingual learners, I checked for comprehension by asking them to "mostrame" (show me) their understanding of the new English word and/or concept. They would often draw me a picture, or
act out the word or verb to demonstrate comprehension of the English word. They did this in both English and Spanish, often translanguaging between the two. With this student, I did not share his first language; therefore, I thought I needed to check for comprehension differently in the event that he translanguaged to Vietnamese and I would not be able to understand him. When I asked him to "show me jog and Jaci," I was not sure how it would turn out. I hoped he would understand what I was asking. I had the translation program up and ready in case I needed to use it to translate my instructions; however, he knew exactly what to do. He stood up and started running around the room and then stopped and pointed to me. I had not modeled what to do when I asked him to show me "jog" and "Jaci," so he was able to determine what he needed to do on his own. Perhaps having the laptop available helped him realize that if he had gotten it wrong, he still had the option of figuring out what I had asked him to do using the translation program. The same thought crossed my mind when I asked him to show me his comprehension of the English words. If he did not understand what I wanted him to do, I would be able to use the translation program as a back up. I realized that this is probably how his regular education teacher and specials teachers felt all the time. I imagine they tried conversing with him in English, using gestures first, and then relied on the translation program as back up.

It appeared that because of the success the student experienced demonstrating his comprehension of the words "jog" and "Jaci," on lines 4-5, he asked me to use the laptop to enter the word "peppers." It appeared that he was interested in sharing more about his knowledge of the vocabulary words he had come up with for the different English alphabet letters. I determined that he wanted to have a conversation with me beyond the lesson, sharing information about himself and his culture. Because I wanted to cultivate his willingness to converse with me in English and share his culture, I indulged him by diverting from the lesson.

On lines 5-6, I noted that he asked me to bring my laptop over to our table where we were working because he wanted to show me pictures of hot peppers in Vietnam. I agreed on line 6 and, on line 7, took him over to my laptop and entered "hot peppers" into the search engine. He laughed at the pictures that came up on the screen and said, "Vietnam hot peppers!" The second critical incident occurred when I walked the student over to my desk and sat his chair next to my laptop as I typed "hot peppers" into the search engine. When the pictures came up, we began to scroll through them, one by one. He laughed aloud and said, "Vietnam hot peppers!" I then told him that I like hot peppers and asked him if he did as well. He answered
affirmatively and we smiled at one another, finding common ground on a more personal level. Up until this point, I had been struggling with him in terms of developing a good relationship. Aside from him struggling with culture shock, and dealing with the challenges of complete language immersion, he had not seemed willing to share much about himself or his culture. From my perspective, allowing him to expound upon something from his culture that he liked and wanted to share with me created space for him to view me as someone who cares not only about his language acquisition, but also about his happiness and health as a person.

Allowing him to translanguage to Vietnamese when he needed it, being willing to diverge from the lesson, being patient as he attempted conversation in English, and respecting what he shared with me from his culture-all seemed to help bridge the gap between us. When I, then, asked him to "show me hot," he demonstrated that he knew what to do and waived his hand over his tongue and made an unpleasant face to demonstrate that although he liked hot peppers, the sting of the heat defined the word "hot," As his teacher, this demonstrated to me that I had successfully checked for understanding of the new vocabulary, regardless of the fact that I did not share his L1.

On line 8 , I reported that I told him that I liked hot peppers and asked him if he liked hot peppers. He answered affirmatively on line 8 . I then asked him, on line 9, to "show me hot," indicating that I wanted him to demonstrate his understanding by acting out the word "hot." He then waived his hand over his tongue and made an unpleasant face. This is also where I began to feel like the translanguaging pedagogy I was utilizing with him helped us form a bond. The following journal entry offers support.

Excerpt from my reflexive journaling, noted on 12-20-16:
1-Today was a great session with [S]! I really feel like we are beginning to bond. He
2-didn't even want to leave our session today which is a HUGE improvement from the
3-beginning of the year when he didn't want to even come with me to the classroom or
4-would break down and cry during our session and/or scream and hit or throw things! It
5-is amazing how utilizing TL as a communication tool has impacted our ability to
6-communicate!
On line 10 of the Field Notes Excerpt, I state that I told him, "Good!" and then pulled out a resource called the IDEA Picture Dictionary. The third critical incident occurred when I decided to expand upon the lesson further and solidify what we had been learning by
introducing a third resource. By showing him the IDEA Picture Dictionary, I introduced a variety of other English words that also started with the letters we had been studying. The words were accompanied by pictures, and a series of translations for those words in other languages. When we opened the book to the "A" page, he immediately focused in on the word "ant." It was not one of the words that he had come up with on his own in English when writing down "A words" on the index cards; however, when he saw the Vietnamese word "kiên" alongside the picture of an ant, it appeared that he immediately recalled an impactful incident in his life with an ant. By encouraging him to translanguage to Vietnamese, I was able to help him access his prior knowledge around the new content, providing a level of understanding that was likely absent without access to his first language. Without my prompting, he then stood up and acted out how he had pulled an ant off his arm in Vietnam, thrown it to the ground, and attempted to kill it by stomping on it. He did this while telling me that there are ants of all colors in Vietnam, including red, orange, and yellow. By encouraging him to translanguage to Vietnamese, and by introducing the IDEA Picture Dictionary resource, it appeared that he was able to access his prior knowledge, and produce more complex speech in the target

## language.

On line 11 I stated that I looked up the letters we had been studying and showed him some more English words that use those same letters. For example, for the letter "A," I opened up the dictionary to the page with the letter "A" and began reading all of the various English words on the subsequent pages that began with the letter "A." On line 12, we see that the dictionary had great pictures and several translations for the English words, including Vietnamese translations.

On lines $13-14$, I stated that the student pointed to the word "ant" on the page in the dictionary under the letter "A." He found the Vietnamese translation for "ant" listed under the English word and read it aloud. He followed it up with an English explanation of something that had happened to him in Vietnam with ants. He said, "kiên me arm! Red, orange, yellow Vietnam!" I responded with "Ouch!" on line 15. On lines 15-16, I state that he then stood up and showed me how he pulled the ant off his arm and stomped on him. He was showing me how he removed the ant when he found it on his arm in Vietnam, trying to kill it by stomping on it after pulling it off his arm. On line 16, I report that he says that the ant did not die.

On line 16 I noted that I responded to him with "WOW!" and on line 17, I shared how our session ended, with me saying it was time to go and him expressing that he did not want to leave. On line 17, I wrote, "WOW!" to myself in my field notes to express what a great session it was and how surprised I was that he did not want to leave our session. The following field note entry notes how I felt about the session as a whole.

Excerpt from Field Notes collected on 12-20-16:
1-With [S] today, I used TL to make the connections between the alphabet sounds and 2-the alphabet names and to show how they are used in writing and in speech in words. I
3-used TL as a tool to demonstrate that we can create meaning using our collective
4-knowledge bases around language, and pull on our other languages to inform each
5-other. [S] used the computer to TL to show me how he likes peppers and to find out if 6-I like hot peppers like him. He also used TL to show me how he has been personally
7-impacted by biting ants in Vietnam. I was able to communicate with him because of
8 -his TL and my TL. He also code-switched into Vietnamese when he used the word for
9 -ant during his story to create personal connection and location, imagery, etc.
Through working with the student, I learned that giving him the space he needed to show me his comprehension, and providing him with the translation program as back-up, allowed for more complex language production in English. I learned that translanguaging is also effective when the teacher does not share the L1 with the ELL. My reflexive journaling about this session also demonstrates my thought process around how these critical incidents, embedded into the language moment, invoke discussion on the effectiveness of translanguaging, and inspire reflection on my teaching.

Excerpt from my reflexive journaling, noted on 12-20-16:
1-When I allow [S] to TL and I use TL, we both create more meaningful language and
2-are able to communicate-not just during the lesson, but also on a more personal level.
3-He shared how he was bit by an ant in Vietnam and how Vietnam has many hot
4-peppers to eat! I enjoyed using TL as an intentional language tool, by encouraging
5-code-switching, paralinguistic gestures, and concept-hopping. Even though those
6-features were utilized during the lesson and conversation, they melded into one and
7-became one tool called translanguaging.

These field notes and journal entries reflect both my understanding of translanguaging at the time, and how it was applicable in the classroom. It also reflects a change in how I view translanguaging. This session with the student included a language moment with three imbedded critical incidents. Those critical incidents changed the trajectory of the session, causing space for discovery around my translanguaging pedagogy. I now view translanguaging as an effective tool, regardless of whether or not I share the student's L1.
4.1.4 Language Moment 4: Lunch Time

This next language moment took place on January 10, 2017, with the same student. At the request of his regular education teacher, we focused this session on learning vocabulary specific to lunch time, lunch foods, and school lunch procedures. Using the English in Everyday Life workbook, I pointed to the questions about lunch foods and procedures, while asking them aloud in English. I wrote down his answers, verbatim, on paper as he replied. I then corrected his sentences orally and asked him to repeat them in English. Periodically, he would ask me to point to pictures of the foods he recognized and provide English names for them, which I did. We researched the Vietnamese word for "lunch" on the translation device and, at the end of the session, he wrote both the English and Vietnamese versions of the word on the multilingual word wall in the classroom where I encouraged students to add multilingual words they learned. The following language moment occurred during an impromptu conversation between the student and me during the lesson. It demonstrates two critical incidents that changed the trajectory of the lesson.

Excerpt from Field Notes collected on 1-10-17:
1-Me: What time do you eat lunch?
2-Student: I don't know.
3-Me: (Pointing to the clock, and to the words "time", and "clock" in
4-Vietnamese)...
5-What time does [S] (pointing to him) eat lunch?
6-Student: 12.
7-Me: Say, I eat lunch at 12 o'clock.
8-Student: I eat lunch at 12 o'clock.
9-Me: Good! What do you usually eat for lunch?
10-Student: Chicken, hamburger, hot dog.

11-Me: Say, I usually eat chicken, hamburgers, or hot dogs for lunch.
12-Student: I eat chicken, hamburgers, or hot dog for lunch.
13-Me: Good! Show me hot dog in Vietnamese.
14-[S] shows me the word and notices that the word includes the English word 15-parts and laughs.
$16-\mathrm{He}$ then asked to work on the vocabulary card translations so I gave him my
17-laptop and pulled up the translation program where he typed in math terms and 18-wrote down the Vietnamese translations on the card, and then repeated the words 19-in both languages.
20-I also repeated the words to the best of my ability and he corrected my
21-Vietnamese pronunciations.
On line 1, we see that the language moment began with a divergence from the lesson. Although we had been studying food names and school lunch procedures, it appeared that the student had begun to lose interest in the repetitive nature of the lesson, so I decided to apply the lesson to his own experiences and asked him what time he normally eats lunch. My question also acted as a way to move his impatience away from causing a behavior management problem in class by directing the focus onto him. On line 2 he answers me impatiently with "I don't know." I followed up his response on lines 3-5 with the same question, adding some hand gestures and encouraging him to reference two key words ("time" and "clock") in his first language by pointing to their Vietnamese translations on the laptop. I also pointed to him so he knew that we were still focusing on him. This is the first critical incident. Because he had appeared to express impatience with the lesson, I felt it was necessary to make the lesson more personal and applicable to his life. By pointing to the words in his L1, I encouraged him to access his prior knowledge, which likely helped him make connections with the new content and produce a higher level of thinking, and, consequently, more proficient speech in the target language. Making the application of the lesson more personal appeared to deter him from dismissing it a second time. Because we had already referenced the Vietnamese word for "lunch" prior to this conversation, he was able to apply the meanings for "time" and "clock" to "lunch." Additionally, it appeared that, along with me pointing to him, he was able to answer (in English) with the correct time that he normally eats lunch at school.

Once I had his attention again, it appeared that he was more receptive to guidance. On line 7 , I instructed him on how to correctly state that he eats lunch at 12 o'clock. On line 8 , he was happy to oblige me and repeated the statement correctly. Since it was going well, I proceeded by asking him what he usually eats for lunch, on line 9 . He answered me, on line 10 , with a list of things he generally eats at school. On line 11, I corrected his statement, and on line 12 , he shortened the statement, omitting the word "usually." He also left "hotdog" as a singular item versus stating it in the plural sense. I believe he did this because I gave him too much to remember when I provided the corrected phrase. Considering the length of the sentence, and the fact that we had not studied the meaning of words such as "usually," he did well conveying his message. I had also neglected to offer the translation program to him while I corrected his statements. If I were to do the lesson over, I would encourage him to use the translation program to look up any English words he did not understand before repeating the corrected phrases.

On line 13 , after affirming the student's success at repeating the corrected phrase, I asked him to "show me hotdog in Vietnamese." By asking him to show me the meaning of hotdog in Vietnamese, he had to access his first language. I felt I needed to check his comprehension of the meaning of the word "hotdog" because he was able to point to the pictures for "chicken" and "hamburger" in the workbook but had difficulty finding the picture for "hotdog." I found this interesting because he was the one who offered "hotdog" as one of the foods he regularly eats for lunch at school. Perhaps, he did this because it was a word he memorized through hearing it mentioned on the lunch menu via the school intercom, hearing it from his peers, and/or hearing it from his teacher in class. Regardless of the reason, he did appear to recognize it by name; therefore, I wanted him to look it up in his first language and demonstrate his understanding to me.

On lines 14-15, the student showed me the word for "hotdog" in Vietnamese, using the translation program on the laptop, and then laughed, appearing to notice that the word was a compound word that consisted of two English words "hot" and "dog." He also appeared to notice that sometimes the entire English word "hotdog" is used in Vietnamese sentences. I imagine this is because it was introduced to the Vietnamese culture later on. It was not until he accessed his L1 that it appeared that he made that connection. Because I do not speak Vietnamese, I was unable to determine how the connection was made; however, since my goal, as his teacher, was
to check for understanding, I was comfortable knowing that he used translanguaging to achieve comprehension in the target language.

On lines 16-19, we see that he appears to demonstrate impatience again by asking to work on his math vocabulary cards. From my perspective, because of the success he had demonstrated in understanding the lesson around lunch words and school lunch procedures, I allowed him some time to work on his math cards. Allowing my students time to decompress and work on things that are more mundane and repetitious can be therapeutic for them, especially if they feel stressed out from a rigorous lesson. The student had been creating a set of index cards with math terms and functions in both English and Vietnamese. I asked him to continue working on the cards, pronouncing both translations aloud after writing each one down on the cards, which he happily did

The second critical incident occurred on lines 20-21 when I decided to repeat the Vietnamese words aloud, following his guidance and corrections on their proper pronunciation in Vietnamese. Because the day's lesson included moments that required him to do the same thing in English (on lines 7 and 11), it provided him with an opportunity to return the favor. It also placed him in the position of expert where he corrected my tonal pronunciation of Vietnamese words. I believe that most teachers fear that this type of role reversal because it disrupts the hierarchy in the classroom. I feel that it demonstrates that the teacher is willing to feel vulnerable, and it builds empathy for his/her students and what they go through while learning language. The student did not seem to take advantage of the moment by abusing his new sense of power. Conversely, he appeared to treat it with great respect and gently corrected me, encouraging me in the same way I had encouraged him. Having modeled the process with him previously helped him follow a constructive format, suggesting that most ELLs do not want to be treated as deficient learners, but rather, as highly-functioning learners that bring a great deal of prior knowledge to the classroom. As his teacher, I was eager to demonstrate that I , too, am willing to learn and receive guidance. I feel like this strengthened our teacher-student relationship, conveyed empathy for the language acquisition process, and communicated respect and validity of my student's L1. The following excerpt discusses these observations.

Excerpt from Field Notes collected on 1-10-17:
1-With [S], I encouraged him to use the laptop translation program and the dictionary

2-and the word wall to demonstrate his emerging bilingualism so he can start to build 3-pride and see the utility of translanguaging in creating meaning. He noticed it 4-when he noticed the English word incorporated into the Vietnamese word for 5-hotdog. He is also interested in having good English pronunciation so he welcomes 6-corrections and tries to emulate the words in English.
This language moment and critical incidents helped inform my translanguaging pedagogy and the level of expectations I have for my ELLs in the classroom. Through analysis, my current view on translanguaging is that it can be used by teachers to act as a behavior management tool, and to check for understanding. Using translanguaging pedagogy can also position the learner as the expert, help strengthen teacher and student relationships, and increase student participation in the classroom. As my journal entry states,

Excerpt from a Reflexive Journal entry on 1-10-17:
1-My attitude towards TL has changed in the sense that I realize now that TL is an 2 -intentional process-where parts of TL are tools that contribute to the process as a 3 -whole.
4.1.5 Language Moment 5: Attic

This session took place as a pull-out session with four third grade students. I normally pulled three of the third grade ELL students weekly for half an hour to work on vocabulary and concepts their teacher felt they needed assistance understanding better. On this particular day, a certain student (whom I had been pulling out of class and working with individually) asked to join our group. The normal group of three consisted of a student who was exposed to Hmong and English at home, a student who was exposed to Samoan and English at home, and a student who was exposed to Inupiaq (an Indigenous language in the northern parts of Alaska) and English at home.

All three of the students were primarily English speakers, with exposure to home languages that impacted their proficiency in English. They had all been identified as ELLs through the WIDA MODEL test before I began working with them. They had not tested out of the ELL program by the time I began working with them. The WIDA ACCESS testing is conducted annually and provides information about where the students are excelling and where they still need work in term of acquiring the English language. The fact that they had different languages did not appear to be a problem. I knew the English language acquisition strategies I
use with my students apply to all emerging bilinguals, regardless of language origin. It did help that the students were all third grade students, however, which meant I could use materials and manipulatives that were age-appropriate, without having to modify for age and grade variations. The students also varied in their level of English proficiency, which did not prove to be a challenge since I encouraged them to use translation devices and other resources to reference their L1, while participating in the lesson. They were also encouraged to use one another as a resource, discussing definitions and asking questions to help them formulate their own understanding.

During our sessions together, I primarily focused on helping them develop the more difficult concepts and vocabulary that they struggled with in language arts. The following is an excerpt from my field notes in reference to this particular session in January.

Excerpt from Field Notes collected on 1-31-17:
1-For the session with [S1] and [S2] today, I added [S3], and [S4] asked to
2-join us! I used the flashcards from [Mrs.] and had each student use a Boogie Board 3-I held up the card and asked for them to say the word and tell me what it meant. If 4-they didn't know, then I gave them the definition by way of using it in a sentence. I 5-checked for comprehension by asking for the definition after using it in a sentence. 6-They were allowed to ask each other, and [S4] was allowed to use the translation
7-program on the laptop. I then had them draw a picture on the Boogie Boards of
8 -what the word meant to them. The words "fossil", "attic", and "real" evoked the most 9-interesting responses. [S1] drew a picture of a "death bed" and wrote, "Real: when 10-grandma passes away." WOW! For "fossil", [S3] and [S4] drew dinosaurs, and 11-[S1\&S2] drew mummies. For the word "attic", [S4] drew a chicken house. I think 12-the Vietnamese translation might have said small house or small portion of a 13-house... not sure. We then spelled the words and practiced writing the words on the 14-Boogie Boards."
On line 1, I begin by explaining that normally I worked with two of the students at that particular time of day. Since another one of the students began attending school regularly after winter break, his addition to my group was somewhat new. Furthermore, on this particular day, another student also asked to join us, which was great since I had been working with him individually up until this point. When the student asked to join our group, he could have been
asking because he wanted to leave the classroom, because he wanted to see what we were going to do, because he wanted to be with his peers in the group, or because he enjoyed learning English. Whatever the reason was, it was the first time he expressed desire, without prompting, to be pulled out of class for an English language lesson. That, in itself, was encouraging to me as his teacher. From my perspective, it suggested that he was beginning to enjoy the process and was interested in learning more. With his addition to the group, I had four ELL students, all with very different first languages.

Their regular third grade teacher and I worked together to identify vocabulary and/or concepts in the English language that these students might have difficulty understanding. I then pulled the students to my classroom and worked with them on developing an understanding of those words/concepts so that they could participate more fully with their classmates in class. For this lesson, the difficult words were identified by their regular teacher through periodic comprehension checks with her class, as they read a story together during language arts time. She had written the words down on flashcards and given them to me to work with the ELL students on developing a better understanding. Once I read the cards, I realized immediately that the words were words that had multiple meanings, and/or were words that described culturespecific concepts. This is the critical moment when I decided to introduce the Boogie Boards into the lesson. I wanted to approach each word/concept from multiple angles, allowing the students to not only read and hear various definitions, but also visually identify them. I determined that those visual images needed to come from themselves, and from their peers in order to be applicable to their lives. Drawing (and other art forms) is a great way to solidify and demonstrate an understanding of a word or concept among elementary aged children because it is something children are comfortable doing, starting at a very young age. It is also a great way for ELLs to express themselves when they feel they lack the necessary vocabulary.

On line 2, I explained that the teacher had given me a set of flashcards with vocabulary words on them that she felt the ELLs needed help understanding. The words were from a story they were reading during language arts time. I decided to include the use of Boogie Boards into our session. Boogie Boards are small tablets that allow the students to write and draw on them with a stylus, and then push a button to erase their work, providing them with a clean slate to begin again. They are interactive tablets that function as dry-erase boards, with the eraser being imbedded into the tablet and the stylus replacing dry-erase markers.

The first critical incident occurred when I allowed the use of the Boogie Boards, dictionaries, and translation program. On lines 3-4, I noted that I began the session by holding up the vocabulary word in question and asked them to read the word aloud and describe its definition. On lines 4-5, I then used the word in a sentence. On lines 6-7, I encouraged the students to ask one another questions about the meaning of the word or to expound upon their definitions. The students were allowed to use the translation program on the computer or dictionaries in their home languages and English.

The second critical incident occurred when I encouraged the students to discuss the meaning of the words with one another. When I held up the cards and asked the students to read the word aloud, I was assessing their knowledge. Without singling anyone out in particular who may not have known the meaning, I then provided them with two sentences that used the word in a way that described its meaning. For the word "attic," I said, "The woman asked her daughter to clean up her room and place the toys she doesn't play with anymore in the attic, at the top of the stairs, for storage." When I provided the students with that sentence, most of them nodded and began talking with one another about how their mothers also tell them to clean their rooms. It appeared that they were sharing prior knowledge and connecting with one another. One student, however, remained silent, and another looked solemn. It was at that moment that I realized I had provided them with a contextual situation that was also culture-specific, and, possibly, insensitive. I also encouraged the other students to use the dictionary resources as reference while they talked among themselves. Because I sensed that the Vietnamese student needed to access his L1 to make sense of the word and the sentence I provided, I encouraged translanguaging by prompting him to use the translation program on the laptop. I did the same for the female Samoan student who appeared to be saddened by my example. Her display of emotion triggered my empathic response, causing me to encourage the students to communicate with one another about the example and how it might apply to their own lives. Perhaps I should have let them come up with the contextual example as well. Regardless, I hoped that translanguaging would help bridge the evident gaps in comprehension and applicability.

On lines 7-8, I stated that I prompted the ELL students to draw a picture on the Boogie Boards of what the word meant to them. It did not have to be a picture of the word or its definition. They just needed to produce a picture of what it meant to them. I also reminded them to begin formulating in their minds how they would share their drawing with the group. I was
specific in stating that they did not need to draw a picture of the word or of its definition. They just needed to produce a picture of what it meant to them. My hope was that they would initially be able to convey understanding, without using words, and then verbally describe their drawing to us. The verbal description would then produce language that they could use, through association, with the definition of the word in the future. From my perspective, this tactic gives students like the one student an opportunity to express himself without producing language right away. It also gave students like the other student an opportunity to address a sad memory associated with that word and express her feelings through a less vulnerable medium.

On line 8, I noted that the words "fossil," "attic," and "real" evoked the most interesting responses in terms of student drawings and comments. On line 9, I state that one student drew a picture of her grandmother on her death bed, with her arms crossed and X's over her eyes. She also wrote the following under her picture, "Real: when your grandma passes away." I wrote "WOW!" in my field note because of the level of emotion that her response evoked in me, and in her classmates. Her mother had died, and she was being raised by her father, older sibling, and her paternal grandmother. When I provided her with the sentence, she showed sadness at the idea of a child being directed by his/her mother. More than likely, it brought up sad memories for her. Allowing her to talk among her peers, and reference a Samoan-English dictionary appeared to help her process her feelings and categorize them in a way that allowed her to focus on the lesson again. It appeared that the she needed to express sadness about a terrible event that happened in her life. When she drew a picture of her grandmother on her death bed, she likely used the word "real" to describe the stark reality that death brings to the living. She had already experienced her mother dying, so she was probably very familiar with the experience as an intense, "real" feeling. Sensing her sadness prompted me to provide an alternative medium for expression and access to her L 1 , in hopes of facilitating space for her to create meaning around the current topic, and comfort her as she navigated different feelings about the words/concepts.

On line 11 , I noted that one student drew a small house with chickens around it for the word "attic." For the Vietnamese student, the idea of a storage room just for toys, or a room at the top of a set of stairs inside a home appeared so foreign to him that he remained quiet until he was able to access his L1 and make comparisons between the translations and the in-class conversations. While he remained quiet during the initial part of the lesson, he began
participating and sharing his drawing as soon as he looked up the word "attic" in Vietnamese, using the translation program. His drawing of a small house with chickens around it indicated that the translation probably gave him a definition that likened an "attic" to a small house or portion of a house. In his culture, most houses do not have attics; however, they do have chicken coops that look like small houses. Therefore, it appeared that his interpretation of "attic" was a small house for chickens. His drawing demonstrated his level of understanding. When he described it in English to the group, he said that the chickens live in the attic. This prompted the other students to ask a series of questions about how and why chickens would live in an attic. I saw this as a teaching moment and facilitated a discussion about cultural sensitivity and why and how some words do not "translate" across languages and cultures.

After our discussion, he laughed and agreed that chickens probably do not live in the attic and stated that maybe the girl or boy from my sentence should put toy chickens in the attic instead. This made me laugh aloud since I realized the level of translanguaging necessary for him to make those connections. From my perspective, he had used his teacher's word "attic," and my contextual sentence, to research information from his L1. It appeared that by accessing his L1, he also accessed prior knowledge around the subject, and produced a drawing that depicted his level of understanding. Afterwards, further discussion with myself and his peers about the chicken house appeared to help him refine his level of understanding to include pieces from both languages. He also added humor in the target language. From my view, the encouragement to translanguage prompted him to think critically during the acquisition of new vocabulary words and concepts. In doing so, I was able to demonstrate to him, and to the other students, how prior

## knowledge in his L1 informed language acquisition in his L2.

On lines $13-14$, I stated that I ended my field note with an explanation of how we finished our session. We practiced spelling the words aloud as we wrote them on the Boogie Boards. I did this alongside my students, modeling how to pronounce and write the English letters. The students copied me as I modeled the behavior I expected from my students on the Boogie Boards. The session ended with each person sharing what they learned and how they thought they would be able to use the new words in their classroom and/or lives outside of school. It seemed that each student left with a better, more detailed, understanding of the vocabulary words and concepts, than they had when they encountered them for the first time in their language arts class.

These student reactions prompted me to analyze how I use translanguaging pedagogy in the classroom and how I can be more empathetic and culturally sensitive in my teaching. The drawings the students produced were very insightful and taught me a lot about how they see the world. The following field note entry notes my reaction to this lesson and how it impacted my use of translanguaging pedagogy.

Excerpt from Field Notes collected on 1-31-17:
1-I encouraged translanguaging today for [S] to participate in the lesson alongside his 2-peers. He was able to use the translation program to understand the word meanings

3 -and then make his drawing. He was able to access other uses of the words from his
4-culture such as with the chicken house for "attic". Without TL, he would not have been
5-able to participate on the same level, or access prior knowledge from his culture. His
6-participation enriched the group discussion.
As an ELL teacher, knowing that the decisions I make impact the level of language acquisition for my students, greatly affects how I teach. The following journal entry shows the critical thinking I engaged in while reflecting on the language moment.

Excerpt from my Reflexive Journal on 1-31-17:
1-Today was really interesting with the "attic" and "real" flashcard exercise. It feels like 2-it was the first time since I started letting [S] use the translation program- that the

3-ELLs also benefitted from his translanguaging. When the program translated "attic" 4-into "little house" in Vietnamese, he conceptually came up with "chicken house/coop" 5-for little house. We were able to then share that in our country, an attic is usually the 6 -small part of the upper part of a house for humans. The other students really got a kick

7-out of his use of the word and he liked being able to share something from his culture
8-It really helps that he is able to read and write in his language. I am not sure how I
9-would use the translation program with a totally monolingual speaker who could not 10 -read or write in their native language. I imagine I would be using a lot more TPR and 11-pictures.

This journal entry highlights my concern over how translanguaging might look different for students with different levels of proficiency in their L1 and how that might impact learning a second language. As a result of this language moment, my view of translanguaging has evolved. The data suggest that translanguaging is effective regardless of the student's
proficiency level in their second language. However, it also suggests that it might look differently for students whose proficiency levels in their first language is developmentally below grade level. Similarly, analysis of the data suggest that encouraging translanguaging increases student participation in class, helps make content applicable to learners, and helps build word association between languages for future use by ELLs. It also suggests that translanguaging is versatile and varies, depending on the learner and his/her needs.

Watching the process that the students went through greatly impacted my view towards translanguaging in the classroom. While I had always encouraged it among my ELLs, watching how different students utilize it in their own ways, opened my eyes to the versatility of the process. It also highlights how the "dance" between the languages can be showcased through several mediums to include speech, art, gestures, etc. The data from this session suggests that encouraging the use of all languages brings out student personalities and creates space for creating meaning. It also provides comfort for ELL students throughout the translanguaging process as different feelings associated with the new words/concepts surface.

### 4.1.6 Language Moment 6: Video Games

This session occurred with a Vietnamese $3^{\text {rd }}$ grade student. I introduced him to the website www.interactivesites.weebly.com, which is an interactive site that uses games to teach subjects such as English, Math, Spanish, Science, and Social Studies. Knowing that he likes to play video games, I introduced the website to reinforce some of the concepts I had already taught. I offered him extra practice in the subjects through a medium that was fun and something he was used to doing at home. The following two excerpts are from an audio file recording in March.

Excerpt 1 from an Audio File collected on 3-7-17: (translation program was available)
1-Me: Animals, colors... That looks fun.
2-Student: Yup.
3-Computer: Drag each object into the box of the same color. If you get it wrong
4 -it will bounce out of the box. If you get it right, it will stay in the box.
5-Me: Okay, tell me what you have to do before you start. What do you have to do?
6-Computer: Jack-o-lantern.
7-Me: What do you have to do?
8-Student: Get the color?

9-Me: And put it where?
10-Student: On the, on the color down.
$11-\mathrm{Me}:$ In the colored box? Yes. So this goes in orange, right?
12-Student: This is a pumpkin.
13-Me: Pumpkin. Tell me what they are.

Excerpt 2 from an Audio File collected on 3-7-17:
1-Me: Did you learn a new word for animal?
2-Student: Yeah, with the A-B-C.
3-Me: Yeah. What was your new word?
4-Student: Hmmm.
5-Me: Do you remember what that big animal is in the ocean? In the water?
6-Student: Eh...Elephant?
7-Me: Water. I mean, uh, whale.
8-Student: Whale.
9-Me: Whale. Excellent. Good job [S]. You can head back to class.
10-Student: I wanna go scare animals. Does it stay open?
$11-\mathrm{Me}: Y o u$ can go to class.
12-Student: Animals, find animals.
13-Me: Mmhmm (affirmative). Time for you to go, buddy.
14-Student: Okay.
$15-\mathrm{Me}$ : Okay. Bye.
From Excerpt 1, line 1, I noted that I suggested a game that teaches animal names and colors, and on line 2 , the student agreed. On line 3 , the computer gives the directions to drag each object into the box of the same color. It also explains that if the student gets it wrong, it will bounce out of the box, and if the student gets it right, it will stay in the box. The website gave us the option of several games to play, per subject, so I prompted the student to choose the English subject so that we could practice some concepts I had previously taught in his L2. Within the English tab, after waiting to see if the student would choose a game on his own, I prompted him to start with a game that teaches animal and color names. I chose the game because he likes to make noises and act out things and I felt like animals would give him an opportunity to express those features
while learning their names. After listening to the computer directions, I wanted to make sure that he understood what to do, so I instructed him to explain the process required to play the game. This is where the critical incident occurred because I encouraged him to explain the process, using whatever language he wanted to. I did this by having the translation program open and available on another computer next to him.

On line 5, I check for comprehension with the student by directing him to tell me what the computer instructions said and what he needs to do to play the game. On line 6, he responds by clicking on the first item/picture in the game, which prompts the computer to say the item aloud: "jack-o-lantern." On line 7, I repeat my question to him and ask him to explain the process to me, to which he responds with "Get the color" on line 8. It seemed to me that he formed it as a question because he was not entirely sure. I continued by asking, on line 9, where he should put the item. Instead of answering me verbally, he clicked on the first item (a jack-olantern), which prompted the computer to state the item's name aloud. Because I wanted him to produce verbal language, I patiently waited while I repeated my question, to which he responded, "Get the color." The student appeared to be expressing that he understood that the game required him to match the corresponding color to the animal or item. By forming it as a question, it seemed he was asking me if he understood it correctly, to which I affirmed that he did. By being patient with his answer, I allowed him to process his feelings, and perhaps his frustrations, about the request for an answer.

On line 10 , he replied that he needed to put it "on the color down" or drag it to the box with the matching color. On line 11, I corrected his answer by forming it as a question and then affirming his answer. I also gave an example of which color the item should be dragged to by offering the color "orange." On line 12 , he offered the statement that the picture of the jack-olantern was also called a "pumpkin." When I asked the student to expound upon his explanation of the game instructions, he offered that he needed to put it "on the color down." Because of how engaged it appeared he was in playing the game, he did not seem interested in using the translation program to produce more accurate English. It seemed that "on the color down" meant dragging the picture of the item/animal to the corresponding color at the bottom of the screen. I affirmed his attempt at producing language, and then repeated his answer, using more accurate English and modeling how to say it correctly. I also applied his answer to the current context by offering an example of the correct color for the item "Jack-o-lantern." He responded to this by
stating that he knew another name for "Jack-o-lantern." From my perspective, he wanted me to know that he knew it was made from a pumpkin and that pumpkins are orange. I continued to affirm his answers and reminded him to identify the items/animals aloud so that I could check for comprehension as he played the game. Finally, on line 13, I repeated and affirmed his statement that a jack-o-lantern is also a pumpkin, and remind him to continue identifying the items aloud as he played the game.

From the second excerpt we see that I begin by assessing his language acquisition. On line 1 , we see that I began by assessing language acquisition by asking the student if he learned any new animal names at the end of the gaming session. On line 2 , he responded that he did, using the A-B-C game on the website. I affirmed his response on line 3 and followed it up with a question, asking him what his new word was. On line 4 , he expressed that he was thinking or did not know, so on line 5 , I attempted to stimulate his memory by asking him what the name of the large marine animal was, in the water, that he learned. On line 6 , he answered with "elephant." On line 7 , I reminded him that the animal lived in the water and then offered the animal name "whale." He responded on line 8 by repeating the name I offered. On line 9 , I affirmed his pronunciation of "whale" and encouraged him before excusing him from the session. I encouraged him to respond in either language and to utilize the translation program if needed When he agreed that he had learned a new word, he offered the name of the game through which he learned it, suggesting that he was interested in producing a higher level of communication. When I asked him what the new word was, he hesitated, indicating that he could not recall the name of the water animal in English. This is where the critical incident occurred because, sensing that he could not remember the name for "whale," I repeated my question by offering the word "water." He immediately responded with the word "elephant," which was not entirely wrong. According to my interpretation of his understanding, an elephant is a large animal that lives around water and uses its trunk to drink and spray water. His association of water to elephant made sense; however, it was not the word that I was prompting him to share. I knew that he had known the English name for elephant prior to the session because of a conversation we had prior to the session in which he told me a story about elephants. The new English word he learned was "whale," so I repeated the word "water" and added "whale." He responded with the single word "whale," indicating that he agreed that the word he was searching for in his memory was indeed "whale."

I was confident that he had successfully learned the concept for "whale" when he offered the wrong answer of "elephant" so quickly, attempting to add humor to the situation. From my viewpoint, he knew that it was not the right answer, but he did not want to take time to use the translation program to reference his L1 to find the correct answer. Instead, he accessed his prior knowledge around elephants to provide an answer, albeit incorrect. It appears that he then waited for me to provide him with more clues and, ultimately, the answer. His acknowledgement of the correct answer ("whale") seemed to affirm that he had a conceptual grasp of a whale but was having trouble recalling its name. As his interlocutor, I was able to use the word "water" to stimulate an animal name he was familiar with, and then lead him to discover the correct name of the animal in question. This process of word association, paired with the option to translanguage, eventually led to the correct answer for the learner. As a teacher, it requires a great deal of patience to allow these processes to take place during language acquisition because we tend to fill in the space with our own answers before giving our students time to make connections and discover the correct answer. As my field note states,

Excerpt from Field Notes collected on 3-7-17:
1-My own expectations towards translanguaging have changed little in the sense that I
2-think TL is useful... but it has changed in how TL is used, and what it looks like, what
3 -forms it takes, and who feels comfortable using it.
Regardless of the fact that this student chose not to use the translation program to produce more accurate English, it appeared that he felt comfortable enough to attempt communication in the target language. I attribute his comfort to having the translation program available to him and to the level of consistency that he could expect around repetition and affirmation of his verbal contributions. Having the translation program available to him afforded him with a safety net where his L1 was ready and available for reference if needed. Furthermore, knowing that, through consistent, repetitive instruction, I encourage responses in either language gave him the confidence to attempt communication in English. From my perspective, providing the option to translanguage guided him to make connections between the languages within his language repertoire, and to produce language that was not only correct but representative of his level of understanding. The following field note discusses these ideas.

Excerpt from Field Notes collected on 3-7-17:
1-The factors that impacted my expectations towards translanguaging with this lesson

2-were: time limit of the lesson, and the technology being used in the lesson. The ELA 3-games allowed [S] to stay in the target language, but also translanguage if he needed 4-to by switching over to the translation program also downloaded onto the computer. 5-He did not choose to translanguage on his own today.

Reflecting back on this session, I realize that the critical incidents included decisions that led to language acquisition through the option to translanguaging, and word association. Through the option to translanguage, it appeared that the student found comfort and confidence to attempt language production. Furthermore, through the use of word association, I was able to prompt the student to connect prior knowledge from his L1, and apply it to language acquisition in his L2.

The following journal entry depicts my reflection on the language moment and how that reflection impacts translanguaging pedagogy.

Excerpt from my Reflexive Journal entry on 3-7-17:
1-I have modeled how I use TL to create meaning-in translating and interpreting
2-information for their classes, and in how I demonstrate the role of TL to
3-their teachers.
4-I have noticed that my three emerging bilinguals are using TL on their own to create
5 -meaning, but at various levels and in different ways. [S1] uses a translation program
6-to translate text, and understand instructions. [S2] used me as an interlocutor, bilingual
7-resource, and ESL teacher. [S3] uses me as an interpreter and translator. While they
8 -are all useful methods that help in the language acquisition process, the frequency of
$9-u s e$, and the level of reliance varies greatly. They all started as monolinguals and are
10 -currently all at different levels of English proficiency. I am curious to look at my data
11 -overall and see what TL started out looking and sounding like, and
12-what factors impacted our language choices, and how we all evolved throughout the
13-year working together.
There are key, punctuating decisions that I made as a teacher that impacted my students' language acquisition. The level of student language acquisition was directly affected by translanguaging or the option to translanguage. From a critical standpoint, how I encouraged or discouraged translanguaging in the classroom, and what factors impacted those choices, became key to student success. This session, in particular, supports the notion that having the option to
translanguage can embolden ELL students to produce language in their L2. It also suggests that successful translanguaging pedagogy can include the use of word association by teachers to build connections between languages. As an ELL teacher, I learned to be more aware of the words I use, both intentionally and unintentionally, and how they can lead to translanguaging with my students.
4.1.7 Language Moment 7: Reading Comprehension

This language moment took place during a pull-out session with a monolingual Spanishspeaking middle school student. It was the first time I introduced her to the website www.interactivesites.weebly.com. I directed her to choose the English Language Arts button so that we could work on some games that would assist her in developing her English proficiency. She chose a game that helped her practice identifying and creating compound words because they were studying compound words in her language arts class. After finishing that game, we chose a reading comprehension exercise where she read a short story and then answered questions pertaining to the story.

This language moment comes from a small section of the reading comprehension exercise. I provided the student with a translation program by opening up www.spanishdict.com on a separate tab on the computer she was working on so that she could move between the two sites with ease, as needed. The excerpt comes from a storyline that involves Jermaine looking for his grandmother's missing hat. The student chose to read the story aloud first, and then answer the questions on the screen afterwards.

Excerpt from an Audio File collected on 3-8-17:
1-Me: Would you like to have them read it to you?
2-Student: Me.
3-Me: Okay, so you read it, out loud.
4-Student: Dear-
5-Me: Jermaine
6-Student: Jermaine?
7-Me: Jermaine.
8-Student: Jermaine.
9-Me: No [Jer with Spanish pronunciation], Jer-
10-Student: Jer

11-Me: -maine.
12-Student: -maine.
$13-\mathrm{Me}$ : Nice and loud.
14-Student: Okay.
15-Computer: I was hoping you could help me. I lost my favorite hat. It's the one I got 16-in Africa with all the flowers on it. I sat it...

17-Student: Sat it?
18-Me: Mm-hmm (affirmative).
19-Computer: ... on the porch while I was working in the yard by the house.
20-Student: I saw...
21-Me: Yeah.
22-Student: Yeah, your neighbor.
$23-\mathrm{Me}$ : Neighbor.
24-Student: neighbor Mr. Billings, so I walk-ed.
$25-\mathrm{Me}$ : Walked.
26-Student: Oh, Walked.
27-Me: Caminó. Walked.
28-Student: Walked.
29-Me: Es difícil. Walked.
30-Student: Walked (laughs).
31-Me: Yeah.
32-Student: Over to his yard to check with him. Your friend, Mia also came by to say...
33-to say hello. We talk
34-Me: Talked.
35-Student: talked a little while about Mayor Franklin...Franklin's
36-Me: Mayor Franklin's.
37-Student: Franklin's speech yesterday. When I got back to your porch my hat was
38-gone.
39-You know how special that hat is to me, so please help me find it.
On line $1, I$ asked the student if she would like the computer to read the passage aloud while she listened and followed along with her eyes, or if she would like to attempt to read it
herself aloud. On line 2, she opted to read it aloud herself, and on line 3, I agreed and repeated the directions. On line 4, she began reading the passage and then stalled because she was having trouble pronouncing the name "Jermaine" in English. On line 5, I offered the correct pronunciation, which she tentatively repeated, on line 6, as a question. On line 7 , I repeated the name "Jermaine," and on line 8, she attempted to pronounce the name "Jermaine" again. On line 9, I tried a different tactic and, using Spanish, told her that the portion "Jer" was not pronounced with Spanish pronunciation of "Jer" but with the English pronunciation of "Jer." On line 10, she pronounced "Jer" correctly. On line 11, I modeled how to say the remaining portion of the name "maine," which she copied on line 12.

Offering the student the option of reading the passage aloud, or having the computer do it, allowed her to take ownership of her learning. I also gave her the option of using the translation program as needed. This is the first critical incident. Having the option to access her L1 gave her the security she needed to raise her confidence level and attempt language production in English, knowing that the translation program was available as a back-up in case she needed it. I was also available to her as a bilingual resource since I shared her L1.

It appeared that when the student realized that she might be pronouncing the name "Jermaine" incorrectly, she stalled her reading and waited for me to offer assistance. She could have clicked on the button for the computer to read the passage aloud, reiterating its pronunciation of the name; however, it seems she chose to use me as a bilingual resource and interlocutor. It is likely that because I share her L1, and we had a history of communicating in her L1 together, she preferred to wait for my assistance. Knowing Spanish helped me, as her teacher, to develop a relationship with her that would have likely taken a lot longer had I not shared her L1. I was able to convey empathy, which could have led to her decision to use me as a resource instead of the computer.

When the student sensed that she might be pronouncing a word incorrectly, she hesitated and waited for me to offer assistance. She appeared confident that this method would produce language from me that she could then emulate. On lines $4-8$, we see that she and I have a series of exchanges where I offer the correct pronunciation and she attempts to copy them. While she was getting closer with each attempt, it required translanguaging to achieve correct pronunciation. On line 9, I decided to code-switch to Spanish and break down the name "Jermaine" into its parts. In Spanish, I explained that the "Jer" portion of "Jermaine" is not
pronounced as it would be in Spanish, but rather, as it would be in English. This is the second critical incident. After breaking it down like this for her, and modeling the correct pronunciation in English once more, she correctly pronounced the beginning morpheme for the name "Jermaine." I provided guidance for the latter portion strictly in English, after which she repeated it correctly. Being familiar with the Spanish language helped me identify the problem more quickly. She had been applying the Spanish pronunciation for the letters "J," "e," and "r" to the name. She did not have trouble with the latter half of the name. Through code-switching, I explained (in Spanish) that the letters have different sounds in English and followed it up with an example. The following field note from this session discusses translanguaging as a form of comfort:

Excerpt from Field Notes collected on 3-8-17:
1-I have looked at translanguaging as a tool to create meaning until today. Today [S]
2-used it as a form of comfort. She code-switched to Spanish when she got nervous and
3-didn't know the answer in English. She also checked for clarity in Spanish with me
4-instead of in English, even though she knew how to ask for clarification in English. I
5-have been gently encouraging her to use her English and she has been responding 6-well.

Through my encouragement to translanguage, by intentionally code-switching, I was able to help her understand the differences between her languages and apply them quickly, producing more accurate pronunciation in the target language. Therefore, my code-switching was part of my translanguaging pedagogy. My decision to translanguage was also prompted by her repeated errors in accurate L2 production. Approaching the problem from a different viewpoint within her $L 1$, seemed to help her recognize the gap and understand how to bridge it. As my field note states,

Excerpt from Field Notes collected on 3-8-17:
1-I encouraged translanguaging today by making the translation program available to 2-them as they worked on the computer ELA programs, and by code-switching as

3-necessary to help them understand instructions after they tried to translate/interpret it 4-themselves. [S] did very well using the program and is eager to keep doing it.

On line 13 , I reminded her to speak louder so I could hear her better, and she agreed to try to speak louder on line 14 . On lines $15-16$, she appeared to tire of reading aloud and clicked
on the button that prompts the computer to read the passage aloud. The student listened and followed along as the computer read the next portion of the passage. When she felt ready to give it another try, she began by tentatively posing the statement as a question. Because I sensed she needed reassurance, I continued to give praise and affirmation as she read.

On line 17 , she took over the reading by asking me how to begin the next sentence with "I sat it?" On line 18 , I encouraged her to keep going. On line 20, she began reading along with the computer. On line 20, she hesitated after reading "I saw...," so I encouraged her on line 21. On line 22 , she copied my affirmation and then continued reading, stopping after pronouncing the word "neighbor" because she was not sure she said it correctly. Here we see that she seems to take ownership of her success by reiterating my affirmation until she got to the word "neighbor" where she stalled. However, once I offered the correct pronunciation, she demonstrated that she knew what to do and repeated it correctly. On line 23, I offered the correct pronunciation of "neighbor," to which she responded with the correct pronunciation as well on line 24.

On line 24 , she continued reading the passage and then hesitated after reading "walked." She pronounced it "walk-kid" and appeared to sense that it was wrong. On line 25, I corrected her pronunciation of "walked," to which she responded with acknowledgement and another attempt at pronouncing it correctly. On line 27, I introduced the Spanish translation for "walked," followed up by the English version once more. On line 28, she pronounced it more clearly in English but not perfectly. On line 29, I continued in Spanish, stating that it is difficult to say, and then repeated the proper English pronunciation of "walked." On line 30, the student pronounced it correctly in English, appearing to laugh at the number of tries it took her to pronounce it correctly.

The student phonetically pronounced "walked" as "walk-kid," separating the verb from the past tense ending of "-ed." To address the error, I offered the correct pronunciation. It seemed that she understood the problem; however, she was not sure how to fix it just yet. After another error in the pronunciation, I translanguaged by intentionally code-switching to Spanish again. This is critical incident number two. In Spanish, I offered the translation for "walked," stating "camino" (past-preterite tense of the infinitive form of the verb "to-walk"), following it up with the English version. My intent was to prompt her to start thinking in her L1. Perhaps the gap in comprehension resided in the need to understand that "-ed" meant past tense in English. By offering her the translation for "walked" in her L1, she was able to access her prior
knowledge around past tense endings (in both languages) and apply that knowledge to the current context. After the translanguaging took place, the student pronounced "walked" more clearly and with increased fluidity; however, it was still not perfect so I continued in Spanish, explaining that it is a difficult concept (es dificil), and again modeled the correct pronunciation in English. When she laughed at the number of tries it took to "get it right," it also indicated that she was likely not bothered by the length of the process so long as she achieved her goal of pronouncing it correctly. As her teacher, I recognized that being patient as these processes took place was just as important as knowing when and how to utilize code-switching as part of successful translanguaging pedagogy in the bilingual classroom.

The final critical incident occurred when the student came to the word "talked." This time she read the beginning portion of the word and then hesitated, leaving off the "-ed" ending. From my perspective, this indicated that she wanted to apply what she had learned from the "walked" incident but needed time to think about it before applying it. After a short pause, I offered the correct pronunciation in English only. By allowing her time to respond, I encouraged translanguaging to occur, eventually leading to language production in her L2.

On line 31, I noted that I encouraged her, and on line 32, she continued reading the passage. On line 35, she hesitated after reading " Mayor Franklin's," leaving off the "s" ending. On line 36, I offered the correct pronunciation of "Mayor Franklin's," and on lines 37-39, she repeated it perfectly and finished reading the passage without erring.

According to this session, and as the teacher, I tend to encourage translanguaging more when I share the student's L1 and when the student has continuous errs in producing accurate language in their L2. This analysis also suggests that successful translanguaging pedagogy can include code-switching, and often requires teacher patience. Further, it suggests that being knowledgeable in the students' L1 can be beneficial in identifying the language gaps/problems more quickly.
4.1.8 Language Moment 8: Alphabet

This next exchange took place at a middle school with a student who came to the United States of America from Honduras. He enrolled in school in the Anchorage school district as a seventh grader, arriving as a monolingual Spanish speaker.

During this session, I introduced the student to the website www.interactivesites.weebly.com. His teachers had expressed concern that he was having
trouble in their classes, even when they provided bilingual instructions and translated worksheets. I introduced this website in order to assess Eldín's knowledge in his L1, as well as in English, because I suspected that he might be below grade level in his L1, which could be affecting language acquisition in English (L2). We began with the English alphabet, making comparisons to the Spanish alphabet along the way. This language moment is taken from two excerpts of an audio file where I was helping him pronounce letter names and sounds.

Excerpt 1 from an Audio File collected on 3-8-17:
1-Computer: /F/
2- Student: /Effe/
3-Me: Qué dijo? Qué es el nombre de la letra? Díme /F/.
4- Student: /Efff
5-Me: Yeah. Otra vez... más fuerte. $/ F /$.
6- Student: /F/.
7-Me: Qué letra piensas que es en inglés?
8- Student: $/ F /$.

Excerpt 2 from an Audio File collected on 3-8-17:
1-Me: Okay. Bien. Recibiste un...Cómo se llama esto? How do you say this?
2- Student: Medalla.
3-Me: Medalla de plata.
On line 1 of the first excerpt, we see that the computer is pronouncing the letter " F " aloud, to which the student is to respond. The student pushes the button again to hear it pronounced twice. He then, very quietly, pronounces the English letter "F," as "Effe." On line 3, I noted that I code-switched to Spanish and ask him what the computer is instructing him to do. I also ask him what the name of the letter is, following it up with "Tell me (Díme)" in Spanish. I then provide the letter "F" in English. On line 4, he attempts to pronounce it in English again, saying "Eff." On line 5, I affirm his response and then, in Spanish, ask him to repeat it again, and louder. I ended that directive with another example of how to say " $F$ " in English. On line 6, he pronounced it correctly. On line 7, I asked him, in Spanish, what letter he thinks it is in English. On line 8, he replied with "F."

The student starts off attempting to pronounce the English letter " $F$ " the way it is pronounced in Spanish. In Spanish, the name for the letter "F" is "Efe," so it makes sense that he would pronounce it as such when reading the letter aloud. However, the computer had also given an audible pronunciation of the letter aloud in English. Sensing he was already thinking in his L1, I asked for clarification of the instructions in his first language. After directing him to tell me the letter's name aloud, I also gave an example of the proper pronunciation in English. On line 4, we see that he responded with a modified version of his first answer, this time leaving off the last "e" sound for the letter's name. This prompted me to continue in Spanish, offering
encouragement that he was getting closer, and to try it again, louder. On line 6 , he pronounced the letter "F" correctly in English; however, to check for understanding, I asked him (in Spanish) what letter he thinks it is in the English alphabet. This is the first critical incident. Just because he was able to repeat what the letter name was with the proper pronunciation, does not necessarily mean that he understood that it was the name and pronunciation for that letter in the English alphabet. I wanted to make sure that he understood that two distinct alphabets exist: a Spanish one and an English one. Although they may share a lot of the same orthographic origin, a lot of the letters have different names and have different sounds. Regardless of the fact that he probably took notice that he was making changes with each attempt at pronunciation, I needed to know if he understood why those changes were taking place and where they came from. Asking him to tell me what letter he pronounced correctly within the English language helped me assess his level of understanding. This is an interesting viewpoint of translanguaging because it suggests that sometimes it is necessary to develop the L1 alongside the L2 in order to maximize communication.

From the second excerpt, I highlight a short exchange at the end of the lesson. Here is the translation of that exchange:

Line 1-Me: Okay. Good. You received $\mathrm{a} .$. . What is this called? How do you say this?
Line 2- Student: Medal.
Line 3-Me: ...A silver medal.
In the second excerpt, we see our roles reverse. On line 1, I attempt to offer encouragement by telling the student, in Spanish, that he earned a silver medal on the computer program. However, I had forgotten the Spanish word for "medal," so I asked him (in Spanish) how to say "medal" and pointed to the picture of the medal on the screen. When he provided the

Spanish word (on line 2), I completed my sentence, using the word he provided. This is the second critical incident. This is a strategy I use quite a bit with my ELLs because it places them in the position of expert, and it conveys to them a level of empathy for what they are going through as learners. My interpretation is that expressing that I , too, need help at times encourages ELLs to not be ashamed of asking for help as they learn language. Furthermore, by intentionally code-switching, I provided him with an example of how to create meaning through translanguaging.

This language moment showcased how important the L1 can be in developing the L2. The following excerpt from my field note for the session discusses how translanguaging can be used in a variety of ways by both the teacher and the learner.

Excerpt from my Field Note collected on 3-8-17:
1-The main factor that impacted my expectations towards translanguaging was the need
2-to get [S] up to speed with his peers and to develop his own primary language
3-alongside English to create the connections necessary to promote language acquisition
4-and have those skills transfer over to his core classes.
Knowing that sometimes both languages need development changed how I view translanguaging. As a teacher, I found it enlightening to see how we used translanguaging to develop both of his languages. It also helped me understand the role of the L1 in developing the L2. It also highlighted the importance of the teacher's attitudes towards translanguaging pedagogy by demonstrating how teachers can use it as a tool for assessment in both languages and a tool for simultaneous development of both languages.

### 4.1.9 Language Moment 9: Hurricanes

This session consisted of two middle school ELL students. One student's first languages were Ukranian and Russian. His proficiency in English was good; however, he preferred to communicate in Russian and English, often answering me in both languages. He was placed in a remedial language arts class by his core teachers based on his proficiency in English.

The other student's first languages were Yugtun and English. He was a dual-identified ELL/SPED (Special Education) student, who also had an IEP (Individualized Education Plan) requiring that he receive repeated instructions as needed and extra time to complete assignments. He understood Yugtun fairly well but was not proficient in producing Yugtun language. He
preferred to communicate in English. He was placed in the remedial language arts class by his core teachers based on his special education IEP and his ELL status.

For these students, ELL support consisted of me sitting next to them during class, modeling note-taking, keeping them on task, and helping them understand the class assignments and required homework. For this session, the classroom teacher was presenting information about weather systems, hurricanes in particular. The teacher reviewed the vocabulary for the section first, while the students wrote down definitions and discussed how to use the vocabulary in sentences. The questions in the workbook referenced a video about hurricanes; however, the teacher was having trouble downloading the link, so the students worked on answering the questions in their workbooks, using prior knowledge about weather systems as well as in class discussions to answer the questions. Once the video link was accessible, the students were able to check their answers as they watched the video. The workbook questions that the students needed to answer were 1) How are hurricanes formed? and 2) What makes hurricanes different from other natural disasters? The following excerpt from my field notes for this session express how I approached working with these two emerging bilinguals around this topic.

Excerpt from Field Note collected on 3-20-17:
1-As a teacher, I encouraged translanguaging with [S1] and [S2] today by having
2-them think in their home languages and English before answering the questions in their
3-workbooks about hurricanes. ... I encouraged them to use all of their languages to
4-think of words and experiences that describe hurricanes for them. For [S1], he
5-was able to come up with a variety of Ukranian and Russian words that described traits 6-of hurricanes. He then asked me to come up with words in English! When I said them 7-aloud (while writing them down on paper in front of him), he focused in on the ones 8 -that he thought were close to what he wanted to express in Ukranian and Russian. He 9-asked me to explain some of the words in English to help prompt him on the meaning 10 -of the words I shared, if he needed it. It was a great way to translanguage with each 11-other, especially since I do not speak Ukranian or Russian.

12-For [S2], he was having trouble answering the workbook questions since he said that 13-he didn't know anything about hurricanes. I asked him to think in Yugtun of other 14-kinds of weather systems and then we compared some of the traits of snow storms and 15 -ice storms, etc. with those of hurricanes. He was then able to write down the

16-differences between hurricanes and other natural disasters.
On lines 1-2, I noted in my field note how I encouraged translanguaging that day with both students. They both appeared to be struggling with how to answer the workbook questions about hurricanes, so I asked them to think in their native languages. On lines 3-4, I encouraged them to think of words and experiences that described hurricanes for them, using any and all of their languages. When I noticed that both students appeared to be struggling with the assignment, I decided to encourage them to think in languages within their linguistic repertoires other than English. This was the first critical incident. Because I knew that the one student was trilingual and the other was bilingual, I wanted them to generate vocabulary in their other languages in an attempt to stimulate the critical thinking necessary to create language in English. The following excerpt from my field notes on this day discusses my translanguaging design.

Excerpt from my Field Notes collected on 3-20-17:
1-As a teacher, I encouraged translanguaging with [S1] and [S2] today by having
2-them think in their home languages before answering the questions in
3-their workbooks about hurricanes.
On lines 4-6, I state that one student was able to come up with several words, in both Ukranian and Russian, that described traits of hurricanes. On line 6, the student asks me to come up with words in English to describe hurricanes, which I did, on line 7, by saying them aloud while writing them down on a sheet of paper in front of him. On lines 8-9, he asked me to further define some of the English words I provided to see if he could recognize any of them as being similar to the words he came up with in his native languages. On lines 10-11, I express how well the translanguaging strategy worked for this session, considering I did not share the same native languages with the student.

The trilingual Ukranian-Russian-English student was able to recall several words, in both Ukranian and/or Russian, that described traits of hurricanes. Because I do not speak either language, and devices were not allowed in the classroom to access a translation program, I had to trust that they were accurate. After he had generated over fifteen words in Ukranian and/or Russian, he hesitated and then asked me to come up with words in English to describe hurricanes. This is interesting, because it seemed that he felt at ease enough with me to ask me to produce the same amount of language in my L1 (English) as I asked him to do in his. This indicated to me that he was demonstrating solidarity with the translanguaging moment. As
his teacher, I imagine that I prompted this demonstration of solidarity by allowing him to access his L1 as needed in class. Perhaps, due to the link between language and identity, my encouragement of translanguaging conveyed a message that I was not only validating his language, but also validating him as a speaker of his languages. It also suggests that he was very proficient in his first languages since it appeared that his motivation for asking this of me was to compare my responses with his. I did not feel as if it was a test, but rather, an expression of solidarity and of language self-repair.

When he came across a word I produced in English about hurricanes that he did not completely understand, he would point to it and ask me to please explain it more. While I defined what the word meant, he would nod, appearing to express his comprehension. However, to check for understanding, I then asked him to show me the word or words in his first languages that corresponded to similar meanings of the word or words in English. Once identified, he would again nod, appearing to indicate that he understood the correlations. Regardless of the fact that I did not speak Ukranian or Russian, this process helped us communicate across languages. It also appeared to help him access his prior knowledge about hurricanes (and weather systems that shared traits similar to hurricanes), which gave him a much larger vocabulary base to choose from. I encouraged discussion about weather systems that shared traits similar to those of hurricanes by asking him, in English, to think about the words in his native languages that were similar to the words I wrote down in English. By accessing more words in his native languages, it appeared that he was able to choose the ones he wanted, and then compare them to comparable words in English, which enabled him to answer the questions in his workbook and complete the assignment.

On line 12 , I stated that the bilingual student appeared to be having a similar problem with completing the assignment but for a different reason. He seemed to have trouble understanding the assignment and what the questions were requiring of him. However, he seemed to bridge that gap through translanguaging, which allowed him to access prior knowledge and his L1. For him, it seemed as though he could not generate language about hurricanes because he had never seen one or heard of one. Because the students had not seen the accompanying video about hurricanes yet, he was unable to imagine what one looked like or what it was capable of; therefore, his prior knowledge about hurricanes was quite limited.

Knowing that he grew up in a rural village in Alaska, I guessed that he had, indeed, never seen or heard of one because hurricanes are not common to Alaska.

On lines 13-15, I asked him to think in his L1 (Yugtun) and provide me with words that describe other weather systems that he had seen/experienced, in either Yugtun or English. After he generated approximately 5-7 words about snow and ice storms, I wrote them down on a sheet of paper for him and we did the same thing in English. I then asked him to connect the words that were comparable in meaning. This is the second critical incident. Once we finished the exercise, I asked him to describe, in English, what he thought a hurricane looks like and what he imagines it does. On lines $15-16$, I state that he was able to describe, in detail, what a hurricane probably looks like and how it probably acts. At the end of the lesson, both students watched the video, adding additional features about hurricanes to their answers. As my field note states, there were multiple motivators that impacted my translanguaging design for this session.

Excerpt from my Field Notes collected on 3-20-17:
1-The factors that impacted my attitudes towards translanguaging today were: the need
2-for these two ELL students to come up with descriptive words to complete the prompt,
3 -and the time constraint we had to work within to come up with descriptive sentences
4-in English. Accessing their linguistic repertoires provided them with the tools they
5 -needed to make the necessary comparisons and translations and create meaning.
This session highlighted the utility of translanguaging in the classroom and how it can help teachers gain insight into what students already know. The data also suggest that a teacher's role in encouraging the process of translanguaging, regardless of the languages present in the classroom and regardless of what languages the teacher shares with his/her students, is paramount to successful translanguaging pedagogy

My encouragement to translanguaging in the classroom greatly impacted these students' performances, helping them maximize communication in the language of instruction. Regardless of whether or not I shared the L1, I encouraged the students to think in their first language(s) and to make connections across languages both conceptually and visually. Through the process of translanguaging, it appeared that they were able to access prior knowledge that provided them with an increased vocabulary base to pull from in producing English.

It was evident to me that both students benefitted from translanguaging in the classroom. After accessing their L1, it appeared that they were able to maximize communication in the target language. My role, as their ELL teacher, was to help them understand the assignment and complete the required tasks in class. As I stated in my reflexive journaling,

Excerpt from Reflexive Journal on 3-20-17:
1-I was glad to see them think in their home languages, or at least
2-think about aspects of their environment while thinking in their home languages. It
3-reminded me of how "knowing" another language is more than being able to construct
4-oral sentences using morphemes and semantics of a language. It is also the process of
5-thinking in that language by accessing memories, people, sounds, smells, feelings,
6 -etc. from a time you heard the language and/or used the language.
Encouraging them to translanguage, by prompting them to think in their native languages, produced the desired outcome. Factors such as the time constraint we had to work within, the lack of a visual medium (the video) to give examples of hurricanes, and the fact that both students were bilingual or trilingual, all impacted my decision to encourage translanguaging. Being aware of these types of constraints can help teachers understand how translanguaging pedagogy is useful in the bilingual classroom.
4.1.10 Language Moment 10: Baseball

This exchange took place during another pull-out session with the third grade Vietnamese-English student. This session occurred in March after having worked with him for six months.

During this session, we focused on learning the names for people, relationships, and some common items used in school. His regular classroom teacher had requested that I help him understand some of the more common terms used in class, along with some words that they were focusing on for a poetry project. I wrote the words on separate index cards and read them aloud to the student in English. I also provided a laptop for him to use a translation program so that he could reference his L1. He looked up the words in Vietnamese and then drew pictures that represented the words on additional index cards. I then physically demonstrated, while explaining aloud in English, that I wanted him to match up the cards with the pictures. The student neatly organized the English words on the left and the pictures on the right. This activity
led to a language moment where translanguaging took place. The following excerpt depicts what transpired during this language moment.

Excerpt from an Audio File collected on 3-21-17:
1-Student: I'm find it. Bass-
2-Me: What does it say?
3-Student: Basketball.
4-Me: Not basketball.
5-Student: The ba-the ba-baseball.
6-Me: Yes! Baseball.
7-Student: Baseball. Kill zombie, space monsters.
8-Me: It is not for killing zombies. It is for playing baseball.
9-Student: Sometime it kill zombie dead.
$10-\mathrm{Me}: \mathbf{O h}$, Is that on a video game?
11-Student: Sure. Some like movie too.
12-Me: OK.
13-Student: Some are going along with bat. Thank you.
$14-\mathrm{Me}:$ You're welcome.
15-Student: We don't have bat.
16-Me: OK. And the next word is paper. Please say paper in Vietnamese.
17-Student: giấy (Vietnamese for "paper").
18-Student: This one we don't have all the Vietnam. They don't have.
19-Me: That's OK. Some things we don't have words for, right? Because, it's not part 20 -of our culture. And, that's normal. That's good. You are teaching me, and I am 21-teaching you. Thank you [S].
22-Student: I'm go.
23-Me: Yes, it is time to go back to class.
24-Student: Yes.
$25-\mathrm{Me}$ : Have a good day.
26-Student: Have a good day.
27-Me: Thank you.

On lines 1 and 2, I stated that the student is looking up the word "baseball" in Vietnamese on the computer in order to draw a picture of it. While he is trying to pronounce the English word aloud, I prompt him again and wait for him to sound out the word. On line 3, he guesses and says "basketball," which was probably influenced by the basketball game they had played in physical education class that day. On line 4, I tell him that the word is not "basketball," and on line 5 , he begins to sound out the letters and says, "baseball." I, then, affirm his answer on line 6. At this point, he had not shared if he had found the Vietnamese word for baseball yet or not using the translation device. Interestingly enough, as soon as he knew the word was "baseball," he recalled seeing a bat being used to "kill zombies" on the television or on a video game. It was not clear where he saw the image. He had shared with me prior to this session that he plays a lot of video games. In line 8, I tell him that bats are not used for killing zombies in this context and that they are used for playing baseball. He then responds, on line 9, that sometimes they are, reaffirming that he had indeed seen it happen on television or in a video game. I decided to allow some dialogue around the topic to see if it helped him clarify the definition, so on line 10 , I ask if he had seen that happen in a video game. The critical incident occurred on line 10 when I decided to allow some dialogue around the topic instead of moving on in the lesson. I realized that even though he could not find the translation for "bat" or "baseball" in Vietnamese (using the same translation program that he had used several times before), he could make connections to the meaning of the words through conversation with me and through discussion around different contexts that he had seen the words used in.

This kind of playful discovery is very useful with elementary aged children and helps them feel at ease because it is something they do naturally. He responded on line 11 affirmatively, following it up with "some like movie too" which indicated that he had probably seen it in a movie as well. I agreed in line 12 and provided silence so he could formulate his next response in English. As my field note states, this type of translanguaging allowed him with the time needed to produce language in English.

As the teacher, I noticed that he needed more time to formulate his answers in English so I provided him silence and gave him time to think on line 12. Providing this time seemed to allow him to formulate his answer in the target language without pressure from me.

Excerpt from Field Notes collected on 3-21-17:
1-The factors that impacted my attitudes towards translanguaging were that he needed to 2-recall the definitions for a set of vocabulary words that he uses in class and at home in a

3-way that had meaning for him. In other words, by translanguaging, he was able to
4-make connections faster using both languages, than by simply using one.
Furthermore, by accepting his explanation of how the words "baseball" and "bat" are not naturally part of the Vietnamese culture, I demonstrated an intentional use of language that strategically positioned him as the expert in the room.

On line 13, I stated that the student said, "Some are going along with bat," seemingly indicating that he wanted to summarize that, in the movie, he had seen people chasing zombies with bats. He provided this statement while looking up the Vietnamese word for "bat" on the computer. He then thanked me for listening to him and on line 14, I responded with "You're welcome."

We proceeded by discussing other vocabulary words. Since he seemed to enjoy using the translation device, I asked him to tell me the Vietnamese word for each index card and picture while looking at the English spellings for the words. After about 25 other vocabulary words where he knew the words in Vietnamese, without using the translation device, he returned to the word for "bat" and said, "We don't have bat" on line 15 . He pointed to the picture of the bat that he drew after looking up the word "baseball" in Vietnamese at the beginning of the session. He had not been able to find it but had figured it out after he knew that it was a sport.

On line 16 , I tried to move the conversation to another vocabulary word and asked the student to tell me the Vietnamese word for "paper." Seeming somewhat agitated, he quickly said, "giấy" (Vietnamese for "paper") on line 17, and then proceeded to clarify on line 18 that they do not have "bats" (used in the context of baseball) in Vietnam. On lines 19-20, I responded that it is alright that we cannot find the words for "bat" or "baseball" in the translation device because we all have words that are specific to our cultures. I then thanked him for teaching me something about the Vietnamese culture on line 21 . He smiled, and on lines 22-25, we exchanged goodbyes and he returned to class. As noted in my field note, this practice of making connections between vocabulary words is a common English language acquisition strategy.

Excerpt from Field Notes collected on 3-21-17:
1-Today, I encouraged translanguaging to get [S] to make the connections between his

2-two languages while he is learning English. It also helps him to put a visual in his head 3-of the picture while recalling it in Vietnamese and hearing it aloud in English. It is a 4-technique I use quite a bit with ELLs, using connectivity.

I encouraged translanguaging during the session with the student to help him make the connections with new vocabulary in his L2 (English). By encouraging this connectivity, I was able to guide him to make connections between both of his languages effectively and recall newly acquired connections more quickly. The main factor that impacted my attitude towards translanguaging during the lesson was the need for him to learn a large number of new vocabulary words that he could recall and use successfully in his regular education classroom.

This language moment shows that I encouraged translanguaging by allowing the student access to a translation device during the lesson and by encouraging discussion with me as one of his resources during the discovery process. The factors that impacted my attitudes and expectations towards translanguaging are reflected in the second research question. The fact that he needed to learn a great deal of new vocabulary in a way that would encourage long term retention, impacted my choice to use translanguaging during the lesson. I also provided additional time, and further discussion around the topics that were more challenging (in this case the words "bat" and "baseball") in order to allow the student time to formulate answers in his L2, while also giving him the freedom to position himself as the expert in the room.

My analysis suggests that ELL students feel more comfortable in smaller settings and among those that value and utilize their linguistic repertoires in creative ways, allowing them to translanguage to create meaning. It appears that our exercise enabled him to freely reference his L1 (Vietnamese) to help him define the new vocabulary in his L2 (English) by having a translation device available. I also allowed him to use his L1 to name the new words in his L2, while looking at the new vocabulary in its written and pictured forms. This type of connectivity helps create more concrete connections than simply through repetition or rote memorization. Further, by allowing him silence and time, I encouraged him to make connections on his own and with minimal anxiety. Similarly, by encouraging discussion during the lesson, I also provided space for the student to position himself as the expert in the room on certain topics. These practices proved to be effective strategies within a successful translanguaging pedagogy.

### 4.1.11 Language Moment 11: Reading Fluency

This session occurred with the same Vietnamese-English third grade student and focused on cloze sentencing to increase reading fluency. The student's regular classroom teacher informed me that she would be testing him soon on his reading fluency by measuring the number of words he read per minute. In order to get him ready, I had him practice reading books aloud. Furthermore, using sentence strips, I provided him with cloze sentences and a word bank of English vocabulary to choose from in completing the sentences. To check for understanding of the English words he used to complete the sentences, I periodically asked him to provide the Vietnamese translation by prompting him to type it into the translation program as he said it aloud so that I could see the English translation on the computer screen. I also prompted him to provide a memory associated with that word. The following excerpt is from an audio file recording of a session in April where we worked on cloze sentencing. The second excerpt comes from my field notes from a separate day in April and is a reflection on how the session impacted his reading fluency. It, too, was an exercise on reading fluency and involved him reading a passage aloud to me in English. The second excerpt demonstrates how attaching imagery and memories to a word can help the student create meaning through accessing his/her first language. I have combined the two language moments into one comprehensive analysis because they are with the same student and address translanguaging in relation to reading fluency.

Excerpt from an Audio File collected on 4-4-17:
1-Me: Let's do this one. Look, can you read this for me?
2-Student: Look at the pond.
3-Me: Pond? Look at the pond! That's good. And a pond..., tell me what a pond is.
4-Student: The swimming pond.
5-Me: Yeah, like a pool, like water. How would you say pond in Vietnamese?
6-Student: Bàu
7-Me: Bàu? Yeah? So, look at the pond. So let's sound it out. (P sound, O sound, N
8 -sound, D sound). Can you spell it for me?
9-Student: Look.
$10-\mathrm{Me}: ~ \mathrm{P}$.
11-Student: P-O-N-D.

Excerpt from a Field Note collected on 4-11-17:
1-When he didn't know what he was reading, I pointed to a picture of it and asked him 2-to tell me the Vietnamese word for it. Once he said it aloud, he usually followed it 3-up with a short story or comment about it. For example, "bike". He didn't know 4-what it was when he read it in English. I pointed to a picture of a bike and said, "In 5-Vietnamese." He told me the name in Vietnamese and then said that there are a lot of 6-bikes in Vietnam. The imagery, through TL (translanguaging), helped him access the 7 -story line better.
From excerpt 1, line 1, I noted that I was asking the student to read the sentence he created, using the sentence strip and the word bank of English words. On line 2, he read the sentence he created. On line 3, I reiterated the word "pond" to affirm that "pond" is what he said, and then directed him to focus on that particular word. I then encouraged him and asked him what a pond was. On line 4 , the student likened a pond to a swimming pool, and, on line 5 , I acknowledged his answer and gave two other examples of a pond. I followed it up with a question, asking him to translate "pond" into Vietnamese. When the student likened a pond to a swimming pool, he actually used the word, "swimming pond," suggesting that maybe he was used to swimming in ponds (instead of swimming pools) in Vietnam. Before checking for understanding, I wanted to provide him with a few more English words to associate "pond" with so I provided the words "pool," and "water." This word association provided him with two extra words to add to his vocabulary bank in English.

Sensing that he was still struggling with the word "pool," I asked him to translate "pond" into Vietnamese. That was the critical incident in the language moment for excerpt 1. Assuming that he understood "water," but did not seem to have a grasp on "pool" yet, I wanted him to associate the word "pond" to "pool" by accessing his L1. By using his first language, perhaps he would be able to recall memories associated with ponds and swimming, leading him to associate it to pools in the English language. On line 6, he provided the Vietnamese translation for "pond." Once he provided the Vietnamese translation, he smiled, suggesting that he recalled a pleasant memory. The following field note reflects on the effectiveness of this translanguaging strategy in using cognition to create meaning.

Excerpt from Field Notes collected on 4-4-17:
1-The factor that impacted my attitude towards translanguaging (decision to use it) was
2-primarily to create a flow of conversation between [S] and I. When I encourage him
3-to access his native language to understand a new word or concept, we don't have a
4-disruption in the flow of our interaction or communication. Where most students
5-shut down or act out when they don't know something, translanguaging allows for the
6-brain to keep going-in a different direction-before coming back to the task at hand.
7-It changes not knowing from scary or frustrating to interesting and different. It lowers
8 -the affective filter and keeps students involved.
On lines 7-8, I repeated the word for "pond" in Vietnamese and then directed him to look at the word while sounding out each letter. I made the sounds for "P," "O," "N," and "D," and he joined in on the letters he knew. I then asked him to spell the word "pond." On line 9, he pointed to a picture of a pond with ducks in it from the word bank, saying "Look." On line 10, I provided the first letter "P," and on line 11 , he successfully spelled "pond" one letter at a time.

I guided him to sound out the letter sounds for the English word "pond" because I wanted him to concretely understand the difference between pond and pool, including the parts/letters of the words. While I was pronouncing the sounds for each letter, he followed along, adding the sounds he recognized. When I asked him to spell the word, he appeared to have tired of the exercise and pointed to a picture of a pond with ducks in it from the word bank, getting my attention with the word, "Look!" Because I had pointed to pictures previously when he came across a word he was having trouble with, he seemed to copy the strategy. I also reinforced the need to finish the exercise by providing the first letter of the word "pond." He then quickly spelled the word correctly. At the end of the lesson, I asked him if he liked to swim in ponds, and he said yes.

This was the first time I did not encourage the student to tell his story (or memory associated with the translated word) right away when he brought it up. Even though I had encouraged him to access his L1, which appeared to stimulate a memory for him, I wanted him to complete the exercise in the target language prior to sharing his story. This strategy proved to be successful because it helped him stay on track and complete the task at hand. Once the session was complete, I revisited the topic and asked him if he enjoyed swimming in ponds, to which he replied he did and shared how he swam in ponds a lot in Vietnam. Waiting till the end of the
lesson to hear his story also seemed to reinforce the hierarchy between us and keep the lesson on track. I encouraged translanguaging (by prompting him to translate the English word into his native language) because I sensed that it would help him complete the task more quickly, with more ease, and because we had used this translanguaging strategy throughout the school year successfully.

From excerpt 2, I noted that I was reflecting in my field notes about that day's session with the student. While practicing reading aloud, I noticed that he hesitated on certain words longer than others. He attempted to sound them out like he did other words, but took longer to do so on words that he had not been exposed to before. This indicated to me that he needed to translanguage in order to access prior knowledge in his L1 to gain a better understanding of the word/concept. I surmised that he did not understand the meaning of those particular words, so I pointed to a picture of the word (if it was available on the page) and asked him to provide me with the Vietnamese translation for it. As my field note states,

Excerpt from Field Notes collected on 4-11-17:
1-I encouraged translanguaging with [S] today to help him understand the context and
2-content of the stories he was reading. When he didn't know what he was reading, I
3-pointed to a picture of it and asked him to tell me the Vietnamese word for it.
On lines 2-3, I commented on how he usually provided a short story after he translated the words. On lines 3-5, I gave an example from one of the books he was reading aloud to me. While he was reading the book about a boy who rode his bike down the street with his dog at his side, he hesitated seeming to indicate that he did not understand what he was reading. On line 4, I pointed to the picture of the bike on the page and said, "In Vietnamese." That was the critical incident for excerpt 2. He gave me the Vietnamese word for "bike" on line 5 and then added that there are a lot of bikes in Vietnam. I allowed him to tell his story right away this time because I felt that his memory added significant information to the activity we were doing. He was reading about a boy riding a bike and his story included his understanding of "bike" and how many people in Vietnam also ride bikes. Finally, on line 6, I reflected on how translanguaging, and the imagery that it conjured up for him, seemed to help him create meaning and complete the task in the target language. The following field note discusses the motivation for this translanguaging strategy.

Excerpt from Field Notes collected on 4-11-17:
1-The factor that impacted my expectations towards translanguaging in this context was 2-that it was worked for [S] before. He tends to elaborate once he tells me the 3-Vietnamese word for something he isn't familiar with in English. The process conjures 4-up emotions and images for him that he readily shares. This helps him process the new 5-information and put it in his memory by attaching it to his memories/images/feelings.

Like the exercise with the word "pond" in excerpt 1, it appeared that he had accessed his
L1 to recall a memory associated with the word, which seemed to generate more language in English, increasing his understanding of the word. However, unlike the previous exercise, this time I allowed him to tell his story right away. By allowing him to share, I was reinforcing the oration of the story and was encouraging him to translanguage as he read aloud. Through encouraging him to code-switch to Vietnamese, I was also encouraging him to intentionally think in his L1. Since he was reading a story aloud, adding an oral recounting of a memory only enhanced the telling of the story. It is a strategy I hoped he would continue to use for reading comprehension, as well as for reading fluency, as he becomes a more proficient reader in English.

After our session, he returned to class and took his reading fluency test with his classroom teacher. She shared with me later that he read 80 words per minute, which was an increase from the score of 10 words per minute he received on his first test of the year.

In both sessions I encouraged translanguaging by asking him to translate the English words into Vietnamese, essentially causing him to think in his L1. This helped him access memories associated with the word in his L1. Those memories seemed to help him create meaning for the English word through word association and accessing prior knowledge. I also noticed that the process of translanguaging also seemed to help him attach emotion to the new language, through recalling memories in his L1. Those emotions seemed to transfer to the new vocabulary as well, solidifying the connections between his two languages, and providing more detail-rich vocabulary in his L2 (English).

Analysis of these two sessions suggests that my use of translanguaging pedagogy in the classroom does several things. It keeps communication going and keeps students involved in the learning process by allowing students to access their $\mathbf{L} 1$ to fill in the gaps and inform the

L2/target language. Furthermore, because a student's L1 usually has more memories and feelings associated with it, the translanguaging process allows the student to use those memories and feelings to inform his/her L2, often transferring those feelings to his/her L2 as well. My data also suggest that not sharing the L1 with your students is not necessarily a handicap when he/she knows how to use translanguaging pedagogy in the classroom to increase student success.

My analysis reveals that my own view of translanguaging has also evolved throughout the course of the study. My definition of translanguaging has evolved into a useful, intentional strategy that teachers and students can use and apply across subject matters, regardless of their proficiency in their students' languages and regardless of whether or not they share the same languages. The following journal entry reflects on this topic.

Excerpt from Field Notes collected on 4-11-17:
1-I have had to change what translanguaging looks like over the course of the year in 2 -order to include intentionality. As I have learned to differentiate between code-

3 -switching, code-meshing, code-mixing, and translanguaging - the process has also
4-helped me change my expectations of how students and teachers translanguage and
5-what it looks like. Because it is not easy to recognize when someone is thinking in 6-another language, watching how they react to, and listening to what they say after

7-switching languages is key. For [S], he immediately likes to share a short story or 8-comment about the word or concept after he identifies the word in Vietnamese. His 9-explanation or story was in English, but he had to access Vietnamese to conjure up

## 10 -images and feelings attached to his story.

My reflexive journaling reveals that when a teacher is able to convey empathy and his/her desire to help his/her ELL students succeed, it is not lost on the students.

Excerpt from a Reflexive Journal noted on 4-4-17:
1-Technology has changed how we interact and language acquisition is no exception.
2-Using translation devices is a form of translanguaging. I notice that a lot of teachers
3-are frustrated by feeling as if they cannot communicate with their ELLs simply because
4-they do not speak their native language(s). I spend a lot of my time talking teachers
5-"down off the edge" by reminding them that their ELL students just need to know that
6-they care, that they are trying to communicate with them, and that they are there to

7-help them along their journey.
Therefore, good teaching pedagogy should also include empathy when considering translanguaging design in the classroom.
4.1.12 Language Moment 12: NO!

This language moment occurred with a middle school monolingual Spanish student during his science class. After working with the student in the computer lab on some language acquisition exercises, I was asked by his science teacher to assist him during her class. During science class, I often sat between him and another ELL, acting as their translator/interpreter, their bilingual resource, and their interlocutor.

This language moment highlights two things: 1) how important the teacher attitude towards translanguaging is with regard to student success, and 2) how cultural differences can impact language acquisition in the $\mathbf{L} 2$ and how translanguaging helps bridge that gap. The following excerpt is from my field notes on that day.

Excerpt from Field Notes collected on 4-12-17: (Blue=in English/Green=in Spanish)
1-Today we worked on an in-class science project where he had to fill in a worksheet 2 -on the different kingdoms and their characteristics. He was asked if he would like to 3-participate in the activity and he gave an emphatic NO! - so I relayed to [Mrs.] that he
4-wasn't quite ready. She complied, and [S] was able to relax. [S] received an A on 5 -his cell model and a $68 \%$ on his cell worksheet. When I asked him if he was happy 6-about his A, he just shrugged his shoulders. I asked him if he knew what an A meant 7-and he said No. I then wrote down the A-F system and their corresponding percentages 8 -for him. He smiled about his ' $A$ ' and asked if he could re-do the cell worksheet he 9-received a D on by asking, Puedo hacer esta homework de nuevo?

On lines 1-2, I explained the class assignment. The students in the science class were given a worksheet to fill out about the different kingdoms and their characteristics. On lines 2-3, the science teacher asked the ELL student (in English) if he would like to participate in the hands-on activity in addition to completing the worksheet. I interpreted her question for him, and he replied that he definitely did not want to participate. The science teacher consistently requested help from me and the ELL tutor, in translating worksheets into Spanish and/or sitting in class with him to act as an interpreter/translator. On this occasion, she attempted to communicate with the ELL student in English, seeming to know that I would offer assistance if
he did not understand her. When I interpreted the science teacher's question for the student, I used his L1 because I knew that he was feeling anxious and I did not want to add to his anxiety by adding English in the mix. In this case, my code-switching to his L1 appeared to comfort him. The student immediately responded to the science teacher with, "No!" indicating that he absolutely did not want to participate. He did not respond to me. He looked at his science teacher and told her, "No!" This suggests that he wanted to convey to her that he definitely did not want to participate. He did not offer an explanation, so I added that he is not quite ready yet, to ease the tension and take the focus off of him so he could begin to relax.

On lines 4-5, I state that the student received an "A" grade on his cell model that he created at home as a homework assignment. He also received a "D" on the cell worksheet that he completed as homework. I asked him in Spanish because I wanted him to access his L1 to generate words that were associated with his feelings about the grade. I hoped that he would then transfer those feelings over to English and begin to produce in the target language. When he shrugged his shoulders, it seemed that he was communicating to me that he did not understand something, so I continued in Spanish, on line 6, and asked him if he understood the grading system, to which he responded that he did not on line 7.

This is the critical incident because when I used his L1 to ask the question, and he still did not demonstrate understanding, I surmised that he was struggling with a concept not necessarily associated with language development. This prompted me to begin the search for that concept by starting with the obvious and asking if he understood what the letter grade meant. When he answered that he did not understand what it meant, I knew I needed to change gears and take time to explain it to him before beginning the class assignment.

I felt it was necessary that he understand the grading system since he would continue to be affected by it throughout the academic year, and as long as he attended school in the U.S. I found it very surprising that the issue had not come up prior to that day, and it made me wonder how long he had been confused about his grades and what other concepts we needed to develop or explain to him that might have been overlooked. By taking the time to focus on the most critical need at the moment, I demonstrated empathy for his needs and for the cultural differences that created the gap in understanding.

During the explanation of the grading system, I wrote down the "A-F" letter grades and provided their corresponding percentages to show how the grade of $68 \%$ (on his cell worksheet)
equated to a "D+ ." I conducted the lesson in both English and Spanish, intentionally codeswitching between the two languages to demonstrate how translanguaging can be effective in learning. I wanted him to access both his $\mathbf{L} 1$ and his $\mathbf{L} 2$ while I explained the grading system so that he could make connections faster between the languages. He seemed very engaged and attentive during the lesson and began smiling as he picked up his cell model that he received an "A" on. I sat back and silently watched him as he moved from his cell model to his cell worksheet, appearing to become concerned with the low grade he received on it. I patiently awaited his response, giving him time to create language, while simultaneously validating the translanguaging process by not pressuring him to answer right away.

I was rewarded at the end of the session on lines 9-10 with a question by him that appeared to demonstrate ownership of his learning. He asked me, in both Spanish and English, if he could re-do the cell worksheet that he received a poor grade on by asking, "Puedo hacer esta homework de nuevo?" (Can I do this homework/assignment over/again?) By asking me this question, it appeared that he understood how to translanguage because he used the word "homework" in English instead of its Spanish equivalent "tarea." I was pleasantly surprised when he code-switched to English for the word "homework." I did not ask him why he codeswitched to English because there are several possible motives for the switch. My interpretation of his motive did not matter as much to me as the outcome of his translanguaging did.

As his teacher, if I had not taken the time to assess his level of understanding, focus on the critical need, and respond to that need by encouraging translanguaging to increase critical thinking, then he may not have advocated for his learning by requesting another chance. Therefore, this data suggest that a teacher's attitudes about translanguaging in the classroom directly impact an ELL's success and ability to maximize communication in the target language. As my field notes states,

Excerpt from Field Notes collected on 4-12-17:
1-The factors that affected my expectations for translanguaging were: the time
2-constraints for each class and the work that needed to be done, the anxiety expressed by
$3-[S]$ and his teachers, and the environment of the class. Translanguaging helped us
4 -access the content of the class faster.
Through translanguaging, I was able to facilitate learning of the content matter faster. By my encouraging and modeling translanguaging, the student appeared to be able to make
connections between his $\mathbf{L} 1$ and $\mathbf{L} 2$ faster and maximize communication at his proficiency level in the target language. Factors such as the time constraint of the class and my student's display of anxiety in response to the task also impacted my decision to use translanguaging since it sped up the language acquisition process by creating connections between the languages that he could recall and use for similar situations in the future. Knowing that I could only meet with him one day per week, I wanted to maximize our time together, teaching him techniques he could use when I was not there to help. The following field note entry discusses how I hoped this translanguaging strategy would prove to be helpful for him during times I was not available to him as a bilingual resource.

Excerpt from a Reflexive Journal entry noted on 4-12-17:
1-The teachers have so much anxiety about [S]'s lack of progress. I have taken on
2-the task of translating a lot of the assignments for his core classes to help take the load
3-off of his teachers. [S] is also starting to act out towards the ELL tutor so her attitude 4-towards helping him has also changed for the worse. My goal is to get [S] through

5 -seventh grade and through the summer enrichment program in hopes of him doing 6-better next year.

7-For [S], I think his anxiety also comes from not knowing enough English to feel 8 -confident participating. Fear of the unknown is a powerful thing on the mind. It also 9-depends on the person. ... I think this goes to show that an environment, the attitude
10-of the teacher, and a student's background all play important roles in language 11-acquisition in the classroom, and in language choices in the classroom.

In my analysis, the student did not choose to leave his country and learn English. It was something he was faced with when his family moved to Alaska from Honduras. Furthermore, through testing, it was determined that he was functioning below grade level in his L1 (Spanish), which also seemed to impact the level at which is L1 was able to inform his L2. As his ELL teacher, my goal evolved from helping him acquire English to helping him develop his L1 alongside his L2, while advocating for his inclusion in class and advocating for culturally and linguistically responsive instruction from his core teachers. This evolution impacted my translanguaging pedagogy by changing how I view it (TL stance), what it can look like for ELLs and teachers in the classroom (TL design), and how I can help facilitate the best outcome possible for teachers and students alike as they work together along the English language
acquisition continuum, changing and responding as needed to meet the most critical needs of the students (TL shift).

### 4.1.13 Language Moment 13: Signs

This language moment occurred between a third grade student and myself during an impromptu session together. His regular classroom teacher was giving a math test during our normally scheduled time together, so I only had 15 minutes with him before he needed to return to class to take the math test. Due to the time constraint, I had him help me hang some mandatory signs about proper hygiene that the principal had given each teacher to display in the classroom. I directed him to explain to me what he was doing in English as he hung the signs. The short lesson helped him practice conversational speech, and proper present-progressive and past-tense usage of verbs in English. The following excerpt is from an audio file collected on that day.

Excerpt from an Audio File collected on 4-18-17:
$1-\mathrm{Me}:$ So, tell me what you have in your hand.
2-Student: Sticky with the number 2.
3-Me: Number 2. Where does it go?
4-Student: On the other side.
5-Me: On that side.
6-Student: That side.
7-Me: Perfect. Let me bring you number 3. Okay, Number 3. Read it. What does it 8 -say?

9-Student: Ri...
$10-\mathrm{Me}$ : Rinse.
11-Student: Rinse with W...W...
$12-\mathrm{Me}:$ With water.
13-Student: Water.
14-Me: Good job. [Silence]...Do these look straight? Let's make them straight.
15-Student: Sorry.
16-Me: No, you're good. We are going to make them straight though. Looks good to $17-\mathrm{me}$. You like them better straight?

18-Student: Yeah.

19-Me: Me too.

## 20-Student: I know, I know, I know, I know...teeth!

21-Me: Right.

## 22-Student: Can I do something?

23-Me: Sure.
24-Student: This one on this side. This one, this side. And, this one on this side and 25 -then stop... on this side.

26-Me: All on here?
27-Student: Yeah. One, two, three, STOP!
On line 1 , I ask the student to tell me what he was holding and explain aloud, in English, what the task was. On line 2 , he tells me that he has a piece of tape by referring to it as the "sticky" and a laminated number two. On line 3, I affirm that he was holding the number two and then ask him where he needs to put it on the wall. On line 4 , he tells me that the number two needs to go on the other side of number one, which had already been placed on the wall, to show the steps necessary to follow for good hand-washing practices. On line 5, I offer another way to say "on the other side" by saying "on that side" while pointing to the correct side of number one to stick the number two on the wall. On line 6 , he repeats what I said, and I affirm his reiteration on line 7. I also tell him that I will give him the next laminated number (\#3), and then asked him to read aloud the directions associated with the third step. On line 9 , he begins to read the word "Rinse" but was only able to produce the beginning sound "Ri." On line 10, I provide the correct pronunciation of the word "Rinse," and on line 11, he continues reading the directions and says, "Rinse with $\mathrm{w} . . . \mathrm{w} . .$. ," hesitating on the beginning sound of the word "water." On line 12, I provide the correct pronunciation for the word "water," and he reiterates the word correctly on line 13.

Because our session on this day was quite short, I decided to have the student help me complete a mandatory task for the classroom. Using the task as a learning opportunity, I asked him to explain the process to me as he hung the letters/steps and directions for good hygiene and proper hand washing procedures. I began by handing him the tape, laminated numbers, and direction cards. He started by placing the number one card on the wall, and I gave him the corresponding card with directions for the first step to place underneath the number. After demonstrating what the task consisted of, I gave him the number two card and asked him to tell
me what he had and what he was to do with it. This was a tactic I used to check for understanding of the task at hand. When he answered that the number two went on the other side of number one, I knew that he understood the objective of the task.

Remaining in the target language (English), I told him that I would give him the number three and the corresponding card next, suggesting that he read the directions aloud. Having already completed two of the steps, I was comfortable expanding the task to include fluency reading, as well as understanding verb conjugation and verb tenses. As he read aloud, the student hesitated on the words "rinse" and "water," appearing to wait for me to offer assistance for their proper pronunciation. It is a strategy that I recognized because he had used it with me before, knowing that if he stalled after attempting pronunciation, I would assist him. After he finished reading the card that stated, "Rinse with water," I affirmed his attempt at reading and then provided a period of silence while we both looked at the numbers and cards on the wall. By modeling this behavior, I was encouraging him to assess his work. He seemed to quickly surmise that I was passively assessing our work for efficiency and effectiveness. He also appeared to begin assessment of his own performance, by tilting his head to one side. I use silence with my ELLs to model that it is good to take time to assess our work and reflect on what we produce.

In my observation, encouraging reflection can give ELLs time to re-visit their decisions, and self-repair if necessary. It is also a strategy that they can use in other aspects of their lives as they continue to acquire languages, equipping them with a valuable technique for recognizing gaps in their learning, and determining how to bridge those gaps to optimize success.

On line 14 , I affirm his reading and follow it up with a period of silence while we both looked at all of the numbers/steps and hygiene directions we pasted to the wall, before asking him if they looked aligned to him. I then suggested that he align the numbers and directions better, and on line 15 , he apologized for not aligning them to my satisfaction prior. When I asked the student if the numbers and cards looked straight/aligned, on line 14, he immediately apologized which indicated to me that he also recognized the problem. After aligning the numbers and cards evenly above the sink, and to the left of the soap dispenser, we both agreed that the display looked better after we adjusted it. What happened next is the first critical incident. During the self-assessment process, it appeared that the student recognized a connection that he expressed aloud in English by stating, "I know, I know, I know, I
know...teeth!" I, too, recognized his connection as one between his prior knowledge about the steps to proper teeth-brushing procedures and that of proper hand-washing practices we had just displayed in the classroom. His statement suggested that he was ecstatic to share his connection between the two and wanted to convey that message, using the target language. The fact that he hesitated before making the statement suggests that he most likely used translanguaging to make the connection in his head before making the statement, accessing his knowledge about teeth brushing in Vietnamese to generate knowledge about hand washing in English. From my perspective, by modeling self-assessment and self-repair, I had encouraged him to translanguage on his own, stimulating the connection and generation of language in his L2.

On lines $16-17$, I assure him that it is alright and that the alignment is solely my preference. After aligning them, I asked him if he, too, preferred them that way. On line 18 , he stated that he did, to which I replied that I did as well on line 19 . On line 20 , he shouts out that he recognizes the steps and directions for proper hand washing as being similar to those for brushing your teeth. After making his emphatic statement, the student asked me if he could rearrange the order and alignment of the numbers and cards on the wall, to which I agreed. This is the second critical incident. Once he received the go-ahead, he adjusted the numbers and cards, placing them in the correct order, with the word "STOP" at the end, after the numbers 1, 2, and 3. He explained what he was doing (on lines 24-25) as he did it (in English), completing the initial task I asked of him at the beginning of the session. At the beginning, I had asked him to explain what he did as he hung the numbers and cards on the wall. When he finished rearranging the numbers and cards, I completed the session by checking for language acquisition by asking him if he had them all on the wall as he saw fit, to which he replied that he did. He then pointed to the numbers and cards and correctly read them in order, with a big smile on his face, ending with the word "Stop" on line 27.

The critical incidents occurred when I, as his ELL teacher, allowed him the freedom to think across his languages. Giving him the silence and "space" he needed to self-assess and self-repair also seemed to motivate the student to make connections between his L1/prior knowledge, and his L2/current task. Although the translanguaging appeared to occur (silently) in his head, the fact that it was not visible did not impact the outcome. Once he appeared to recognize the connection between the languages and contextual applications, he voiced it and demonstrated his level of understanding by using the target language successfully. The fact that
the sentence was not a perfectly correct English statement did not diminish the message; nor did it affect my ability to assess his comprehension of the task. My analysis suggests that it is not necessary for teachers to share the languages of their ELLs in order to check for comprehension so long as they are knowledgeable in ELA strategies. The following field note addresses my reflection on this translanguaging strategy.

Excerpt from my Reflexive Journal noted on 4-18-17:
1-Today reminded me of how learning by doing is an effective strategy for language
2-acquisition. ... With an increase in people's use of technology, language learning has
3 -changed. Translanguaging has also changed-in name, in concept (now with
4-intentionality), and in its use (what it looks like, who does it, and how well it is
5 -accepted)... Today [S] just wanted to do something "non-academic", so I had him 6-help me hang some signs. I turned it into a learning experience, but he didn't know it

7 -was. It seems that without labels and structure, and with intentionality and 8-purpose, learning still occurs.

I speculate that the student's language acquisition occurred after he was given time to self-assess his performance. The fact that he initiated self-repair after sharing the connection he made between prior knowledge and new content matter suggests that translanguaging took place. This process would not have likely occurred without my encouragement of translanguaging through silence, patience, and modeling the process. Factors such as the time limitation for our session, and the need to produce something less concrete did not seem to negatively impact his level of language acquisition. In other words, the less visible process of translanguaging silently did not make it less measurable.

Analysis of these language moments suggests that translanguaging can include the more silent thought process across languages. The data suggest that this process does not negatively impact language production or communication in the target language so long as the teacher's translanguaging pedagogy involves being able to identify markers of language acquisition and facilitate content relevancy for his/her ELL students. For me, this means that, not always being able to hear or see translanguaging does not necessarily mean that it is not occurring or that it is less measurable.

### 4.1.14 Language Moment 14: Story Cubes

This language moment comes from one of the last sessions I had with the third grade Vietnamese-English student. We worked on creating oral stories, using several story cube dice. The activity consisted of choosing 2-6 cubes from the pile of dice, rolling them, and describing the pictures on the cubes that landed face up. Each dice had several sides with pictures of people, objects, and/or actions on them. I instructed the student to think about the pictures, about how they might make up a story, and then align the cubes in the order of the story line. I also instructed him to tell the story aloud in English, using as much detail as possible. After a few stories in English, I instructed him to describe the pictures and tell the story in his first language (Vietnamese) first, and then tell me the same story in English. The following excerpt is from an audio file recorded on that day.

Excerpt from an Audio File collected on 4-25-17:
1-Me: Are you putting them in order? Good job.
2-Student: This guy's sick...
3-Me: First let's say what they are. Come over here. What is this? Is he sick?
4-Student: Yeah, he's sick.
$5-\mathrm{Me}$ : What is this?
6-Student: And he go in the bathroom, the ship and their bathroom and he nap...
7-Me: The ship?
8-Student: And, and he's sad.
9-Me: Okay, so tell me a story.
10-S.: This guy sick and he wanted to go to the bathroom and he see at the bathroom, 11-the sheep. He see on the ship. It's a sheep and the sheep him out of and he ran, he's 12 -sad.

13-Me: The sheep kicked him out?
14-Student: Yeah.
$15-\mathrm{Me}$ : Of the bathroom?
16-Student: Yeah.
17-Me: Okay, so there's a man who's sick and he's sneezing, and so he decides to go to 18-the bathroom.

19-Student: Yeah, he's sitting in the bathroom.

Excerpt continued from audio file transcription on 4-25-17
20-Me: Yeah.
21-Student: And, and he sees a sheep.
$22-\mathrm{Me}:$ And he sees a sheep in the bathroom, and the bathroo... and the sheep kicks him 23 -and he's sad, which is why we have a frowning face. This is a frown. Say frown.
24-Student: Frown.
25-Me: Yeah. What, um, ...Can you tell me this story in Vietnamese, please?
26-Student: [10 seconds of speech in Vietnamese. Audio File Time: 5:26-5:36.]
27-Me: I love it.
28-Student: Wait.
29-Me: Thank you.
30-Student: Want this...I want this.
31-Me: You want this one?
32-Student: Yeah.
33-Me: You can make them. Just go ahead and choose four. You don't have to roll.
34-Student: I like...
35-Me: You can choose four and tell me a story.
36-Student: Wait, wait, Can I make one this and this...?
$37-\mathrm{Me}$ : With three? Three dice?
38-Student: I ca..I. I can one.
39-Me: Okay, first you tell me what's on the cubes.
40-Student: Wait. Where the...? Oh, there it goes. Sad story.
41-Me: Okay. Tell me what's on the cubes. This is a picture of a man...
42-Student: A man, yeah.
43-Me: Lifting weights.
44-Student: The man is bigger and the different guy is lifting this...
$45-\mathrm{Me}:$ Don't tell me the story yet, just the picture. What is this?
46-Student: The guy has a song?
$47-\mathrm{Me}:$ He has earphones on with music, right? What is this a picture of?
48-Student: The hand.
49-Me: A hand. And this?

Excerpt continued from audio file transcription on 4-25-17
50-Student: Face and sad.
51-Me: What kind of face? Sad face. Okay, so you're going to tell me a story. You 52-know what I want you to do is tell me the story in Vietnamese first and then in 53-English, Okay? Tell me in Vietnamese.
54-Student: [10 seconds of speech in Vietnamese: Audio File Time 6:55-7:05]
55-Me: Okay. So now in English.
56-Student: This guy had the Army, Army head.
57-Me: Army?
58-S.: Yeah, Army head and the, the different guy listen to music song phone in the 59-summer. This guy hit him and hit the hand hit him and he mad...he was sad.
$60-\mathrm{Me}$ : So what kind of guy is this?
61-Student: Army, Army guy.
$62-\mathrm{Me}:$ This is an Army guy lifting weights?
63-Student: ...and this one different guys.
$64-\mathrm{Me}$ : And he's a different guy listening to music. And what does he do?
65-Student: He..He..this one, this guy grab. He gave grab him, hit his face, and he sad.
$66-\mathrm{Me}:$ Oh. Why did he hit his face?
67-Student: Because he very angry.
$68-\mathrm{Me}: \mathrm{He}$ 's an angry guy?
69-Student: Yeah.
On line I, asked the student to affirm that he was putting his dice in order of the story line that he had created in his mind. On line 2 , he pointed to one of the pictures on the dice and described it as a picture of a sick man. On line 3 , I directed him to continue describing the pictures on the dice that he rolled, before beginning to tell me the story. I then asked him to affirm that one of the dice had a picture of a sick man on it, with which he agreed on line 4 . On line 5 , I asked him what the picture was on another dice. On line 6, he began to tell his story by looking at the dice he rolled and creating a story line from the pictures. He stated that the sick man goes to the bathroom on a ship, and then to take a nap. On line 7, I asked him if he was saying, "ship," to which he agreed by continuing with his story, saying that the man is also sad
on line 8 . On line 9, I noticed that he wanted to continue with his story, so I directed him to tell me his story.

On lines 10-12, he told me a short story in English, while looking at the aligned story cube pictures. He told a story about a sick man who wanted to go to the bathroom on a ship. While on the ship, he also went to take a nap and saw a sheep who kicked him out, making him run away and feel sad. On line 13 , I asked him if the sheep did, indeed, kick him out of the ship's room, to which he replied that he did on line 14 . On line 15 , I attempted to clarify that the room was the bathroom, and he affirmed that it was on line 16 . On lines $17-18$, I summarized his story by restating that there was a man, who was sick and sneezing, that decided to go to the bathroom. On line 19, he added that the man was sitting in the bathroom. On line 20, I acknowledged that I understood and waited for him to continue. On line 21, he continued that the man saw a sheep in the bathroom. On lines 22-23, I again summarized the story by explaining that the man saw a sheep in the bathroom, and the sheep kicked the man, making him sad, which is why he had a frowning face. I followed it up by explaining that the cube with the picture of the man was expressing sadness by showing a frown. I also asked him to repeat the word frown, which he did on line 24.

On line 25 , I decided to ask the student to tell me the same story in Vietnamese. On line 26, he told his story in Vietnamese, which lasted 10 seconds. On line 27, I told him that I appreciated him using his first language in class, and on line 28 , he asked me to wait because it seemed that he wanted to roll the dice and do the activity again. On line 29, I thanked him for sharing, and on line 30 , he started to choose which dice to use for his next roll. On line 31, I asked him if he wanted to use one specific dice with a picture he liked on it in his next roll, and he replied, on line 32, that he did. On lines 33-35 I told him that he could just choose four dice that had pictures he liked on them to tell his next story, and he did not need to roll the die first. All he needed to do was align them in the order of his next story line. On line 36, he asked me if he could create his next story using only three dice, instead of four dice. On line 37, I asked him if he was sure he only wanted to use three dice and, on line 38 , he told me he could do it with one less dice.

On line 39 , I asked the student to first explain the pictures that were on the cubes he chose for his next story. On line 40 , he looked for a specific die with a picture that he wanted to use in his story. On line 41, I asked him to identify what the picture was on the cube. I then gave
him an example of how to explain the picture with the statement, "This is a picture of a man." On line 42 , he affirmed that the picture is of a man, and on line 43 , I added that the man was lifting weights, to which he replied that the man was large. He also began telling his story on line 44 , using the two men pictured on the dice. On line 45 , I directed him to not tell me the story yet, and then asked him to continue describing the pictures on the dice he chose. On line 46, he described another picture as being a picture of a guy/man listening to music through earphones. He posed it as a question to me since it seemed that he did not know the words for earphones or music. He asked, "The guy has a song?" to which I replied, on line 47, that the guy had earphones on, listening to music. I then asked him to identify the next picture and, on line 48 , the student stated that it was a picture of a hand. On line 49, I affirmed that he said, "hand," and asked him to identify the next picture. On line 50 , he identified a sad face.

On lines 51-53, I rhetorically asked him to affirm that he identified the picture with the frowning face as sad, and then explained that I wanted him to tell me his story in Vietnamese first, following it up with the same story in English. On line 54, he told me his story in Vietnamese, and the story lasted 10 seconds. On line 55 , I asked him to tell me the same story in English. On line 56, he began his story in English, telling me that there was a guy in the Army with an Army haircut. On line 57, I affirmed that he said, "Army," to which he replied on line 58 that he did. He then continued with his story about an Army guy, who saw another guy listening to music on his earphones during the summer. The Army guy hit the other guy with his hand because he was mad, making the other guy sad.

On line 60 , I pointed to the picture of the strong guy on the die and ask him what kind of guy it portrayed. On line 61, he answered that it portrayed an Army guy. Pointing to the same picture, I asked, on line 62, if the strong man lifting weights was the Army guy in his story. He answered, on line 63 , that he was the same guy by affirming my question and offering that the other picture referred to the other guy in the story. On line 64, I affirmed his statement about the other guy, following it up with a question about what the other guy did to deserve getting hit. On line 65 , the student explained that the other guy probably grabbed the Army guy, causing him to hit the other guy in the face, making the other guy sad. On line 66, I acknowledged that I understood his story, and then asked him, once more, why the Army guy hit the other guy in the face. On line 67, he replied that it was because the Army guy was very angry. On line 68, I asked if the Army guy character in his story was an angry guy, and on line 69 , he stated that he was.

I chose this activity to do with the student because it was a great way to reinforce a lot of the English language concepts, vocabulary, and grammar that we had been working on all year. By choosing dice to roll, identifying pictures on the dice, creating a story line, aligning the dice in order of the storyline, and telling the story aloud, the activity encouraged the student to access prior and current knowledge, use critical thinking, and practice word association, verb conjugation, story-telling, oral fluency, and connectivity. By asking him to describe the pictures on the cubes before telling the story, I was able to not only check for comprehension, but also provide him with time to build his vocabulary in the target language before telling his story. Through conversation with me, he was able to discuss the meaning of the pictures, appearing to add detail and depth to this story. Similarly, by asking him to put the dice in order of the story line, it seemed to help him align the story line in his mind before telling it aloud.

The connectivity seemed to occur when I encouraged him to tell his story while looking at his aligned cubes. From my perspective, by looking at the pictures while he developed language in his L2, he was able to attach meaning to the words he used. Furthermore, through communication about each picture, prior to telling the story, it appeared that he was able to produce more detailed language in English. This was enhanced by moments where I encouraged him to re-visit and/or re-state portions of his story while he was telling it. I repeatedly summarized his story in order to encourage him to solidify the connections he was making between the pictures and his vocabulary in the target language. I also wanted to give him time to elaborate and add more depth to his story by providing him with a moment to pause and add details if necessary. I use this tactic again by asking him to elaborate on the motive of the character's action in his second story. Acting as an interlocutor, I prompt him to think about what the motivation could have been for the Army guy to hit the other guy. In doing so, I encouraged him to critically think about the reason behind the action and what feelings/actions would have led up to that moment.

There were two critical incidents that occurred during this session. The first critical incident occurred on line 25 , during his first story, when I asked him to tell his story in Vietnamese. He had already told me his short story in English, and I noticed that he had trouble with verb tense, with differentiation between the pronunciation of the words "ship" and "sheep," and with developing transitional concepts and vocabulary that would have aided in producing more accurate English. However, because it appeared that he had developed a story line and had
identified and practiced using the critical vocabulary in English for his story, I wanted him to fill the remaining gaps by accessing his L1. I assume that he told the same story in his L1. Because I do not speak Vietnamese, I cannot be sure. Since the purpose of encouraging translanguaging was to produce more detail-rich language in his L2 (English), I was more concerned about the production of English language, than I was about what he said or how long it was. The following excerpt from my field note states,

Excerpt from Field Notes collected on 4-25-17:
1-I encouraged translanguaging today to help [S] think about what he wanted to say
2-about the short story in his native language first. Once he thought about it in
3-Vietnamese first, he was able to produce more detailed English when he told the
4 -same story aloud. He also corrected me more after we started using both languages. I
5-purposely mixed up his story when I relayed it back to him and he was able to pick up
6-the events what were out of order much more quickly after we started translanguaging,
7-than before.
By encouraging him to translanguage to his L1, an important development occurred during this language moment. On line 36 , he asked me if he could do the activity again and create another story, using one less dice than before. This indicated three things to me: 1) he was comfortable with the process/activity, 2) he wanted to demonstrate his creativity and enjoyed telling stories, and 3) through translanguaging, he had created connections between his L1 and his L2 in a meaningful way, enabling him to maximize communication in English. It appeared that my encouragement to translanguage produced a level of confidence in him that inspired him to challenge himself and achieve more. The following field note entry discusses what factors led to using this translanguaging strategy.

Excerpt from Field Notes collected on 4-25-17:
1-The key factor that impacted my attitude towards using translanguaging today was 2-seeing how [S] would hesitate before telling his story aloud. It was evident that he was

3-composing it in his head first and I wanted him to speed up the process and produce 4-more detail-rich vocabulary in English. Having him think in Vietnamese first enabled

5-him to focus on developing the story line and make it interesting, as opposed to
6-focusing more on producing the right vocabulary. Once he had what he wanted to say 7 -in Vietnamese, he did the best he could (working within his proficiency level in his

8-L2), to produce English-equivalent words and expressions. Sometimes, he would 9-translanguage (code-switch) to Vietnamese while telling the story which was a great 10 -way to showcase the utility of translanguaging.
The second critical incident occurred on lines 52-53 when I encouraged him to tell his second story in Vietnamese before telling it in English. My motivation for him telling it in his L1 first, was to assess how intentionally code-switching to his first language impacted his story once told again in the target language. He began his second story in Vietnamese, telling a story that lasted 10 seconds, without any significant pauses. When compared to the first English story he told, the second English story was 14 seconds long and demonstrated a more complete story line, containing detailed characters, a plot, motivation for the action, and clear descriptions of emotions associated with the actions. The four-second increase in the length of the second story in English also suggests that encouragement to translanguage before or during the developmental stages of an assignment equips the student with a larger set of vocabulary and concepts to use from their L1. Because I was mainly focused on language production in the student's L2 (English), I did not need to understand what he was saying in Vietnamese. Instead, I was able to assess his language acquisition by the language he produced in his L2 after having code-switched to his $\mathbf{L} 1$ during the development phase of the assignment.

For the first exercise, when the student translanguaged to Vietnamese to tell his story, before telling it again in English, it appeared that he was able to access prior knowledge in his $\mathbf{L 1}$ around the content of his story line; as well as make connections between his L1 and his L2 through multi-modal connectivity. For the second exercise, when I relayed his story back to him, out of order, he was able to identify the errors more quickly than he did the first time. This suggests that translanguaging played a significant role in helping him solidify the story line in his mind.

Analysis of this session suggests that encouraging students to translanguage provides them with access to their $\mathbf{L} 1$ in a way that increases language development in their $\mathbf{L 2}$. It also suggests that thinking in their $\mathbf{L} 1$ prior to, or during, an assignment can enrich their L2 production. The following journal entry builds upon this perspective.

Excerpt from Reflexive Journal entry noted on 4-25-17:
1-When I was listening to [S] tell his stories in Vietnamese, he had a big smile on his
2-face and laughed as he told them. When he retold them in English, he tentatively

3-looked at me to make sure I was getting the humor in them and was relieved when I
4 -showed that I did. This interaction demonstrated that the role of the interlocutor in
5-language development is not only important, but vital in keeping the anxiety
6-down and the language acquisition at an optimum level for the student. It also
7-demonstrated that translanguaging into Vietnamese first, produced more detailed 8-stories in English.
As his teacher, this session elucidated the notion that translanguaging can be used throughout any lesson to enhance student output in the target language. Overall, listening to his second English story after he intentionally code-switched to his L1 first, and comparing it to his first English story that was produced without code-switching, demonstrated the utility of translanguaging in language production. From my perspective, his language production in English was more fluid and detailed after having told the story in Vietnamese first, suggesting that his L1 was useful in informing his L2.

Overall, these sessions have helped me define what translanguaging is, what it might look like, how it can be used in the classroom by teachers and students alike, and what factors impact its use. Within the context of language moments derived from these sessions, I have identified the critical incidents where I made decisions to encourage or discourage translanguaging with my students. These decisions generally led to a change in the trajectory of the lesson/interaction with my students, eventually reaching an enlightened state where language acquisition and/or language production occurred in the target language. I often referred to translanguaging and code-switching interchangeably throughout my field notes and reflexive journaling because I was in the process of defining and re-defining what translanguaging is, and what factors impact my use and/or expectations and attitudes towards translanguaging. It is through self-analysis of my translanguaging pedagogy, alongside academic study, that I define translanguaging as the intentional, strategic process that one uses to code-switch, code-mix, and/or code-mesh across languages within their linguistic repertoire to create meaning and maximize communication.

### 4.2 Codes in Relationship to Research Questions

What follows are the codes that emerged from my data. I identify a code as a moment of analysis that provides data-specific discovery. I identified 28 codes throughout my analysis of
the 14 language moments. Table 4.1 depicts what codes I identified, and what language moments they occurred in.

Table 4.1: Coding Chart

| Codes derived from my data and analysis: | What Language Moments it comes from: |
| :---: | :---: |
| Modeling is a form of translanguaging | LM: 1,2,4,5,6 |
| Translanguaging to show solidarity | LM: 1,3,9,11 |
| TL emboldens the learner | LM: 3,7,14 |
| Collaboration with teachers | LM: 2,12 |
| Teacher does not need the same L1 | LM: 3,7,8,13,14 |
| TL to check for understanding | LM: 4,8,12 |
| TL positions the learner as the expert | LM: 4,8,10 |
| TL helps teachers build relationships | LM: 3,4,9,10,12 |
| TL increases student participation | LM: 3,4,5 |
| TL helps L1 inform L2/max. communication | LM: $1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12,13,14$ |
| TL can be a deviation from the lesson | LM: 14 |
| TL works regardless of proficiency in L2 | LM: 5,14 |
| TL can be used as a form of comfort by ELLs | LM: 2,5,6,7,11,12 |
| TL is versatile and varies per learner | LM: 4,5,13 |
| The option to TL increases student participation | LM: 5,6,7,13 |
| TL requires patience and/or silence | LM: $1,5,7,10,12,13,14$ |
| TL helps make content relevant | LM: 5,7 |
| TL helps teachers identify gaps | LM: 3,7,12 |
| TL can help develop L1 \& L2 together | LM: 8,11.12.14 |
| Thinking in L1 can be translanguaging | LM: 2,9,10,11,13 |
| TL \& connectivity/word association | LM: 1,4,5,6,10,11,14 |
| TL for time and content management | LM: 4,7,10,11 |
| TL does not disrupt communication | LM: 3,9,11 |
| TL provides platform for language pride | LM: 1,11 |
| TL can highlight cultural differences | LM: 12 |
| TL develops skills for all subjects | LM: 7,12 |
| TL \& Self-assessment/Self-Repair | LM: 2,7,13 |
| Proper pronunciation can be a form of TL | LM: 1 |

These codes are also contextualized in relation to my three research questions: 1) As a teacher, how and why do I encourage or discourage translanguaging with my ELL students? 2) What factors impact my expectations and attitudes towards translanguaging? 3) How do my own expectations and attitudes towards translanguaging change over the course of the action research? Table 4.2 depicts the relationship between the codes and the research questions and which codes I highlight for discussion.

Table 4.2: Codes in Relationship with the Research Questions

| Research Question 1: | Research Question 2: | Research Question 3: |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| As a teacher, how and why do I <br> encourage/discourage translanguaging <br> with my ELL students? | What factors impact my expectations <br> and attitudes towards translanguaging? | How do my own expectations and <br> attitudes towards translanguaging <br> change over the course of the action <br> research? |

Table 4.2 continued

| *Modeling can be a form of TL. | *ELLs and teachers might TL to <br> show solidarity. | *TL can help manage time and <br> content constraints. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Proper pronunciation can be TL. | TL can embolden the learner. | TL can help teachers check for <br> understanding. |
| *Thinking in the L1 can be TL. | *Translanguaging can position the <br> learner as the expert. | *TL can help teachers build <br> relationships faster with their <br> ELLs. |
| *Multi-modal Connectivity can be <br> TL. | TL can increase student participation. | *TL can help teachers/students <br> identify gaps in learning. |
| TL is versatile and varies per learner. | *The option to TL can increase <br> student participation. | Translanguaging can be useful for <br> all teachers. |
| TL can be a deviation from the lesson. | *TL can help the L1 inform the L2, <br> and maximize communication. |  |
| *TL can be used as comfort by <br> ELLs. | TL can be useful, regardless of the <br> student's proficiency in their L2. |  |
| *Teachers do not need to share the <br> same L1 as their students in order <br> to utilize TL. | TL can help ELLs make content <br> relevant to their lives. |  |
| *Self-assessment and self-repair can <br> be forms of TL. | *TL can develop the L1 and the L2 <br> together. |  |
| *TL requires patience and/or <br> silence. | TL can provide a platform for <br> showcasing language pride. |  |
| *TL can help keep communication <br> flowing. | TL can highlight cultural differences. |  |
|  | TL can develop skills that can be used <br> across content areas. |  |

I focused on the codes (bolded, and noted by an asterisk) because eight of them represent the codes that occurred in five or more of the language moments. The other eight codes were chosen because they represent codes that consistently reappeared (in 3-4 language moments) in the data. The remaining codes that I did not focus on can be combined with one or more of the chosen 16 since they are similar. The following sections discuss how the highlighted codes relate to my research questions, how they sometimes relate to one another, and how they are supported by the data. Using meta-analysis, I also reference portions of my initial analysis of the language moments to support my discussion of each code.

### 4.2.1 Research Question 1:

The following eight codes relate to my first research question (How and why do I encourage or discourage translanguaging with my ELL students?) because they address how I interact with my ELL students, they demonstrate how I encourage translanguaging with my students, and they help describe what translanguaging can look like in the classroom.

### 4.2.1.1 Modeling can be a form of translanguaging pedagogy

Modeling relates to my first research question because it addresses how I interact with my students. As a teacher, I tend to model translanguaging as a way to demonstrate the utility
and encourage the use of full language repertoires in the classroom. This practice is demonstrated best in language moment 2 where I work with a student on explaining the assignment given to her by her science teacher. During the session, I modeled translanguaging by intentionally code-switching between Spanish and English as I wrote down the instructions in Spanish and explained them aloud in English. I also circled the cognates between the two languages as I noticed them, modeling how to recognize and utilize the similarities between her L1 and L2 in creating meaning for concepts and vocabulary that she had trouble understanding. As explained in my analysis of language moment 2 :

I would encourage her to translanguage by modeling the process and by encouraging her to think in her L1 before producing language in her L2. I would model what intentional code-switching looked and sounded like, encouraging her to try it out on paper and orally. She appeared more comfortable producing bilingual written work than speaking in English. Following the language acquisition continuum, it makes sense that speaking is the next to last language domain to develop after listening, and reading, and before writing. It was not until I modeled a conversation with her language arts teacher where I pretended to be an emerging bilingual SpanishEnglish student like herself that she attempted it on her own.

By modeling how to move smoothly between the languages, I was able to demonstrate how to successfully use translanguaging as an effective language acquisition tool.

### 4.2.1.2 Thinking in the L1 can be translanguaging pedagogy

Thinking in the L1 can be translanguaging because, like modeling, it addresses how I interact with my ELL students. The data show that I encouraged my students to think in their L1 when I felt it would help them generate language across their linguistic repertoires in ways that enhanced their learning. This was best demonstrated in language moment 9 in which I worked with two students during a language arts lesson about hurricanes. During the lesson, the regular classroom teacher assigned some workbook questions about hurricanes; however, was unable to download the accompanying video that would have given the students visual clues to pull from in answering the assigned questions. Knowing that one student was trilingual, and another student was bilingual, I encouraged them to think in their first languages to produce traits of hurricanes (or traits of other severe weather systems), to help them generate language they could them correlate to similar descriptive words across their languages. As they came up with the
vocabulary in their first language(s), I encouraged them to write them down and then explain them to me in English. We then drew correlations between their first languages and English, also writing down descriptive words in English as a result of the discussion. The students were able to make comparisons between the languages and, ultimately, produce more descriptive language in English, successfully completing the workbook assignment.

As described in my analysis of language moment 9:
When I noticed that both students appeared to be struggling with the assignment, I decided to encourage them to think in languages within their linguistic repertoires other than English. This was the first critical incident. Because I knew that the one student was trilingual and the other was bilingual, I wanted them to generate vocabulary in their other languages in an attempt to stimulate the critical thinking necessary to create language in English.

I also wrote "Regardless of whether or not I shared the L1, I encouraged the students to think in their first language(s) and to make connections across languages both conceptually and visually." This strategy differs from modeling in that the students generated the vocabulary necessary to complete the assignment and my role was more of a facilitator. With the modeling example, I demonstrated how to translanguage, specifically and intentionally code-switching between the languages, and the students emulated the process. The expertise lay with the teacher/me. Conversely, in the "thinking in the L1 first" example, the expertise lay with the students, and I simply facilitated how to access and utilize the knowledge they already had to create meaning and maximize communication in English.

### 4.2.1.3 Multi-modal connectivity can be translanguaging

This code relates to my first research question because it demonstrates how I encouraged my students to access his L1 in ways that promote connectivity between languages within their linguistic repertoires to create meaning in the target language. The connectivity can occur through the use of a translation device to access the first language, through discussion with peers and/or me as the interlocutor, through word association, or through imagery, to name a few. This was best demonstrated in language moment 10 in which I worked with a student on creating meaning for a set of vocabulary words in both Vietnamese and English. I encouraged the student to use a translation device (the laptop) to define the vocabulary words, and then align them correctly with their corresponding pictures. This practice encourages multimodal connectivity
through word association (using the L1), and through imagery (using the pictures). As my analysis of language moment 10 shows,

I encouraged translanguaging during the session with the student to help him make the connections with new vocabulary in his L2 (English). By encouraging this connectivity, I was able to guide him to make connections between both of his languages effectively and recall newly acquired connections more quickly.
As the student made connections between Vietnamese and English for the vocabulary words using the translation device and pictures, he was also able to recall the word definitions more quickly when I re-tested him. Therefore, it seems the multi-modal connectivity helped him retain information more easily and recall that information for future use. Therefore, my data suggest that encouraging connectivity (using a variety of modes of communication and imagery) supports good translanguaging pedagogy.

### 4.2. 1.4 Using L I $/$ translanguaging can be used as comfort by ELLs

Translanguaging used as comfort also relates to my first research question. Throughout the data analysis, it became evident that my students used their L1 for a variety of reasons and in a variety of ways. One main reason they used their Ll was that it is a comfortable way to display their level of understanding through the access to, and use of, languages within their linguistic repertoires. They translanguaged to move between their languages in creative ways that created meaning and maximized communication in the target language. Since their first language(s) generally had more emotive connections, it made sense that code-switching to their first language(s) generally triggered a comforting response for them. Encouraging my students to access their L1 was a translanguaging strategy I used to ease their anxiety during stressful situations, while simultaneously valuing their first language(s).

This is best demonstrated in language moment 12 in which I work with a student during his science class to interpret his teacher's question and explain a foreign academic concept. During our session together his teacher asked him a question, in English, in front of the class, to which he responded negatively and with visible anxiety. As my analysis shows,

I asked him in Spanish because I wanted him to access his L1 to generate words that were associated with his feelings about the grade. I hoped that he would then transfer those feelings over to English and begin to produce in the target language.

By interpreting the teacher's question and asking him again in his L1, I was intentionally code-switching to Spanish. By translanguaging in this way, I was able to communicate with him in a language he was comfortable with. He immediately calmed down and asked me to convey that he was not interested in sharing in English at the time. I also used Spanish to ask him about his level of understanding about the grades he had received on some assignments. By asking him in his L1, I was able to ask a potentially sensitive question about his understanding of the American grading system, without coming across as too abrasive. The result was successful because he shared with me that he did not understand the grading system, so we were able to determine the critical need and focus on that first. I anticipate that without translanguaging, that level of comfort and trust might have been more difficult to achieve.
4.2.1.5 Teachers do not need the same L1 as their students to utilize TL pedagogy This statement relates to my first research question because it directly addresses how teachers do not need the share the same languages as his/her students in order to use translanguaging pedagogy. Language moment 3 demonstrates how I did not need to know my student's L1 in order to utilize translanguaging to encourage student language acquisition. In language moment 3, I worked with the student on expanding his understanding of some sight words identified by his regular classroom teacher.

In my analysis of language moment 3 , I wrote,
When I asked him "show me jog and Jaci," I was not sure how it would turn out. I hoped
he would understand what I was asking. I had the translation program up and ready
in case I needed to use it to translate my instructions; however, he knew exactly what to do. He stood up and started running around the room and then stopped and pointed to me. I had not modeled what to do when I asked him to show me "jog" and "Jaci," so he was able to determine what he needed to do on his own.

Through review of the flash card words, I encouraged him to share his current knowledge about the vocabulary words, research the word meanings in his L1 on a translation device, generate other words in English that started with the same letter, and demonstrate understanding by physically acting out certain words. Without knowing his L1, I was hesitant to use the same strategies I had used in the past to check for understanding with students whose L1 I shared because I was not sure I would be able to determine his level of comprehension. However, using gestures and allowing him access to a translation device provided us both with the support
and confidence we needed to attempt communication. As a result, we were able to translanguage across the languages, using the laptop and proven language acquisition strategies.

Language moment 13 also provides a good example of how teachers do not need to share the same L 1 as their students in order to utilize translanguaging pedagogy in the classroom. In language moment 13, I worked with an ELL student on hanging some mandatory hand-washing signs in the classroom. Because I had a limited amount of time ( 15 minutes) with the student that day, I used the sign task as a language lesson. I asked the student to hang the signs in the order of proper hand-washing hygiene steps, explaining in English as he went along By providing him with silence and patience, he was able to not only hang them in the correct order, but also self-assess and self-repair when he noticed that he needed to re-arrange them before finishing task. The following excerpt from my analysis of language moment 13 speaks to this process.

The fact that the sentence was not a perfectly correct English statement did not diminish the message; nor did it affect my ability to assess his comprehension of the task. My analysis suggests that it is not necessary for teachers to share the languages of their ELLs in order to check for comprehension so long as they are knowledgeable in ELA strategies.

The exercise demonstrated that I, as his teacher, did not need to share the same L1 as his in order to assess his language acquisition. Being that he spoke Vietnamese, which is not one of the languages within my linguistic repertoire, I used silence for assessment of his language acquisition by providing him with the time, space, patience, and silence to self-assess and selfrepair until the task was completed correctly.

### 4.2.1.6 Translanguaging can support self-assessment and self-repair

My data suggest that some students use translanguaging specifically to self-assess their progress and self-repair when needed. In my analysis of language moment 7, where I work with a student on reading comprehension using an interactive website, I demonstrate how encouraging my student to translanguage prompted her to self-repair until she achieved the correct pronunciation of the English words/names.

In language moment 7 , we began the session by using the computer prompts to model correct reading fluency. As the lesson progressed, the student attempted to read aloud, stalling when she came across words she was unsure about pronouncing correctly. Once I offered the
correct pronunciation of the word(s), she emulated my corrections. As she learned how to pronounce certain English word endings, she immediately applied the new knowledge to the next similar situation while she read aloud.

In my analysis of this language moment, I described that when the student finished reading her passage, she came across one last word where she hesitated. When reading "Mayor Franklin's," she left off the final "s." Before I could finish pronouncing it correctly for her, she self-repaired and pronounced it correctly. This form of self-repair suggests that she had taken full ownership of the translanguaging process and knew how to apply it to different contexts. By using Spanish, I was able to compare and contrast her L1 and L2 in a way that increased understanding and equipped her with the knowledge needed to self-repair the next time a similar situation presented itself.

### 4.2.1.7 Translanguaging requires patience and/or silence

In keeping with language moment 7, patience is also highlighted in the session with the student where we work on reading fluency and comprehension. It also relates to my first research question because it addresses a necessary teacher attribute (patience) that directly impacts the success of translanguaging in the classroom. Therefore, a teacher might embrace a translanguaging pedagogy if she/he understands what it entails and what it requires from her/him in order to be successful.

In my analysis of language moment 7, I discussed that as her teacher, I recognized that being patient as these processes took place was just as important as knowing when and how to utilize translanguaging to help her succeed. By allowing her time to respond, I encouraged translanguaging to occur, eventually leading to language production in her L2. This session suggests that the moments of self-repair were aided greatly by providing her with silence and the time necessary to make the deductions and revelations necessary to self-repair. In other words, when I would specifically correct her pronunciation of an English word and then intentionally code-switch to Spanish to explain why the pronunciation is different between the two languages, I would then allow her time to process the information and apply it to the next similar situation that presented itself. I only offered a correction after she made multiple errors or requested assistance.

### 4.2.1.8 Translanguaging can help keep communication flowing

This code relates to my first research question because it addresses another strategy I use to encourage translanguaging in the classroom and its usefulness in not disrupting the flow of conversation between bi/multi-linguals. In language moment 9 , I work with two students (one trilingual student and one bilingual student) to complete a worksheet about hurricanes. Because I did not share the same languages as the trilingual student, I encouraged him to think in his first languages to generate vocabulary associated with traits of hurricanes. I did the same with the bilingual student, encouraging him to also generate vocabulary about similar weather systems in his first languages. I worked with them simultaneously, writing down the words they generated in English after thinking in their first languages.

This strategy worked well because I was able to continue communication with both of them, simultaneously, without sharing all of their languages. Through translanguaging, they were able to access their first languages, produce words in their L1, communicate with me about their word choices, and ultimately produce applicable vocabulary words in the target language (English) to complete the assignment. The following excerpt form my analysis of language moment 9 states,

My encouragement to translanguaging in the classroom greatly impacted these students' performances, helping them maximize communication in the language of instruction. Regardless of whether or not I shared the L1, I encouraged the students to think in their first language(s) and to make connections across languages both conceptually and visually. Through the process of translanguaging, it appeared that they were able to access prior knowledge that provided them with an increased vocabulary base to pull from in producing English.

It was evident to me that both students benefitted from translanguaging in the classroom. After accessing their L1, it appeared that they were able to maximize communication in the target language.

Through embracing a translanguaging pedagogy that encouraged accessing the L1 and using word association, we were able to complete the classroom task without disrupting the flow of conversation.

### 4.2.2 Research Question 2:

The following five codes relate to my second research question (What factors impacted my expectations and attitudes towards translanguaging?) because they showcase the motivating factors that impacted my decisions to encourage translanguaging in the classroom. They also highlight the utility of translanguaging for both the bilingual student and the teacher of English language learners.

### 4.2.2.1 ELLs and teachers might translanguage to show solidarity

Translanguaging to show solidarity relates to my second research question because it addresses the things that determine the why behind translanguaging pedagogy. In other words, knowing what factors impact the decision to encourage translanguaging in the classroom helps teachers determine why it might be useful in language acquisition.

In language moment 1 , solidarity is highlighted as both a motivating factor to translanguage in the classroom, and as a product of translanguaging. Throughout the session, I worked with the student on a social studies assignment where he researched country facts on an assigned South American country. The student was researching facts about Uruguay, including the name of its capital. After making a connection with him by explaining that I used to live and study in Argentina (a neighboring country), I provided him with the proper pronunciation of "Montevideo" (the capital of Uruguay) and "Uruguay." He immediately noticed the difference between how I pronounced it and how his teacher had pronounced it, and he asked me to teach him how to pronounce it in "a non-white way." This led to a discussion between us about cultural differences and what pronouncing something in a "non-white way" meant to him. Sharing his Indigenous language greatly impacted our ability to communicate on this level, and helped me understand why he explained the pronunciation of the names the way that he did.

In my analysis of language moment $1, I$ wrote,
It appeared to me that he used "OK" in English, and then followed it up with "Quyana" (Thank you) in Yugtun to show solidarity with out translanguaging momentum. It also indicated to me that he wanted to thank me in a language that we both shared, but not many others around him did, demonstrating as sense of pride for his [L1], and privacy that was afforded the both of us. As his interlocutor, I felt his use of Yugtun indicated solidarity.

Once I taught the student how to properly pronounce the Spanish names, he asked me where the capital was on the map, and I translanguaged by intentionally code-switching to Yugtun to answer his question. By code-switching in this example, I demonstrated solidarity with the translanguaging moment, valuing all three languages (English, Spanish, and Yugtun) simultaneously. He also picked up the momentum and began translanguaging as we continued to communicate about the assignment, suggesting that he, too, wanted to show solidarity.

This code differs from the others in that it highlights a motivation for translanguaging, giving teachers a greater understanding of why students might choose to translanguage on their own. Aside from language acquisition, translanguaging can be used to showcase language pride, express solidarity, or address a whole host of other sociocultural needs.

### 4.2.2.2 Translanguaging Pedagogy can position the learner as the expert

Translanguaging to position the learner as the expert relates to the second research question because it addresses what factors impact my expectations and attitudes towards translanguaging. When translanguaging pedagogy positions the student as the expert, it can strengthen the relationship between the teacher and the student, and validate the student's language and culture. As a result, teachers might view translanguaging as an effective tool in the classroom.

Positioning the student as the expert in the classroom is highlighted in language moment 4 where I worked with a student on learning vocabulary around lunch food items, the time he eats lunch, and school lunch procedures. We had been focusing on identifying the English names for certain food pictures in a workbook. As the student offered their names, I wrote them down on paper in English. I also provided him with a translation device where we had researched some of the word names in his L1 as reference. During the lesson, he tired of the procedure so I re-directed the lesson to apply to his life and asked him what time he eats lunch. After including some hand gestures and allowing him to translanguage to Vietnamese, using the translation program, we were able to have a conversation about what time he eats lunch and what he normally eats for lunch. He also noticed the compound word "hotdog" in English is made up of two words, and is also used in its English form in the Vietnamese definition.

In my analysis of language moment 4 , I discussed that we ended the session with me attempting to repeat the Vietnamese translations and him correcting my pronunciation. He appeared to enjoy that very much, which made me realize that this type of role reversal is an
effective strategy among emerging bilinguals and their teachers. It positions the student as the expert, and places the teacher in a position that helps build empathy and appreciation for her/his students. It also conveys a message of respect for the L1, which often translates to a message of respect for the student and his/her culture as well.

The exchange consisted of him identifying English words, and me correcting his English where necessary. It also consisted of my pronunciation of the Vietnamese words that he referenced during the lesson, and his correction of my pronunciation. Allowing him to correct me in the same manner that $I$ had corrected his English placed him in the position of expert. This process validated both his efforts and his language, while building trust between us as mutual learners.
4.2.2.3 The option to TL can increase student participation

Providing the option to translanguage as a form of translanguaging relates to the second research question because knowing how the option to translanguage can affect students' language acquisition and production, can impact how teachers view translanguaging in the classroom.

Language moment 6 highlights how having the option to translanguage impacted the student's confidence during the language lesson. In language moment 6, I worked with the student on a website to practice animal and color names in English through the medium of interactive games. I provided him with a translation program to reference his L1 while playing the matching game on a different device.

In my analysis of language moment 6 , I wrote,
Regardless of the fact that this student chose not to use the translation program to produce more accurate English, it appeared that he felt comfortable enough to attempt communication in the target language. I attribute his comfort to having the translation program available to him and to the level of consistency that he could expect around repetition and affirmation of his verbal contributions. Having the translation program available to him afforded him with a safety net where his L1 was ready and available for reference if needed.

Although he did not use the translation program to access his L1 to help him navigate the interactive game more easily, it seemed that having the option to translanguage provided him
with the comfort he needed to attempt language production in English, knowing that it was there as support.

This code differs from the others in that it is more abstract than concrete. In other words, knowing how the option to translanguage impacts student learning and teacher attitudes is more difficult to measure than hearing a student intentionally code-switch or visually reference their L1 on a translation program. However, that does not make it less effective for students learning language. Like teachers who do not share the same L1 as their students, teachers can recognize and utilize the benefits of translanguaging in the classroom, regardless of whether or not they speak the same L1 as their students. Although it is difficult to definitively determine how the option to translanguage impacts their students' language acquisition, teachers can observe it as an effective strategy that yields positive results.

### 4.2.2.4 Translanguaging can help the L1 inform the L2 and maximize communication

Translanguaging to help the languages inform one another relates to my second research question because it is a factor that can impact teachers' expectations and attitudes towards translanguaging in the classroom. Language moment 14 highlights how an ELL's L1 can inform his/her L2.

In language moment 14, I worked with the student on producing English through story telling. We used a set of story cubes with pictures on them where he rolled the dice and created a story out of the pictures that landed face-up. After aligning the dice in the order of the storyline, he told his story in English (his L2) and then in Vietnamese (his L1). Eventually, I directed him to do the same activity, reversing the order of the languages in his story.

In my analysis of language moment 14 , I wrote,
My motivation for him telling it in his L1 first, was to assess how intentionally codeswitching to his first language impacted his story once told again in the target
language. He began his second story in Vietnamese, telling a story that lasted 10 seconds, without any significant pauses. When compared to the first English story he told, the second English story was 14 seconds long and demonstrated a more complete story line, containing detailed characters, a plot, motivation for the action, and clear descriptions of emotions associated with the actions. ... Because I was mainly focused on language production in the student's L2 (English), I did not need to understand what he was saying in Vietnamese. Instead, I was able to assess his language acquisition by the
language he produced in his L2 after having code-switched to his L1 during the developmental phase of the assignment.
The data showed that the story he told in English, after having told it in Vietnamese first, produced more detail-rich vocabulary. It also showed that my encouragement to translanguage to the student's L1 first impacted how I viewed its effectiveness in producing English. It did not matter that I could not understand what he said in Vietnamese when he told his story in his L1 first because I was more concerned about his production in English when he told it again. Knowing what he said in his L1, and how he used it to develop his L2, is less important than knowing that he used his $\mathbf{L} 1$ to develop his $\mathbf{L} 2$ and that it developed more detailrich vocabulary in his L2.

### 4.2.2.5: Translanguaging can develop the L1 and L2 together

This code relates to my second research question because it highlights how needing to develop the L1 and L2 together impacts the use of translanguaging in the classroom. In language moment 8 , I worked with a student who tested below grade level in his first language (Spanish). Knowing this, I began working with him to assess his knowledge in his L2 (English) in order to inform me of what strategies to use with him for development of both of his languages (Spanish and English) and to inform me of what strategies and methods to suggest to his core teachers. In language moment 8 I worked with him on a computer program that practiced the English alphabet. Through assessment of his knowledge of the English alphabet on the computer, I used both languages to discuss the similarities and differences between the Spanish and English alphabets, essentially developing both languages simultaneously. The following excerpt from my analysis of language moment 8 states,

Knowing that sometimes both languages need development changed how I view translanguaging. As a teacher, I found it enlightening to see how we used translanguaging to develop both of his languages. It also helped me understand the role of the L1 in developing the L2. It also highlighted the importance of the teacher's attitudes towards translanguaging pedagogy by demonstrating how teachers can use it as a tool for assessment in both languages and a tool for simultaneous development of both languages.

Therefore, my data suggest that using translanguaging to develop both languages can be an effective component of a successful translanguaging pedagogy for teachers.

### 4.2.3 Research Question 3:

The following three codes relate to my third research question (How have my own expectations and attitudes towards translanguaging changed over the course of the study?) because they demonstrate how translanguaging can help teachers develop an effective translanguaging design for the bilingual classroom. They also highlight the variables that can impact translanguaging pedagogy such as time and content management.

### 4.2.3.1 Translanguaging can help manage time and content constraints

Translanguaging to help manage time and content constraints relates to my third research question because it highlights a characteristic of translanguaging that was foreign to me until I collected enough data to change my viewpoint. As a teacher of ELLs for several years, I was aware of the benefits of bilingualism and the benefits of translanguaging (although the term is relatively new to me); however, I did not view it as a tool for time and content management. It was not until the time constraints of my schedule limited me to short sessions, where a lot of material needed to be taught, that translanguaging became all the more useful. Encouraging translanguaging in the classroom seemed to help my students maximize communication and complete tasks more quickly and effectively.

In language moment 10, I worked with a student on learning the names for people, relationships, and some common items at school. Using a list of vocabulary words from his regular classroom teacher, we created flashcards to practice the recognition, comprehension, pronunciation, and orthography of the words in English. Using a translation program, I directed him to access his L1 for the definition of each word, prompting him to also draw a picture of the items/words on a separate set of index cards. I then directed him to match the cards with the English words and Vietnamese definitions to the cards with the pictures he drew. The language moment highlighted a conversation between us around the words "baseball" and "bat." In my analysis of language moment 10 , I wrote:

The main factor that impacted my attitude towards translanguaging during the lesson was the need for [the student] to learn a large number of new vocabulary words that he could recall and use successfully in his regular education classroom. ... The fact that he needed a great deal of new vocabulary in a way that would encourage long term retention, impacted my choice to use translanguaging during the lesson.

The session demonstrated that translanguaging became especially useful when a lot of information needed to be taught. Knowing that I had a lot of vocabulary words to teach him, I encouraged him to translanguage by using the translation program to access his L1 so that he could make connections faster between his languages, and in a way that encouraged long-term retention.
4.2.3.2: Translanguaging can help teachers build relationships faster with their ELLs Translanguaging to build relationships relates to my third research question. Because it directly impacted student-teacher relations, it also impacted my views towards translanguaging and how they changed over the course of the study.

In language moment 3, the student-teacher relationship is highlighted through my interaction with a student on building his understanding of a set of vocabulary words identified by his regular classroom teacher. During the session, I directed him to come up with other words that began with the same English letter, while also identifying the Vietnamese version in a multilingual dictionary. When he came upon the word "ant," he wanted to tell me a story about his understanding of the word and how there are several types of ants in Vietnam. This interest changed the trajectory of the lesson and I encouraged him to continue translanguaging and research the pictures he wanted to show me on the computer. We typed "hot peppers" into the search engine (in English), and he proceeded to tell me a story about how he had been bitten by ants in Vietnam and how difficult they were to kill.

In my analysis of language moment 3 , I wrote,
The second critical incident occurred when I walked the student over to my desk and sat his chair next to my laptop as I typed "hot peppers" into the search engine.

When the pictures came up, we began to scroll through them, one by one. He laughed aloud and said, "Vietnam hot peppers!" I then told him that I like hot peppers and asked him if he did as well. He answered affirmatively and we smiled at one another, finding common ground on a more personal level.

Encouraging him to translanguage in this way, and allowing him to share a story from his experiences and culture, helped build our student-teacher relationship. From my perspective, allowing him to expound upon something from his culture that he liked and wanted to share with me created space for him to view me as someone who cares not only about his language acquisition, but also about his happiness and health as a person.

### 4.2.3.3 Translanguaging can help teachers/students identify gaps in learning

Translanguaging to identify gaps in learning relates to my third research question because it addresses how teachers can utilize translanguaging to enhance their students' learning. Knowing how to identify gaps more easily directly impacted my expectations and attitudes towards translanguaging throughout the action research.

In language moment 7, I worked with a student on her reading comprehension by using an interactive website where she read a passage on the computer and answered questions about the story. She read portions of the passage aloud and used me, or the computer, as a guide to correct her pronunciation when needed. The language moment centered around a storyline where a boy named Jermaine was looking for his grandmother's lost hat. The student chose to read most of the passage aloud, stalling when she had trouble with pronunciation, or with past tense endings. When she had trouble with pronunciation or past tense endings, I translanguaged to her L1 to explain what she needed to do and/or to explain the reason for the proper pronunciation or grammatical structure of the word.

In my analysis of language moment 7 , I wrote about the student hesitating in her reading of the passage when she got to the word "walked":
[She] phonetically pronounced it "walk-kid", separating the verb from the past tense ending of "-ed." To address the error, I offered the correct pronunciation. It seemed that she understood the problem; however, she was not sure how to fix it just yet. After another error in the pronunciation, I translanguaged by intentionally code-switching to Spanish again. ... In Spanish, I offered the translation for "walked," stating "caminó" (past-preterite tense of the infinitive the verb "to-walk"), following it up with the English version. My intent was to prompt her to start thinking in her L1. Perhaps the gap in the comprehension resided in the need to understand that "-ed" meant past tense in English. By offering her the translation for "walked" in her L1, she was able to access her prior knowledge around past tense endings (in both languages) and apply that knowledge to the current context.

Each time I translanguaged to her L1 to provide the explanation, she was able to apply what she had learned to the next similar situation. What the data suggested was that, through translanguaging, I was able to identify the gaps in her learning and translanguage to explain the reasons for the difference in pronunciation between the two languages.

Throughout the study, my expectations and attitudes towards translanguaging changed as I witnessed how different students and situations impacted its use and effectiveness in the classroom. I believe it was the same for my students as they used translanguaging and began to see how it benefitted their acquisition of the English language and how they navigated similar situations across different content areas.

The following chapter addresses how the literature and my data define translanguaging within the context of my research questions and how that informed my findings.

## Chapter 5 Conclusion

The following discussion addresses how the literature and my data define and discuss translanguaging within the context of my research questions. Further, I discuss the similarities and differences between the literature and my research findings. I also discuss how my understanding of translanguaging has evolved and, in turn, has influenced my teaching practices. Finally, I discuss what advice I have for other teachers and what implications my work has regarding training ELL teachers and tutors, and opportunities for further research.

### 5.1 Translanguaging Stance and Awareness as an ELA teacher

Over the course of the study, my definition of translanguaging has evolved from being the umbrella for code-switching, code-meshing, and code-mixing to focusing on strategies and intentionality employed by the teacher in the classroom. As a teacher of ELLs, I also learned how and why I encouraged translanguaging with my students (research question \#1), what factors impacted my expectations and attitudes towards translanguaging (research question \#2), and how my expectations and attitudes changed over the course of the study (research question \#3). My data derived from language moments that categorized discovery within the context of addressing my research questions.

As I continued to read various authors' definitions of translanguaging pedagogy, and as I collected and analyzed my data, I began to revise my own definition of translanguaging, and how I viewed its utility in the classroom. I began to view translanguaging that occurred in various language moments as a strategic, intentional process that used those forms in interaction with one another across the languages within a bilingual's repertoire. With regard to translanguaging, my pedagogical view is that it is a natural, strategic process that bilinguals intentionally utilize to navigate new information, create meaning, and maximize communication. Being able to go back and identify the critical incidents that occurred in the language moments, and analyze when, where, how, and why the critical incidents occurred and aided in language acquisition, led to discovery. That discovery impacted how I view the utility of translanguaging pedagogy and how I teach my ELL students.

In addressing the rationale for the study, the literature supports discussion around translanguaging by referring to Garcia and Kleyn's (2016) work. Their work focuses on how teachers who adopt a translanguaging stance need to abandon traditional deficit views towards
bilingualism and embrace translanguaging design and shifts. This is done within the context of defining the key characteristics of translanguaging as strategy (Creese \& Blackledge, 2010; Garcia, 2009; May, 2014) and intentionality (Creese \& Blackledge, 2010; Garcia \& Kleyn, 2016).

Finally, the literature provides examples of teachers using translanguaging successfully in the classroom (Collins \& Cioè-Peña, 2016; Garcia \& Kleyn, 2016; Garcia, Johnson, \& Seltzer, 2017). All of this discussion informed my analysis of the language moments and critical incidents that led to discovery, coding, and conclusions within my research.

### 5.2 Teaching Practices

My teaching practices have also changed over the course of the study. Through interaction with my ELL students throughout the study, and through detailed observation of my own practice and reflexive journaling, I now approach teaching and learning through a different lens than I did before. Keeping my research questions in mind, I approached each session with my students from a critical standpoint, documenting and evaluating how and why I encouraged or discouraged translanguaging with my ELLs, what factors impacted my expectations and attitudes towards translanguaging, and how my own expectations and attitudes towards translanguaging changed over the course of the study. Approaching each session from this perspective helped me identify the critical incidents that increased student participation, impacted student buy-in to the lesson, led to student language acquisition and production, and helped me identify where I made a choice to encourage translanguaging. I then incorporated that knowledge into my teaching, hoping to increase the utility of translanguaging and student language acquisition, and increase my ability to draw on my students' full linguistic repertoires to support their learning.

To provide an example from my data, during one session with an ELL student, I used an interactive online program to assess the student's knowledge in his first language. Because his teachers had expressed concern that he was having trouble keeping up in class, and he had scored below grade-level in his first language on a reading assessment test, I wanted to assess his knowledge in his second language to see if he was functioning on grade level in either language. His interaction with the online program demonstrated that he was having trouble with the alphabet letter names and sounds in his first language, as well as in English, signaling that he
was reading well below his grade level. By encouraging him to use the bilingual program, I was encouraging him to translanguage across both languages in order to complete the assignment. I also translanguaged with him by intentionally code-switching between both Spanish and English as I explained the assignment and modeled how to complete the task. By encouraging and modeling translanguaging in this way, I was able to communicate instructions more easily, identify the gaps in his learning more quickly, and encourage him to continue translanguaging to develop both of his languages alongside one another, each informing the other. Baker, Jones, and Lewis (2012) support this theory with their discussion about how "translanguaging allows more effective learning due to the cross-language semantic remapping that occurs when the encoded information in one language is retrieved to enable production in the other language" (p. 650).

### 5.3 Translanguaging Pedagogy Categories

After multiple cycles of analysis, and based on Charmaz's (2014) model of looking for the categories that emerge out of your analytic framework, I identified three categories. The categories are based on commonalities that emerged from the codes, beyond the research questions. To make sense of the commonalities that emerged, I then grouped them in the categories based on their similar relationship with one another.

The first category is titled Demonstrating Unity and consists of the following codes. I encouraged translanguaging through modeling it, to show solidarity, to help build stronger relationships with my students, and to position the student as the expert. The second category is titled Working in Multiple Languages and consists of the following codes. I encouraged translanguaging to help ELLs complete tasks by thinking in their first language, to facilitate the development of the first language and second language together, to facilitate student selfassessment and self-repair, to demonstrate that teachers do not need to share the same first language as their students to utilize translanguaging in the classroom, and to help student languages inform one another. The third category is titled Using Good Teaching Practices and consists of the following codes. I encouraged translanguaging to keep communication flowing, by being patient and silent, to give ELLs a back-up option as support, to manage time constraints and material loads, to help identify gaps in learning, to ease student anxiety, and to give ELLs multiple modes of connectivity through translanguaging. Consider Table 5.1 for a visual representation of these categories.

Table 5.1: Categories of Translanguaging Pedagogy

| I encouraged translanguaging: |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Demonstrating Unity | Working in Multiple Languages | Using Good Teaching Practices |
| *Through Modeling it. | *To help ELLs complete tasks by thinking in their L1. | *To keep communication flowing. |
| *To show solidarity. | *To facilitate the development of the L1 and L2 together. | * By being patient and silent. |
| *To help build stronger relationships with my students. | *To facilitate student selfassessment and self-repair. | *To give ELLs a back-up option as support. |
| *To position the student as the expert. | *To demonstrate that teachers do not need to share the same L1 as their students to utilize TL in the classroom. | *To manage time constraints and material loads. |
|  | *To help student languages inform one another. | *To help identify gaps in learning. |
|  |  | *To ease student anxiety. |
|  |  | *To give ELLs multiple modes of connectivity through Translanguaging. |

### 5.3.1 Demonstrating Unity

Under this category, these codes work together because they stem from a translanguaging pedagogy that focuses on how translanguaging demonstrates unity between the teacher and student(s) and unity between the bilingual(s) and his/her languages.

My data support that I encouraged translanguaging through modeling it with my ELL students. To give an example from my data, I modeled translanguaging with one of my ELLs during a session where I worked with a student on reading comprehension, using an online interactive website. As she read the passage aloud in English and attempted to answer the reading comprehension questions given by the computer program, she had the choice of using the "Hint" option provided by the program or using me as a bilingual interlocutor and resource. She consistently chose to use me as a resource when she came across a word she had trouble pronouncing or when she did not understand the question. I would model how to pronounce the word, often code-switching and code-mixing between Spanish and English to explain the
morphemic and sentential differences between the words and their parts. By intentionally codeswitching and code-mixing, I encouraged translanguaging and demonstrated how to use it to create meaning and maximize communication in English.

According to my data, modeling can be a form of translanguaging. It is my view that teachers should intentionally code-switch to a language that increases student participation and buy-in. This practice is aligned with viewing translanguaging as being a powerful construct that bilinguals use to create meaning. Baker (2011), Bialystok (2001), Garcia (2009), and Lightbown and Spada (2013) describe bilingualism as an additive phenomenon. They posit that bilinguals use translanguaging for a variety of reasons. Similarly, my research has illustrated that my students have vast sources of linguistic resources available to them.

My data show that I also translanguaged to show solidarity within the language moment. By encouraging translanguaging with my students, I demonstrated solidarity with the student and his/her language and kept with the translanguaging momentum. This also led to my students voluntarily and intentionally translanguaging to enjoy privacy within the language moment and to show solidarity with the translanguaging momentum. In line with Baker (2011) and Sert (2005) my data suggest that teachers and students translanguage for a variety of reasons, including to convey connectivity with another bilingual.

To give an example from my data where I used translanguaging pedagogy to show solidarity, I reference a session with an ELL student where I helped him complete a class project on a country in South America. Using translanguaging, I used his first language (Yugtun) to refer to pertinent information we researched online about his assigned country. I also encouraged him to notice the similarities between his first language and the native language of the country he was researching (Uruguay), which encouraged him to request that I teach him how to properly say the name of the country. Through translanguaging in this way, I expressed solidarity with the student by connecting with him through his first language. I also expressed solidarity with the multilingual momentum that occurred, by acknowledging his recognition of the similarities between the languages and responding positively to his request to teach him how to say "Uruguay" as a native speaker of Spanish.

Further, my data suggest that I used translanguaging pedagogy to build stronger relationships with my students. By using their first language, and encouraging translanguaging, I was able to communicate with them in ways that sped up the process of discovery. By
encouraging translanguaging, and often using their first language to explain the process, I was able to connect with them using their native language. When I encouraged my students to translanguage, and/or I translanguaged with my students, it appeared to positively impact our teacher-student relationships. This was most evident in the language moments where I used translanguaging to encourage my students to make a personal connection to the material. For example, when I worked with four ELL students (all with different L1s and varying levels of proficiency in English) on teaching new vocabulary words, I encouraged them to translanguage by providing them with a translation device so they could use their first language to inform their understanding of the new information. I also encouraged them to use multiple resources to create meaning, such as using Boogie Boards (digital drawing pads), having conversations with one another, participating in the group discussion, using language dictionaries, and using me as the interlocutor by asking questions. Specifically, by introducing different mediums like the Boogie Boards, I encouraged the students to draw what the word meant to them personally. We then discussed the different definitions with one another as we shared our drawings. In doing so, we learned a great deal about one another's cultures and languages, effectively strengthening our teacher-student relationships.

Gomez and Garcia (2012) discussed teacher empathy and how it impacts teachers' views towards translanguaging and teacher-student relationships. They posit that teachers develop a visible posture toward linguistic happenings in the classroom, which can impact how students feel about translanguaging (Gomez \& Garcia, 2012, p. 69). In my research, these personal connections were usually accompanied by emotive responses that produced detail-rich vocabulary in the target language. It also allowed for me to connect with my students on a more personal level through discussion of how we shared some of the same experiences associated with the lesson. Logan and Wimer (2013) also posit that teacher attitudes matter in the classroom, suggesting that one way to build stronger relationships with his/her students is for teachers to be aware of how they encourage or discourage their students' linguistic practices. I found this to be true in my research as well.

Lastly, my data illustrate that I translanguaged to position my students as the experts. I often asked my students to translate vocabulary words we were learning into their first language(s) or to teach me the proper translation and/or pronunciation of the words in their language(s). This practice positioned them as the expert, effectively increasing their confidence
and participation in the lesson. It also demonstrated respect for their language(s) by showing that they are as important as English. In one particular lesson with an ELL student, I prompted him to translate all of the English vocabulary cards into his first language (Vietnamese) while also matching them to images. I then asked him to give me the English and Vietnamese names for each card and image aloud as he reviewed them. After each one, I attempted to repeat his Vietnamese pronunciations, purposefully not repeating the English versions. He gently correctly my tonal pronunciations for each word until I got them right. The data show that he did not abuse the sense of power or use it negatively; but rather, he enjoyed being the "expert." At the end of the lesson, he then asked me to do the same for him as he reviewed the English names for each card.

Garcia and Kleyn (2016) discuss the concept of students as experts in their discussion of different classroom case studies where teachers encourage students to translanguage in small table groups so as to utilize similar linguistic features and benefit from one another's expert knowledge of their first languages. They posit that students benefit from one another's language practices, sharing linguistic features and ways of communication. According to my research, this also applies to teacher-student relationships. As a part of translanguaging pedagogy, this suggests that positioning the student as the expert leads to mutual respect between the teacher and student in terms of understanding the language acquisition process, and to increased student participation. This conclusion adds to the existing theory base that suggests that teachers are the only experts.

### 5.3.2 Working in Multiple Languages

These codes are categorized together because they stem from a translanguaging pedagogy that focuses on working in multiple languages, and on how languages work in interrelationship with one another.

My data indicate that I encouraged translanguaging to help ELLs complete tasks by thinking in their first language. Often times, when my students were demonstrating difficulty in completing a task, I would encourage them to begin thinking in their first language to generate thoughts and memories associated with their native language that they could then transfer over to the target language. To give an example, in a session with two ELL students, I encouraged them to think in their first language before completing a worksheet assignment in English. Each of them had different first languages; however, they were able to access their L1s to generate
vocabulary that they then associated to words in their second language, maximizing language production in English. For one student in particular, he had never seen or heard of a hurricane, so I encouraged him to think of other severe weather systems he had experienced to generate vocabulary and memories in his first language that he could then associate to vocabulary in his second language (English). This type of encouragement often led to intentional code-switching or code-mixing; however, it also led to moments where ELLs would silently generate language and memories associated with their first language that they used to create meaning and maximize communication in English.

Canagarajah (2013) and May (2014) view translanguaging as being a natural process, and a common practice among bilinguals. May (2014) also argues that translanguaging is an observable practice. This is also evident in my research. My data show that thinking in the first language is a form of translanguaging. Bilinguals who are encouraged to access their first language during the developmental stages of an assignment tended to produce more complex language in their L2. As in the hurricane example from my data, even though the student was thinking in his first language, he was also generating vocabulary in his first language around other severe weather systems. He was then able to produce vocabulary about hurricanes in English after accessing his first language and making connections across the languages. While I was not able to necessarily observe the thinking process, I was able to observe his language production as a result. Therefore, my data inform the existing theory base by adding that translanguaging does not need to be observable to be measureable.

My data also demonstrate that I utilized translanguaging pedagogy to facilitate the development of the first language and second language together. Through development of the L1 and L2 together, the shared linguistic features were highlighted and strengthened. To give an example from my data, I often used code-switching between Spanish and English while working with a particular bilingual student. Because he had already tested below grade level in his first language (Spanish), I used translanguaging to circle and discuss the cognates in both languages. By switching between both languages as I discussed the cognates, their relevancy, and their usefulness in reading comprehension, I was also modeling how to translanguage. As my data showed, developing both languages strengthened the linguistic base in his first language, providing him with a larger resource to pull from in developing his second language (English). Purposefully developing both languages at the same time is what sets this strategy apart from
others that focus on the first language informing the second language. From this viewpoint, the first language needs to be developed alongside the second (receiving the same amount of attention from the speaker and/or teacher) in order to inform the second language.

Garcia $(2009 ; 2016)$ argued that languages are not bound entities with borders. She states that they are meant to function in interrelationship with one another. From that perspective, my data inform the current theory base with the conclusion that good translanguaging pedagogy includes the development of languages together in order to maximize the efficacy of how the first language can and will inform the second language.

My data also indicate that I translanguaged to facilitate student self-assessment and selfrepair. I often translanguaged with my students to encourage language acquisition. In doing so, it appeared that students were able to acquire the lesson/skills faster if I used translanguaging, than if I had taught the lesson in strictly the second language. Students demonstrated comprehension by applying the lesson to subsequent similar situations, self-assessing and self-repairing as necessary. This is in line with Auer's (1998), and Lehti-Eklund's (2012) discussion of translanguaging not being a sign of bilinguals losing their linguistic bearing. They posit that bilinguals translanguage for a variety of reasons, including to self-assess and self-repair, in an effort to maximize communication in the target language. In other words, they might codeswitch to their first language, using verbal utterances as the process occurs, to access vocabulary that then stimulates language production in the second language. As part of a translanguaging pedagogy, being aware of these types of processes can help inform teachers on how to utilize them in the classroom for language acquisition.

Through my research I learned that teachers do not necessarily need to share the same L1 as their students to utilize translanguaging in the classroom. There were several language moments where I successfully encouraged translanguaging even though I did not speak the L1 of my student. Garcia's (2009), and Garcia and Kleyn's (2016) argue that bilinguals strategically use their languages in a variety of ways. They provide the analogy of "la corriente," likening a bilingual's linguistic repertoire to "an undercurrent" that teachers can tap into to increase language acquisition and production. Through different classroom case studies, Garcia and Kleyn (2016) provide examples of teachers using translanguaging pedagogy in the bilingual classroom, even if they do not share the same languages as their students. Through a framework of Stance, Design, and Shift, Garcia and Kleyn (2016) discuss the need for teachers to take a
stance on embracing translanguaging as a pedagogical choice, to use the key elements of good translanguaging design, and to be aware of and responsive to translanguaging shift.

My research adds to this existing theory base with multiple examples of how I did not need to know the language of my students to successfully use translanguaging pedagogy in the classroom. With a stance that views bilingualism as a resource, I was able to successfully translanguage by using collaborative structures and varied bilingual resources and translation devices. As a result, I was aware of the shift that occurred in how I viewed translanguaging and how I could further meet the linguistic needs of my ELL students.

Another observation I made in my research is that I translanguaged to help student languages inform one another. Following Baker (2011), Garcia (2009), Creese and Blackledge (2010), Swain, Kinnear, and Steinman (2011), and Hornberger and Link (2012), my data suggest that translanguaging can help the first language inform the second language. This view is supported by several sessions with my students in which I encouraged them to access their first language in order to inform their second language. In one example, I encouraged my student to tell a story in his first language before telling it in English, which seemed to produce more detailrich vocabulary than when he had told a different story in his second language first. As a result, the data suggest that encouraging the student to translanguage by using his L1 first allowed him access to a more complex set of vocabulary that he was then able to use to inform his L2.

### 5.3.3 Using Good Teaching Practices

The codes for this category are grouped together because they demonstrate good teaching practices as part of translanguaging pedagogy.

In my research I found that I encouraged translanguaging to keep communication flowing. As in the example where I worked with students to complete a worksheet about hurricanes, by encouraging them to access their first languages and think in their L1, I was able to continue communication without long pauses for translation or interpretation on the computer. By keeping the conversation going (even though I did not share some of their first languages), I was able to keep the cognitive process going. I also encouraged translanguaging by being patient and/or silent. As noted in several language moments, I often provided periods of silence, allowing my students time to access their L1 and navigate the new information until they were able to produce language with their intended meaning. Gómez and García (2012) discussed how bilingual teachers tend to allow their students more time to translanguage because they have
empathy for the process. My data provide multiple examples that show how providing students with silence and/or patience gave them the time needed to produce the target language. My data also provide examples where silence and patience led to self-assessment and self-repair before producing the target language. The gift of time has shown to be a successful component of translanguaging pedagogy.

Furthermore, my data show that I translanguaged to give ELLs a back-up option as support. This suggests that providing the option to translanguage increases student participation in the classroom. This was an unexpected discovery for me since I had been focusing on more concrete examples of translanguaging throughout the study. In a handful of language moments, I provided my students with opportunities to translanguage and they chose not to, knowing that the option remained available to them. To give an example from my data, I provided an ELL student with the option to access a translation device if he needed it while we worked on sentence completion in English, using "cloze sentence strips" and select vocabulary words. He chose not to use it; however, knowing it was there as an option seemed to increase his participation in the activity and increase the number of attempts he made at producing language in English.

Therefore, by providing my ELL students with the option to translanguage, my students' participation in the activities seemed to increase along with their level of confidence and willingness to produce language in the L2. My data show that simply providing my students with the option to translanguage (or having a translation device/program readily available) seemed to increase their participation in the activity and increase language production in the L2. This conclusion adds to the existing theory base in that it shows that having the option to translanguaging positively impacts student confidence, leading to increased student participation and attempts at target language production.

As a result of my research I learned that I translanguaged to manage time constraints and material loads. This was also an unexpected discovery for me since my focus was more on language acquisition and production, and not necessarily on the amount of material absorbed within a certain time frame. However, considering the time constraints I worked within, and the amount of material I needed to teach, translanguaging became a way to mitigate those limitations successfully. This resonates with Garcia and Kleyn's (2016) discussion of the classroom case studies and how strategic encouragement of translanguaging can increase student learning and help navigate a lot of information for bilinguals with varying first languages.

Similar to their observations, my data show that the same applies for teachers. When faced with a short amount of time with your students, translanguaging becomes very useful in the learning process for all of the reasons mentioned before. It helps keep communication flowing, helps languages inform one another, develops languages together strengthening the L1 base, facilitates student self-assessment and self-repair, helps students think in their L1 and complete tasks, positions the student as the expert, and helps build relationships.

My data also show that I encouraged translanguaging to identify gaps within the learning. The discovery occurred in a language moment where I translanguaged with a student to explain a concept in the second language with more ease. As a result, the student was able to identify where the gap in their learning occurred and self-repair. In another language moment, the gap was identified when I translanguaged to the student's first language to clarify his comprehension of the western grading system. Through translanguaging, we were able to communicate potentially sensitive subject matter in a culturally responsive manner. Once the gap was identified, the critical need to teach a new concept changed the trajectory of the lesson. Knowing that my ELL student did not understand the grade he received on a homework assignment changed the emphasis of my lesson. I no longer focused on translating and interpreting the science lesson and, instead, used translanguaging to explain the general grading system used in North American public schools. In doing this, I was able to communicate important information that the student could use and apply to other classes and content matter.

Baker, Jones, and Lewis (2012), and Baker (2011) posited that translanguaging develops language skills in both languages, leading to fuller bilingualism and bi-literacy. My data add to this viewpoint with the conclusion that translanguaging pedagogy includes using translanguaging to identify gaps in the learning, informing teachers on what the critical needs are and, subsequently, what to focus their efforts on the most.

Further, my data show that I translanguaged to ease student anxiety. My data suggest that translanguaging can be used by ELLs as a form of comfort. As mentioned in the example from my data where I used translanguaging to ease the discomfort displayed by an ELL during his science class, translanguaging can be used to ease anxiety. In that situation, I translanguaged to his first language to communicate the message that he did not need to participate in class if he did not feel ready. By translanguaging in this way, I was able to convey an important message to him quickly without adding to his already elevated stress level.

As several language sessions showed, my students also translanguaged to ease anxiety and to convey certain emotions they felt could not be conveyed easily in their second language. My data also showed that I encouraged translanguaging to build confidence in my students. Similarly, Garcia and Kleyn (2016) explained that bilinguals view their bilingualism as a part of their identity, using it in creative ways to navigate new information. They posit that bilinguals do not view themselves as separate from their languages. In other words, their identities are very much intertwined with their languages. As a result, bilinguals utilize their languages in creative ways to create meaning and maximize communication as needed. Knowing that they can access their languages as they see fit, decreases the stress associated with second language acquisition and production. As a teacher, utilizing a translanguaging pedagogy that incorporates those different functions and interrelationships can be very useful in creating successful translanguaging design. This theory concurs with the existing literature.

Lastly, my data show that I translanguaged to give ELLs multiple modes of connectivity through translanguaging. By pointing to pictures and encouraging imagery and story-telling while also looking at new vocabulary words in their written and bilingual forms, I encouraged my students to make connections. I learned that when I utilized this strategy, my students were able to retain and recall more information in a shorter amount of time. This conclusion adds to the existing theory base by showing that multi-modal connectivity is a key component of good design within translanguaging pedagogy.

### 5.4 Factors

Factors such as academic material, time constraints, language proficiency, student dynamics, and school/classroom climate all impacted my expectations and views towards translanguaging. Before the study, I paid little attention to the motivating factors that led to translanguaging during a lesson. While I appreciated the cognitive complexity it required, and the utility of using different linguistic features to create enhanced meaning in the target language, I seldom focused on the factors that encouraged or impacted its use. I simply recognized the practice and encouraged my students to continue to use their languages in creative ways, so long as it positively impacted their second language and helped them complete the assigned tasks.

Throughout the study, I discovered that when I had a lot of material to teach, in a short amount of time, I tended to use and encourage translanguaging more. Intentionally moving
between the languages increased the flow of communication with my students, provided them with the gift of time when needed, and helped me communicate directions and explanations more quickly. It also produced more complex language in the L2. This process was greatly enhanced when I also shared the same first language as my student(s) because I was able to model translanguaging verbally. However, when the student was below grade level in his/her first language, or completely immersed in culture shock, it tended to slow down the process considerably, which required more patience on my part, and more strategic utilization of translanguaging to reach the language goal. This required incorporating more creative forms of translanguaging through the use of computerized academic gaming and translation programs.

Other factors such as student dynamics, and school/class climate also played a role in when and how I encouraged translanguaging. I tended to encourage translanguaging more when I had a group of students together who had varying first languages. Encouraging them to translanguage by sharing similar linguistic features from their first languages, while navigating the new information, tended to produce more complex language in English. Similarly, when the ELL students I worked with on a pull-out basis came from classrooms and schools that recognized and embraced the cognitive benefits of bilingualism, I tended to encourage translanguaging more, knowing that the students would be able to use the skills they learned in my classroom across other content areas as well.

Therefore, over the course of the study, I have changed both how I define and view translanguaging in the classroom, and how I teach and use translanguaging pedagogy to achieve student language acquisition. I have become aware of the factors that positively and negatively impact translanguaging, encouraging the use of translanguaging when I feel it benefits the student's most critical needs while simultaneously working towards completing the task(s). I have also changed how I use translanguaging myself. Before the study, I used translanguaging mainly to show solidarity and to make connections with my students as long as I shared the same first language as they did. What I learned was that I could have the same results with students whose first language I did not share, so long as I strategically, patiently, and intentionally utilized translanguaging pedagogy in culturally sensitive, and grade/age-appropriate ways. Ultimately, the utility of translanguaging did not change, but when and how to use it to target the specific learning needs of my ELLs, did.

### 5.5 Implications

The advice I have for teachers of bilingual and multilingual students is to view their students' bilingualism as an additive resource, rich with linguistic features and connected cultural experiences that can be utilized to enhance their learning and enhance the classroom. By modeling translanguaging or through teachers encouraging translanguaging, bilingual students can strategically, intentionally, and functionally move across their languages, using forms such as code-switching, code-mixing, and code-meshing to navigate new information, create meaning, and maximize communication in the target language. It is not necessary that teachers share the same L1 as their students to successfully use translanguaging pedagogy in the bilingual classroom.

Therefore, to borrow Garcia and Kleyn's (2016) framework for translanguaging pedagogy, my recommendations center mainly around developing a translanguaging stance, developing and using good translanguaging design, and being aware and responsive to translanguaging shift. One of the best ways to develop a translanguaging stance is to learn another language so as to build empathy for the language acquisition process. Another is to pursue your ESL/bilingual education/culturally and linguistically diverse certification or endorsement. Yet another is to take advantage of ESL/ELA programs and classes offered by the school district or to partake in classroom-sharing programs where teachers rotate schools and observe different, effective teaching practices that can then be incorporated into their own teaching. I would also highly recommend that all teachers develop close professional relationships with the "specials" teachers (speech teacher, special education staff, etc.) in their buildings and learn how to differentiate between English language acquisition-related issues and special education issues in students. This could greatly reduce the over-referral of ELLs for developmentally delayed and special education services, and help teachers understand and communicate with their ELLs more effectively. Embracing a translanguaging stance requires teachers to go against the norm in education (monolingual ideologies and separation of languages), and view multiple languages in the classroom as beneficial resources.

In terms of developing good translanguaging design, Garcia and Kleyn (2016) remind us that there are three key elements: 1) utilizing collaborative structures, 2) utilizing varied multilingual resources, and 3) using translanguaging pedagogical practices in the classroom. This can include strategies such as grouping student by similar language, providing students with
multilingual and multimodal instructional resources, and hosting cultural events at your school to connect with bilingual families. Knowing how to incorporate these elements into your teaching design will greatly aide in successfully using translanguaging with ELL students.

Finally, to be aware of and responsive to translanguaging shift, teachers need to be responsive to their students' needs and be able to identify language moments and critical incidents that lead to translanguaging opportunities. Being aware of the shift that will occur in your own thinking and practices as a result of embracing translanguaging as a pedagogical choice, and being aware of the critical needs of your students, will change how you view bilingualism and how you teach your bilingual students.

The implications for my research showcase the need for teacher preparation programs to require ELA training as part of their certification process. With the current statistics on ELLs entering, and studying, in the U.S. school system, it makes sense to equip our teachers with the skills and strategies they will need to teach their diverse students. This includes the need for school districts to implement good teacher training that includes the option for participatory action research where teachers can study their ideologies and practices in close relationship to their students and teaching environments, while also furthering their education and certification.

In terms of ELA staff, the implications of not having enough time with each ELL at each school site on your roster foster frustration in everyone. It is frustrating for regular classroom teachers to receive periodic ELL support, and it is equally frustrating for the ELA specialists who feel that their schedules limit the level of support they can offer their ELLs. It is ultimately frustrating for the ELL (and his/her family) when they do not receive the time, patience, and academic support they need from school professionals to maximize their language acquisition and match the academic goals of their peers. This tends to foster resentment towards the school and teachers, which is sometimes already compounded by cultural norms of school and family separation. Demonstrating, using, and encouraging translanguaging pedagogy in the classroom could be one way to bridge that separation.

### 5.6 Future Research

In terms of future research, there are several areas that could be expanded upon. As my data suggest, bilinguals can think in their L1 before producing language in their L2, or simply rely on the option to translanguage (through the availability of an interlocutor or translation
device/program) to raise confidence and production in their L2. It would be interesting to see further research around how often this naturally occurs with bilinguals, and what factors impact the measurability of their translanguaging and why.

Another area for future research is the role of patience and silence in translanguaging and how it correlates to speakers of Indigenous languages. With silence being an important construct in many Indigenous cultures and discourse styles, it would be interesting to see further research on how patience and silence impact the effectiveness of translanguaging (specifically selfassessment and self-repair), and how Indigenous bilingual students compare to non-Indigenous bilingual students who utilize translanguaging in the classroom for second language acquisition.

Further research could also be done to study the effectiveness of translanguaging in the classroom when comparing monolingual teachers to bilingual/multilingual teachers. Assuming that the teachers embrace a translanguaging stance and utilize translanguaging design in their classrooms, it would be interesting to see how their monolingualism/bilingualism (and levels of language proficiency) impact teacher and student translanguaging in the classroom and its effectiveness in second language acquisition.

### 5.7 Summary

In sum, the action research I conducted led to discoveries and self-awareness as a language teacher. These discoveries occurred through analysis of language moments and critical incidents with my students, and within the context of my research questions. The highlighted codes that developed as a result of the analytic framework and constructivist grounded theory informed my teaching and how I view translanguaging and its utility in the classroom. From an autoethnographical stance, I evaluated how and why I encourage translanguaging with my ELL students, what factors impacted my expectations and attitudes towards translanguaging, and how those expectations and attitudes have changed over the course of the study.

Reflecting back on my research, translanguaging pedagogy means something different to me now. I now view it as not only the framework for stance, design, and shift, but also as the guideline to culturally and linguistically-responsive education. As a teacher, over the years, I have witnessed my role shift from supporting my ELL students to advocating for their inclusion in their regular core classrooms. While I still spent a great deal of time as a language teacher and bilingual resource for my students, I have found that I have spent more and more time discussing

English language acquisition methodologies and strategies with core teachers, to include the use of translation programs, providing multilingual resources, and constructive ways to involve ELLs in their classrooms. These discussions have led to conversations about how the demographics in the U.S. schools are changing, and about the need to include ELLs in the classroom along with their age-appropriate peers. With Garcia and Kleyn's (2016) framework for translanguaging pedagogy, I have an informative, clear, and very applicable guideline to reference and use, both in my own teaching and in guiding others to be more culturally and linguistically responsive teachers.

Further, as a multilingual myself, I view translanguaging pedagogy as parallel to the creative linguistic practices I have been using all my life to navigate information, create meaning, and maximize communication. I feel justified in knowing that the way we (the bilingual community) work in interrelationship with our languages is valid and useful. After studying my data, I better understand the background and motivation for certain linguistic practices that I have used myself, and witnessed with my students. As a result, I feel comfortable using translanguaging pedagogy as an effective language acquisition framework in my classroom and in recommending it for other teachers interested in meeting the needs of their diverse student populations.

## References

American Council On The Teaching Of Foreign Languages. (2012). ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines 2012. Retrieved October 2016 from www. actfl.org.

Anchorage School District. (n.d.). English Language Learners Department. Retrieved February 2017 from www. asdk 12.org.

Árva, V., \& Medgyes, P. (2000). Natives and non-natives on video. System, 28(3), 355-372.
Auer, P. (1998). Bilingual conversation revisited. In P. Auer (Ed.), Code-switching in conversation: Language, interaction and identity (pp. 1-24). London, UK: Routledge.

Ayres, D. (2013, December 4). Critical Incidents. [Blog Post]. Retrieved from http://danieljayres.blogspot.co.uk/2013/12/critical-incidents.html

Baker, C. (2011). Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Baker, C., Jones, B., \& Lewis, G. (2012). Translanguaging: Origins and development from school to street and beyond. Journal of Educational Research and Evaluation: An International Journal on Theory and Practice, 18(7), 1-16. doi.org/10.1080/13803611.2012.718488.

Bialystok, E. (2001). Bilingualism in development: Language, literacy and cognition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Brown, C.L. (2004). Reducing the over-referral of culturally and linguistically diverse students (CLD) for language disabilities. NABE Journal of Research and Practice, $2(1), 225-243$. doi=10.1.1.497.815.

Brown, H.D. (1980, $2^{\text {nd }}$ ed. 1987, $3^{\text {rd }}$ ed. 1994) Principles of language learning and teaching. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Canagarajah, A.S. (2013). Literacy as translingual practice: Between communities and classrooms. New York, London: Routledge.

Canale, M. (1983). From communicative competence to communicative language pedagogy. In J. Richards \& R. Schmidt (Eds.), Language and Communication (pp. 2-27). London: Longman.

Canale, M., \& Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. Applied Linguistics, 1, 1-47. dx.doi.org/10.1093/applin/I.1.1.

Carspecken, P.E. (1996). Critical ethnography in educational research: A theoretical and practical guide. New York: Routledge.

Chang, H. (2008). Autoethnography as method. Walnut Creek, California: Left Coast Press.
Charmaz, K. (2014). Constructing Grounded Theory (2 $2^{\text {nd }}$ ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
Cho, G., \& DeCastro-Ambrosetti, D. (2005). Is ignorance bliss? Pre-service teachers' attitudes toward multicultural education. The High School Journal, 89, 24-28.

Collins, B.A., \& Cioè-Peña, M. (2016). Declaring freedom: Translanguaging in the social studies classroom to understand complex texts. In O. Garcia \& T. Kleyn (Eds.), Translanguaging with multilingual students: Learning from classroom moments (pp. 119-139). New York, NY: Routledge.

Conteh, J., \& Meier, G. (2014). The multilingual turn in languages education. Buffalo, NY: Multilingual Matters.

Creese, A., \& Blackledge, A. (2010). Translanguaging in the bilingual classroom: A pedagogy for learning and teaching? The Modern Language Journal, 94(1), 103-115. doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2009.00986.x

Cummins, J. (1976). The influence of bilingualism on cognitive growth: A synthesis of research findings and explanatory hypotheses. Working Papers on Bilingualism, 9, 1-43.

Cummins, J. (1978). Metalinguistic development of children in bilingual education programs: Data from Irish and Canadian Ukrainian-English programs. In M. Paradis (Ed.), Aspects of bilingualism (pp.127-138). Columbia, SC: Hornbeam Press.

Cummins, J. (1980). The construct of language proficiency in bilingual education. In J.E. Alatis (Ed.), Georgetown University round table on languages and linguistics 1980 (pp. 81-103). Washington DC: Georgetown University Press.

Cummins, J. (1981). Bilingualism and minority language children. Ontario: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

Cummins, J. (2000). Putting language proficiency in its place: Responding to critiques of the conversational/academic language distinction. In J. Cenoz \& U. Jessner (Eds.), English in Europe: The acquisition of a third language (pp. 1-23). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
de Oliveira, L.C. (2011). In their shoes: Teachers experience the needs of English Language Learners through math simulation. West Lafayette, IN: Purdue Univeristy Press.

Denzin, N.K., \& Lincoln, Y.S. (2018). Handbook of qualitative research (5 ${ }^{\text {th }}$ ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Durgunoglu, A.Y., \& Hughes, T. (2010). How prepared are the U.S. preservice teachers to teach English language learners? International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education, 22(1), 32-41.

Ellis, C. (2004). The ethnographic I: A methodological novel about autoethnography. Walnut Creek, CA: Alta Mira Press.

Ellis, C., \& Bochner, A.P. (2000). Handbook of qualitative research ( $2^{\text {nd }}$ ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Faez, F. (2012). Diverse teachers for diverse students: Internationally educated and Canadianboard teachers' preparedness to teach English language learners. Canadian Journal of Education, 35(3), 64-84.

Garcia, O. (2009). Bilingual education in the $21^{s t}$ century: A global perspective. Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell.

Garcia, O., Johnson, S.I., \& Seltzer, K. (2017). The translanguaging classroom: Leveraging student bilingualism for learning. Philadelphia, PA: Caslon.

Garcia, O., \& Kleyn, T. (Eds.). (2016). Translanguaging with multilingual students: Learning from classroom moments. New York, NY: Routledge.

Garcia, O., \& Seltzer, K. (2016). The translanguaging current in language education. In B. Kindenberg (Ed.), Flersprakighet som resurs [Multilingualism as a resource] (pp. 1930). The Hague, Netherlands: LIBER.

Gómez, G.N.N., \& García, H. (2012). The impact of regional differences on elementary school teachers' attitudes towards their students' use of code switching in a south Texas school district. Universidad Nacional de Colombia, Facultad de Ciencias Humanas, Departamento de Lenguas Extranjeras, 14(1), 67-78.
files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1051623.pdf.
Herr, K., \& Anderson, G.L. (2015). The action research dissertation. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Horenczyk, G., \& Tatar, M. (2002). Teachers' attitudes toward multiculturalism and their perceptions of the school organizational culture. Teaching and Teacher Education, 18, 435-445.

Hornberger, N.H., \& Link, H. (2012). Translanguaging in today's classrooms: A biliteracy lens. Theory into Practice, 51, 239-247. doi=10.1080/00405841.2012.726051.

Kemmis, S., \& McTaggart, R. (Eds.). (1988). The action research planner (3 ${ }^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{ed}$.). Waurn Ponds, Australia: Deakin University Press.

Kemmis, S., \& McTaggart, R. (2005). Participatory action research: Communicative action and the public sphere. In N. Denzin \& Y. Lincoln (Eds.), The SAGE handbook of qualitative research ( $3^{\text {rd }}$ ed., pp. 559-604). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Krashen, S. (2003). Evidence suggesting that public opinion is becoming more negative: A discussion of the reasons, and what we can do about it. Los Angeles, CA: University of Southern California.

Lehti-Eklund, H. (2012). Code-switching to first language in repair: A resource for students' problem solving in a foreign language classroom. International Journal of Bilingualism, $17(2), 132-152$. journals.sagepub.com/doi=10.1177/1367006912441416.

Lewin, K. (1946). Action research and minority problems. Journal of Social Issues, 2(4), 34-46.
Lewin, K. (1948). Resolving social conflicts. New York: Harper and Rowe.
Lightbown, P.M., \& Spada, N. (2013). How languages are learned. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Logan, B.E., \& Wimer, G. (2013). Tracing inclusion: Determining teacher attitudes. Research in Higher Education Journal, 20, 1-10.

Makoni, S., \& Mashiri, P. (2007). Critical Historiography: Does language planning in Africa need a construct of language as part of its theoretical apparatus? In S. Makoni, \& A. Pennycock (Eds.), Disinventing and reconstituting languages (pp. 62-89). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Maxwell, T.W. (2003). Action Research for Bhutan? Rabsel, 3, 1-20.
May, S. (2014). The multilingual turn: Implications for SLA, TESOL, and bilingual education. New York, NY: Routledge.

Mills, G.E. (2014). Action research: A guide for the teacher researcher ( $5{ }^{\text {th }}$ ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.

Omaggio Hadley, A., (2001). Teaching language in context ( $3^{\text {rd }}$ ed.). Boston, MA: Thomson Heinle.

Osterman, K.F., \& Kottkamp, R.B. (1993). Reflective practice for educators: Improving schooling through professional development. Newbury Park, CA: Corwin.

Pettit, S.K. (2011). Factors influencing middle school mathematics teachers' beliefs about ELLs in mainstream classrooms. IUMPST: The Journal, 5, 1-6.

Richards, K. (2003). Qualitative inquiry in TESOL. Houndmills; Basingstoke, UK: Palgrave MacMillan.

Riehl, C.M. (2005). Code-switching in bilinguals: Impacts of mental processes and language awareness. In J. Cohen, K.T. McAlister, K. Rolstad, \& J. MacSwan (Eds.), ISB4: Proceedings of the $4^{\text {th }}$ international symposium on bilingualism ( pp . 1945-1959). http://www.lingref.com/isb/4/151ISB4.PDF.

Schon, D. (1983). The reflective practitioner: How professionals think in action. New York, NY: Basic Books.

Sert, O. (2005). The functions of code switching in ELT classrooms. The Internet TESL Journal, 11(8), 1-5. http://iteslj. org/Articles/Sert-CodeSwitching.html.

Swain, M., Kinnear, P., \& Steinman, L. (2011). Sociocultural theory in second language education. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Ting, C., \& Gilmore, L. (2012). Attitudes of preservice teachers towards teaching deaf and ESL students. Australian Journal of Teacher Education, 37(12), 46-56.

Toukomaa, P., \& Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (1977). The intense teaching of the mother tongue to migrant children at pre-school age (Research Report No. 26). Department of Sociology and Social Psychology, University of Tampere.

Tripp, D. (2012). Critical incidents in teaching: Developing professional judgement. London, UK: Routledge.

Tse, L. (2001). Why don't they learn English? New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
U.S. Census Bureau, (2000). Language and ability to speak English (Summary File 3, Table 19). Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Valdés, G. (2005). Bilingualism, heritage language learners, and SLA research: Opportunities lost or seized? The Modern Language Journal, 89(3), 410-426.

Walker, A., Shafer, J., \& Liams, M. (2004). "Not in my classroom": Teacher attitudes towards English language learnings in the mainstream classroom. NABE Journal of Research and Practice, 2(1), 130-160. citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.579.2287\&rep=rep1\&type=pdf.

Webb, G. (1996). Becoming critical of action research for development. In O. Zuber-Skerritt (Ed.), New directions in action research (pp. 37-161). London, UK: Falmer Press.

Wedin, A. (2014). Non-challenging education and teacher control as factors for marginalization of students in diverse settings. International Electronic Journal of Elementary Education, 6(2), 275-294. files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1053756.pdf.

Whitehead, J. (1989). Creating a living educational theory from questions of a kind: How do I improve my practice? Cambridge Journal of Education, 19, 41-52.

Williams, C. (1996). Secondary education: Teaching in the bilingual situation. In C. Williams, G. Lewis, \& C. Baker (Eds.), The language policy: Taking stock. Llangefni, Wales: CAI.

