ELICITING STUDENTS' EXTENDED USE OF SPANISH DURING WHOLE GROUP INSTRUCTION IN A FIRST GRADE TWO-WAY IMMERSION CLASSROOM

By

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To my husband

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Research literature in the field of two-way immersion (TWI) programs addresses the importance of teaching practices that provide English and Spanish-speaking students with high-quality education that meets the students' academic and linguistic needs. Of particular interest is teaching in the minority language (Spanish) since English has a higher status, thus generally becomes a more powerful language in the classroom. More research is needed in teaching practices that provide students with opportunities for Spanish use and development in the context of TWI programs. This study examined how a bilingual teacher elicited students' extended use of Spanish during whole group instruction. The study focused on describing strategic instructional patterns used by the bilingual teacher and her beliefs as guiding points in her teaching practices in a TWI first-grade classroom. The data for the study came from four literacy lessons and two teacher interviews during the 2009-2010 school year. Inductive analysis in the form of domain analysis was employed to examine the bilingual teacher's practices and beliefs in her classroom.

Findings indicated that the bilingual teacher promoted authentic opportunities for students to use and develop language. Her teaching practices were based on a

Comprehensible Input/Problematization/Decentralization framework which served as a pedagogical combination to elicit and extend student language production. Within this framework, the bilingual teacher provided students with a context for language comprehension, presented students with problems that needed solving, and decentralized her teacher role to open up spaces for students to become autonomous problem-solvers and negotiators. In addition to the framework, the bilingual teacher put into practice specific instructional strategies to ensure student language use. Her language views complemented her teaching practices as she firmly believed in the importance of providing students with real opportunities to explore language. This study adds to the extant literature about effective teaching practices to foster language opportunities for students to build and practice the minority language in TWI classrooms. From the findings of the study, implications for second language teaching practitioners and researchers are presented.

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

Language Minority Students

In the vast demographic landscape of the United States, language minority students have increasingly grown in number (Center for Applied Linguistics, 2011a, 2011d; Lucas & Grinberg, 2008; National Center for Education Statistics, 2010a; López Estrada et al., 2009, Ray, 2008; Villegas & Lucas, 2002). According to the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) in The Condition of Education 2010, from the late 1970s until 2008 the number of students who either spoke a language other than English at home or spoke English with difficulty increased from 3.8 to 10.9 million (NCES, 2010). They represent 21% of children ages 5-17 in the U.S. Of the 2.7 million that spoke English with difficulty, 75 % spoke Spanish.

Despite recommendations from the research literature, many educational practices approach culturally and linguistically diverse students from a deficit perspective and take an assimilationist approach, including programs such as submersion and ESL (English as Second Language) pull-outs and some bilingual programs such as transitional bilingual education (Baker, 2001; Freeman, 1998; Ray, 2008). Programs grounded in this deficit perspective position language-minority students as deficient in one language (English) rather than potentially proficient in two languages (English and the native language). Students are then presented with mainstream linguistic norms and cultural and educational expectations to be achieved. Once these norms are achieved, students are no longer English language learners (ELLs) since they are then considered English proficient students (Davison, 2001). The tendency is for students to eventually embrace one language and culture in school. Differing from the aforementioned

bilingual models, an enrichment structured as a two-way immersion (TWI) program serves ELLs differently. TWI programs encourage students to maintain and develop their native language while learning a second language.

TWI programs seek to address the cultural, ethnic, and linguistic diversity in today's classrooms by equalizing education and by resisting "educational and linguistic homogenisation" (López & Fránquiz, 2009, p. 176). For some, linguistic hegemony violates the rights to speak in one's mother tongue and impedes bilingualism (Shannon, 1995). TWI programs favor the importance of placing equal value on both languages and fully integrating both in the curriculum. Nevertheless, TWI programs are complex in nature since striving for an equal balance of both languages in an English-speaking country can be challenging (Valdés, 1997). Thus it becomes essential to understand more about them. Of particular interest is the role of teachers as they engage in teaching practices that seek to provide the environments necessary to foster language development and use, especially in the minority language.

Sociocultural Theory (SCT) and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

Sociocultural theory (SCT) views language development as a process that considers social interaction as a key component in the learning of a second language. It is in interaction that students explore, learn from others, prove their language hypotheses, and receive and provide feedback, thus using and developing language. SCT promotes active participation and collaboration among all individuals in the learning context. Core features of SCT include mediation, zone of proximal development (ZPD), and scaffolding. Vygotsky (1978) indicates that learning is a mediated phenomenon that requires the use of tools. The ZPD is the existent space between the learner's current and potential performance level as guided by an adult or a

more capable learner. Scaffolding deals with any assisted performance given to the learner to build a sense of learning responsibility. All these interrelate and situate social interaction as the basis for second language learning. This sociocultural view of language opens horizons to second language approaches; one of them is communicative language teaching (CLT).

CLT views language as a whole, integrated system in which all participants (e.g., students and teachers) interact and collaborate in the construction of new knowledge (joint construction). In this sense, communication acquires a meaningful, authentic stance since purposeful communication is required to problem-solve and negotiate meaning in real-life contexts. Both SCT and CLT highlight the primary functions of language: social interaction and meaningful communication. TWI programs base their theoretical foundations and understanding of second language learning and teaching in these two views.

Two-way Immersion (TWI) Programs

A TWI program, also known as two-way bilingual, dual language, bilingual immersion, double immersion, and two-way school, is

> an integrated model of bilingual education where native English speakers (language majority students) and native speakers of a minority language (language minority students) are educated together for most or all of the day, and receive content and literacy instruction through both English and the minority language (de Jong & Howard, 2009, p. 81).

TWI program is the term used in the study, and language minority students in the context of the study are Spanish speakers. The goals of TWI programs include academic achievement, additive bilingualism and biliteracy, and cross-cultural competence for all students (Christian et al., 2000; García, 2004; Lessow-Hurley, 2009). These programs seek to facilitate literacy and content development in the students. The

additive component aims at valuing students' native language while learning a second language; that is, the intent is not to replace the students' native language with another language (Christian, 1994). This component also places a high value on the students' language knowledge because students become the experts and the resources in the classroom (Christian, 1994).

Some characteristics of TWI programs include a balanced ratio of native and nonnative speakers, an emphasis on the minority language in early grades, and students' participation in the program for at least six years (Lindholm-Leary, 2005; Thomas & Collier, 1997a). There are two main models of TWI programs. In the 90:10 model, students are instructed 90% of the day in the minority language and 10% of the time in English. This model takes place during kindergarten and the early years of elementary school. Then, starting in third grade, the 50:50 model is implemented, where instruction is equally divided between two languages. The language allocation can be done by content area, person, or time. The purpose of the 90:10 model, where most of the instruction is provided in the minority language, is to provide language minority students with an opportunity to learn a second language while continuing to develop their native language proficiency (Christian, 1994). The 90:10 model seeks to benefit minority students by providing an additive bilingual environment, where their native language is highly valued and their language knowledge is regarded as a classroom resource. Learning through one's native language has been proven to have many advantages, such as facilitating literacy and content knowledge not only in the native language but also in the target language (Christian, 1994; Thomas & Collier, 1997a, 2002).

Integrating native and nonnative speakers is an essential component in TWI programs. While second language students learn linguistic structures, native speakers "gain greater metalinguistic awareness" (Howard et al., 2003, p. 45). Christian (1996) also addresses the many advantages of students' interactions in terms of learning, including the development of content knowledge and the enhancement of cognitive and social skills in both languages. Others have also confirmed that peer interaction and cooperative learning activities in TWI programs promote effective opportunities for language development (Christian, 1996; DePalma, 2010; Valdés, 1997).

Research shows that factors for success of TWI programs include school environment, curriculum and instruction, program design, planning, assessment and accountability, well-qualified and dedicated staff, and teacher quality in terms of familiarity with bilingual education (Christian, 1994; Howard et al., 2003; Lindholm-Leary, 2005). Nevertheless, TWI teachers face various challenges that go beyond a simplistic view of knowledge about bilingual instruction. TWI teachers have to establish equilibrium between making content comprehensible to nonnative speakers and ensuring that the same content is stimulating and challenging enough for the native speakers (Howard et al., 2007; Howard & Loeb, 1998). Due to the uniqueness of TWI programs, teachers need to be bilingual, but they must also be competent in linguistic and sociocultural aspects of language and language teaching and learning (Takahashi-Breines, 2002). Additionally, teachers need "to understand the nature of language and how languages are learned so [that] they can create appropriate learning environments for second language learners" (Lessow-Hurley, 2009, p. 23). There are also other challenges. Encouraging native and nonnative students to speak the minority language

is a ubiquitous challenge for teachers in TWI programs (Freeman, 1998; Hayes, 2005; Lindholm-Leary, 2001; Palmer, 2008a, 2009; Potowski, 2004; Valdés, 1997).

Using the Minority Language

TWI programs offer a valuable and alternative approach with regard to bilingual education. Technically, bilingual education is about teaching and learning in two languages, but bilingual education is "much more than language" (Freeman, 1998, p. 1). One of the goals for TWI programs is for students to develop and maintain their native language while also learning a second language (de Jong & Howard, 2009; Valdés, 1997). However, TWI programs are not always consistent in this intended purpose. There has been a growing concern about first language maintenance, its use and development, and optimal language learning opportunities for language minority students in TWI programs (de Jong & Howard, 2009; Potowski, 2004; Valdés, 1997).

Potowski (2004) suggests students persist in using English in the Spanish classroom mainly because of socio-political and linguistic hegemony in society. There is also some evidence of teaching practices that promote language minority development where teachers play an important role in providing the spaces for students to use the minority language in TWI classrooms (Palmer, 2008a, 2009). Certain discourse practices can promote language minority use in the classroom, including teacher talk as an empowerment tool and as linguistic support. However, the literature suggests these might not be common practices (Martin-Beltrán, 2010; Takahashi-Breines, 2002).

Howard et al. (2003) have reported on a number of studies on TWI programs indicating that, in spite of educators' best efforts to promote equality between English and the minority language, in many schools there are still very strong forces that favor English, and outside pressures on schools diminish their capacity to give the two

languages equal attention. They affirm that the imbalance of language use might be related to two causes. First, the language minority students tend to have a greater ability to speak English. Second, English is the societal language and is highly related to social and academic success.

Delgado-Larocco's (1998) study in a 90:10 TWI kindergarten in northern California found English to have the superior status in the classroom and in the school. Instruction was mostly teacher-directed rather than collaborative, where there was no promotion of the use of the minority language. Delgado-Larocco (1998) found that the Spanish instruction demanded very little oral production from the students; only one-word responses were required in Spanish while English was used for most social interactions by the language-minority and language-majority students. Conclusions indicated that these social and academic factors contributed to the higher status and development of English at the school.

In her studies, Palmer (2007, 2009) provided evidence of the struggle and challenges faced by students and teachers who juggle Spanish and English discourses in the classroom and school setting. Her studies speak to the teacher encouragement of students to use alternative, empowering discourses within the classroom. Palmer (2009) reflects on this by asserting that students switch to English due to pressure from mainstream deficit-framing stereotypes. Christian (1994) argues that there is current growing concern about target language maintenance, development, and even survival all in the face of the dominance and power of English in U.S. society. DePalma (2010) echoes this position by stating that Spanish, as a minority language in the United Sates, risks significant underrepresentation in TWI classrooms.

Potowski's (2002, 2004) reflections on the use of Spanish language in the TWI classrooms indicate that, even in Spanish classes, English tends to serve as the social language of the class. In addition, there is a tendency for students to interact in Spanish with the teacher but in English within group work and with peers. Furthermore, English seems to be given more priority in the schools. Other studies have addressed this issue of linguistic inequality where either teachers devalue Spanish (e.g., using English to announce "important" information or not allowing students to use variations of Spanish) or the entire school has a hidden curriculum that tends to value English as the language of power and superiority (Gayman, 2000; McCollum, 1994; Montague & Meza-Zaragosa, 1999).

Others have also suggested that TWI programs are not always successful at providing equal learning and instructional opportunities to develop both the minority and majority language (de Jong & Howard, 2009; Valdés, 1997). The minority language status is the one that is most affected. Some potential impediments to affording equal value to the minority language include the English-dominant sociopolitical context, the value of linguistic and cultural capital, high status of English and English speakers, allocation of resources, access to quality minority language instruction, dominance of English in the school-wide environment and the larger community, access to native language models, native minority language models in peer interaction, and opportunities to model native language (de Jong & Howard, 2009; Howard et al., 2003). Carrigo (2000) conducted interviews with four English-dominant teachers in order to find out more about their perceptions of TWI programs. Carrigo (2000) concluded that the teachers agreed on the difficulties in maintaining the Spanish language environment for

all students. They also agreed that they switched to English in order to make content comprehensible for students lacking a Spanish background. Pressure from school staff, students, and parents contributed to this shift. Valdés (1997) emphasizes the fact that this is an English-speaking country where English is referred to as the language of power but suggests addressing this language deficit by equalizing and placing value in the minority language and providing high-quality education to language minority students.

Palmer (2007) also questions the incongruence between TWI programs' goals and the larger discourse at the societal macro level. She suggests the need to empower language minority students, providing them with enriching discourses and a strong sense of agency so that students can build on their linguistic and academic identities and succeed in school. Palmer (2008a) indicates that, at the classroom level, teachers' discursive practices can help, harm, or invigorate minority language students since teachers can make native language models accessible to the class and "make the spaces" by providing students the necessary opportunities for oral production in the native language. Howard et al. (2003) encourage dedication and hard work to promote the status of the minority language and native speakers of that language in the classroom and the wider society.

Purpose of the Study

More research is needed to understand the benefits of TWI programs where teachers play a fundamental role in promoting the spaces and opportunities for students to use Spanish in meaningful ways (Hayes, 2005). Howard et al. (2003) have encouraged more research with regard to the amount and nature of instruction in the minority language in the primary grades. They emphasize the need for more research in

the area of instructional strategies to learn more about effective teaching practices in TWI classrooms.

The proposed dissertation study focused on describing how one bilingual teacher fosters the use of Spanish and provides a classroom environment that elicits and supports extended conversations in Spanish by native and nonnative speakers. By conducting this study, I intended to provide insights into the ways in which TWI teachers can promote opportunities for students to develop and practice Spanish in the classroom.

Research Question. How does one bilingual teacher elicit students' extended use of Spanish language during whole group instruction in a two-way immersion first grade classroom? The sub-questions of the study are as follows:

- What are some strategic instructional patterns used by the bilingual teacher?
- What are some beliefs that guide the bilingual teacher's actions and how are these conveyed in practice?

Definition of Key Terms

Some terms are explained to clarify their use in the current study. The following are taken from the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL, 2011e):

- BILINGUAL EDUCATION. Used both as an umbrella term for dual language and transitional bilingual programs, and synonymously with transitional bilingual programs (Glossary of terms related to dual language/TWI in the United States).
- TRANSITIONAL BILINGUAL EDUCATION. A program for English language learners in which the goal is proficiency in oral and written English. The students' native language is used for instruction for a number of years (1-3 is typical) and is gradually phased out in favor of all-English instruction. In the late exit program model students receive instruction in the partner language for 4-6 years while in the early exit program model students receive instruction in the partner language for 1-3 years (Glossary of terms related to dual language/TWI in the United States).

- TWO-WAY IMMERSION (TWI). A dual language program in which both native English speakers and native speakers of the partner language are enrolled, with neither group making up more than two-thirds of the student population. The language goals are full bilingualism and biliteracy in English and a partner language, students study language arts and other academic content (math, science, social studies, arts) in both languages over the course of the program, the partner language is used for at least 50% of instruction at all grades, and the program lasts at least 5 years (preferably K-12). In the 50:50 model English and the partner language are each used for 50%of instruction at all grade levels. In the 90:10 model students are instructed 90% of the time in the partner language and 10% in English in the first year or two, with the amount of English instruction gradually increasing each year until English and the partner language are each used for 50% of instruction (generally by third grade) (Glossary of terms related to dual language/TWI in the United States).

Other terms required to contextualize this study are taken from the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE, 2008):

- ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNER. An active learner of the English language who may benefit from various types of language support programs. This term is used mainly in the U.S. to describe K–12 students (NCTE, 2008).

- ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE. Formerly used to designate ELL students; this term increasingly refers to a program of instruction designed to support the ELLs (NCTE, 2008).

- LIMITED ENGLISH PROFICIENCY. Employed by the U.S. Department of Education to refer to ELLs who lack sufficient mastery of English to meet state standards and excel in English-language classrooms. Increasingly, English Language Learner (ELL) is used to describe this population because it highlights learning rather than suggesting that nonnative English-speaking students are deficient (NCTE, 2008).

- ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE. Nonnative English-speaking students who are learning English in a country where English is not the primary language. (NCTE, 2008).

Other terms used in this study are taken from the Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition (CARLA, 2004):

- MINORITY LANGUAGE STUDENTS. Students who speak a language other than the one spoken by the majority of people in a given regional or national context, for example, Spanish in the U.S. (CARLA, 2004).

- MAJORITY LANGUAGE STUDENTS. Students who speak the language spoken by the majority of people in a given regional or national context, for example, English in the U.S. (CARLA, 2004).

Overview of Methodology

The theory of knowledge supporting this study is constructivism. In constructivism, meaning is constructed in various ways depending on different realities, thus creating distinctive, meaningful realities. In the constructivist perspective, individuals are actively engaged in the meaning-making process within specific situated contexts (Jones & Brader-Araje, 2002; Vygotsky, 1978). This theoretical perspective focuses on how human beings create knowledge and meaning from systematic and mutual interaction with experiences in their lives. It focuses on the principle that human beings, through personal experiences, create an understanding of the things and the world they live in (Hatch, 2002). This theoretical framework will be further elaborated in Chapter 3; I now explain the sample selection and data sources.

Sample Selection

The present study seeks to provide an in-depth analysis of one research participant. The research participant data used for this study is part of a larger study focused on discursive scaffolding techniques as ways to promote language use and development. I was part of the larger study for a year and a half starting in 2009, working as part of the research team transcribing, revising, coding, and analyzing data from four of six TWI teachers. In the larger study, there were four first-grade teachers (three Spanish-language teachers and one English language development (ELD) teacher), one fourth-grade, and one fifth-grade teacher teaching English and Spanish.

Data from the larger study were collected in four first-grade, one fourth-grade, and one fifth-grade TWI classrooms. Classroom observations took place during two-week

visits to the school in October, November, and December 2009, and January, May, and June 2010. The lessons observed were video and audio recorded. All data were collected by the principal investigator of the study. The larger study required IRB and consent letters from all teachers as well as parental consents since videotaping took place in the classroom. There were consultations with the teachers, and they agreed to be observed mainly for science and social studies lessons. However, the focus later extended to math and literacy lessons. Teachers also participated in two formal one-hour interviews (December 2009 and June 2010) and three after-school meetings to discuss the video data with a focus on pair work as a structure to promote peer interaction and language use.

From the data collected on the six teachers from the larger study, I used the data from one first grade teacher. This one teacher inspired me to know more about her teaching practices in terms of providing students with opportunities to use Spanish in meaningful ways. I met the teacher participant last year, and I have remained in constant communication with her in order to do member checks related to her participation in my study and the larger study. In addition, I contacted her in relation to personal and professional information that is further described in the “Research Participant” section in Chapter 3, as well as additional questions pertinent to the study at hand.

Data Sources

The current study used some of the data collected for the larger study. Data were collected using naturalistic qualitative research methods including interviews and audio/video recorded lessons. They are naturalistic because they took place in the classroom, thus occurring in a natural setting (Hatch, 2002). The original study was

designed to capture the participant's language and behaviors in the classroom as evidence of teaching practices and possible ways to analyze discourse practices used to elicit, scaffold, and support language. The interviews were used to clarify the teacher's perspectives and practices. For the current study, both video-tapes of lessons and interviews were used as the primary source of data.

For the research participant of this current study, four lessons were video- and audio-recorded during the 2009-2010 school year (two in December 2009, one in January 2010, and one in May 2010). There were four lesson episodes lasting approximately eighty minutes each (Table 1-1). Even though the teacher was observed for morning message sessions, mathematics, and literacy lessons during the 2009-2010 school year for the larger study, the current study only focused on the literacy lessons because I transcribed all literacy lessons for this teacher. I also transcribed both of her interviews. These literacy lessons were available to me and I was fully familiar with them.

The study drew on data from the four literacy lessons. The lessons focused on the teaching of reading content, reading skills, and vocabulary building. The first lesson was organized around self-regulated centers; one center was teacher-led. For the others, lessons were structured as group work activities where students worked cooperatively to present a story, act out a mini play, and construct a classroom mural. During all four literacy lessons, a teacher's aide was present. In addition, during the last lesson, a volunteer helped in the classroom. Both the teacher's aide and volunteer were bilingual.

Data Analysis

For this qualitative study, I used Hatch's (2002) approach to inductive analysis in the form of domain analysis. Domain analysis is the study of semantic relationships that form categories that include other categories (Hatch, 2002). This analysis is best known as one that moves from specific elements to general conclusions. It involves a constant and systematic process of identifying, summarizing, and revising domains. The domains include identifiable frames of analysis, creation of codes, included and cover terms and the establishment of semantic relationships. The objective of the study was to examine how a bilingual teacher elicited students' extended use of Spanish language during whole group instruction in a TWI Spanish first-grade classroom.

From the steps proposed by Hatch (2002) to conduct domain analysis, I used seven as follows:

- Read the data and identify frames of analysis ("meaningful units")
- Create domains based on semantic relationships discovered within frames of analysis
- Identify salient domains, assign them a code, and put others aside
- Reread data, refining salient domains and keeping record of where relationships are found in the data
- Decide if your domains are supported by the data for examples that do not fit with or run counter to the relationships in your domains
- Complete an analysis within domains
- Search for themes across domains

All these steps are further elaborated in Chapter 3, where methodology is fully explained.

Limitations of the Study

Some limitations of the study include the context and the data sources. First of all, I worked with extant data since all data for this current study belongs to a larger study in which the participant had been already selected. Since I did not collect the data, there was not initial rapport with the teacher participant. However, interaction with her came later in the study. I first met her as we presented together in a conference where I was able to build connections with her. Another limitation of the study in regard to not having collected the data was the fact that I did not engage in note-taking or memo-writing while observing and recording the lessons, and interviewing the participant. Also the lessons were video-taped and only the teacher had a microphone so there were some teacher-student and student-student events with important information that are missing from the tape. Finally, the focus of the study was the bilingual teacher which limited the possibility to look at student conversational data during small group interactions.

Importance of the Study

TWI programs provide culture and language-rich environments. The role played by teachers is essential in the programs (Hayes, 2005; Lindholm-Leary, 2005; Palmer 2008a, 2009). Their teaching strategies are key to the goals of TWI: bilingualism, biliteracy, academic achievement, and cross-cultural competence. Teaching strategies that are important in TWI programs include eliciting more language through verbal and non-verbal requests, monitoring student interactions, and facilitating interaction through conversation and cooperation in their partner language. Teachers can work as initiators, moderators, and promoters of language use and development (Christian et al., 2000; García, 2004; Lessow-Hurley, 2009).

Wiltse (2006) urges educators to seek ways in which to use linguistic diversity as a valuable resource to mediate learning, where linguistic and cultural elements are used to more effectively reach the students. She highlights the importance of exploring and conducting further research in effective practices for teaching students with different linguistic backgrounds. Banks et al. (2005) talk about the value of teachers' attitudes and expectations and the importance of their dispositions when teaching diverse learners. These dispositions include the need for teachers to capitalize on students' strengths and to view them as valuable resources and as learners whose linguistic and cultural background is rich and unique. As part of her findings, Palmer (2009) addressed the importance of "teachers who understand the power of discourse and the impact of students' multiple identities (e.g., race, class, gender) on their participation in classroom talk and learning" (p. 58) because then those teachers will more effectively look for ways to handle classroom talk in a search for linguistic balance.

According to Takahashi-Breines (2001), TWI programs face challenging realities; the English language and American culture are "perceived as the language/culture of power" (p. 232). This current study seeks to add to the body of literature that addresses possible alternative ways in which TWI teachers can empower language minority students, including maximizing their linguistic and cultural skills by providing opportunities for them to maintain their native language while developing a second language. Finding out more about how TWI teachers promote genuine conversations in the classrooms and how they engage students in dialogue to promote language use and development is fundamental to continuing the conversation about TWI programs.

Organization of the Dissertation

Chapter 1 of this dissertation introduces the study and its importance. Chapter 2 provides a review of the relevant literature about bilingual education and language minority students, as well as the role of teachers in TWI programs. The methodology of the study is discussed in detail in Chapter 3. Within that chapter, the research design, data sources, and data analysis procedures are explained. Chapter 4 addresses the results obtained through domain analysis. Finally, Chapter 5 provides a discussion of the study's findings and the implications for future practice and research.

Table 1-1. First grade teacher's literacy lessons

Lesson episodes	Date	Time
Literacy Lesson #1	December 11, 2009	81:09
Literacy Lesson #2	December 18, 2009	80:14
Literacy Lesson #3	January 29, 2010	73:12
Literacy Lesson #4	May 28, 2010	81:17

CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

The aim of this chapter is to review literature relating to TWI programs and provide a conceptual framework for the research questions of the study. It starts with background information about language diversity and immigration issues in the United States and examines the historical and socio-political context of bilingual education. It provides an overview of sociocultural theory (SCT) and communicative language teaching (CLT) as theoretical frameworks for TWI programs. The chapter also describes the key features of TWI programs and reviews research about the impact of the programs in terms of social interaction and classroom discourse. Finally, the chapter reviews instructional practices and pedagogical trends related to teacher discourse in TWI programs.

Educating Language Minority Students in the United States

There has been a growing immigrant population in the United States; however, the current immigrants differ from those of the 19th and 20th centuries who were mainly of European descent (Lee & Suarez, 2009). Hispanic and Asian immigrants have become the predominant immigrant population in the country. The United States foreign-born population constitutes 38.1 million people, about 12.6% (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010). Statistics from the U.S. Census Bureau (2004) report that 25% of foreign-born people come from Asian and 53.3% from Latin American countries—10.1% are Caribbean, 6.3% are South American, and 36.9% are Central American.

The Latino population has become the largest and fastest-growing minority group in the country (Kohler & Lazarín, 2007; NCTE, 2008). This change in demographics presents various challenges in the country and brings diversity to its maximum potential.

Socioeconomic, political, religious, familial, cultural, educational, and linguistic aspects all come into play and try to merge into the mainstream way of living in the country.

Students from non-English speaking backgrounds are the fastest growing segment of the K–12 student population in the country (CAL, 2011d). Language minority students comprise a very diverse group since some are born in the United States while others are born abroad. They have varying degrees of language proficiency in their native languages and in English. Additionally, they come from different socioeconomic and educational backgrounds and hold various immigration statuses. Some projections suggest that language minority students will comprise over 40% of elementary and secondary students by 2030 (Thomas & Collier, 1997a).

Bilingual Education. Bilingual education policies have been changing due to current trends in demographic and philosophical views. While there have been times of rejection and prohibition for bilingual education, most supporters and researchers of bilingual education view bilingualism as an asset rather than a problem (Baker, 2001; Christian, 1994; de Jong & Harper, 2007; Freeman, 1994; López Estrada et al., 2009; Lucas & Grinberg, 2008; Souto-Manning, 2006; Téllez & Waxman, 2006; Villegas & Lucas, 2002, 2007). They advocate moving away from compensatory schooling to high-quality schooling that educates language minority students to their highest academic and linguistic potential (Brisk, 2006). High-quality schooling refers to treatment of students' language and culture as resources, not as deficiencies. Also, the instruction provided to them takes into account their academic, cultural, and linguistic needs. Compensatory education models include submersion and English as a second

language (ESL) and high-quality bilingual models include maintenance and enrichment programs detailed as follows (Brisk, 2006; DePalma, 2010; Ray, 2008; Stritikus, 2002):

- SUBMERSION. Students are placed in regular English-only classrooms and are given no special instructional support.
- ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE (ESL). There is no instruction in a student's primary language; ESL is taught either through pull-out programs or integrated with academic content during the day through "sheltered instruction" (also known as structured immersion) where there is some assistance in the regular classroom.
- TRANSITIONAL BILINGUAL EDUCATION (TBE). Students receive some degree of instruction in their primary language for a period of time; however, the goal of the program is to transition students to English-only instruction as rapidly as possible. There are two different types: the early-exit (within 1 to 3 years) and the late exit (expected in 4 to 6 years).
- MAINTENANCE BILINGUAL EDUCATION (MBE). Language minority students receive instruction in their primary language and in English throughout the elementary school years (K-6) with the goal of developing academic proficiency in both languages.
- ENRICHMENT PROGRAMS STRUCTURED AS TWO-WAY IMMERSION PROGRAMS (ALSO KNOWN AS TWO-WAY SCHOOLS, DUAL LANGUAGE, TWO WAY BILINGUAL EDUCATION, DEVELOPMENTAL BILINGUAL EDUCATION, BILINGUAL IMMERSION, DOUBLE IMMERSION). Language minority and language majority students are instructed together in the same program with the goal of each group achieving bilingualism, biliteracy, and cross-cultural awareness.

These programs rarely exist in "pure" form; there often are variations within them. Ray (2008) refers to them as a continuum of bilingual programs which might vary depending on the specific demographics of the area and even district or state policies. There are weaker and stronger forms of bilingual education (Baker, 2001; Wiley, 2007). The weaker forms, including submersion (structured and withdrawal ESL) and transitional bilingual education, provide instruction in the majority language, and the ultimate aim is for language minority students to reach assimilation and monolingualism. The stronger forms, including maintenance language and two-way immersion, seek pluralism,

bilingualism, and linguistic and cultural enrichment; they encourage minority language maintenance.

As bilingual education models arose, teaching and learning theories also appeared to more effectively guide these models. Sociocultural theory (SCT) and communicative language teaching (CLT) gained popularity in the 70s and 80s, opening the horizons to new understandings about second language teaching and learning.

Sociocultural Theory (SCT)

Second language learning theories have moved from psycholinguistic and cognitive views to more sociolinguistic and sociocultural dimensions. In this shift, second language learning becomes a "process of acquiring socially constituted communication practices" (Lotan, 2007, p, 192) where there are opportunities for rich environments that provide multiple interactions not only with teachers, but also with peers. The social aspect of language became more important in theories about second language learning and teaching.

SCT considers language learning to be a social process. Language is acquired through social interaction situated in a social context where all participants in the learning process bring their knowledge and together they contribute and collaborate to create new knowledge. The view of the role of the learner within this theoretical perspective is that learner is an active agent engaged in situated meaning making. This perspective emphasizes cognitive, linguistic, and social knowledge as being tightly connected to "extended participation and active apprenticeship in sociocultural" scenarios (Hall & Walsh, 2002, p. 186). Vygotsky (1978) claims that sociocultural factors are essential for cognitive growth; it is the activities and the interaction in which learners engage that promotes cognitive change (Ellis, 1997, 2000).

Comprehensible input (CI) remains an essential term since providing students with a context for language comprehension is fundamental in second language learning. Krashen (1981) asserts that when sufficient CI (either through verbal and non-verbal means) takes place, learners can understand language that is slightly above their current language level. It is in this effort that learners progress linguistically. Others have argued that the linguistic input is not enough; students must be also exposed to recurring occasions for their output (Long & Potter, 1985; Lotan, 2007; Swain, 1985, 1995). Learners must have opportunities for output where they can "respond, verbally and non-verbally... where meaning is negotiated and communication accomplished through give and take, trial and error" (Peregoy & Boyle, 1999, p. 15). Comprehensible output (CO) becomes fundamental to attend to the need for students' interaction with language and other students (Krashen, 1991; Swain, 1985; Swain, 2009). Having the opportunity to express oneself and produce knowledge and language results in positive outcomes including those of testing hypotheses about language use (meaning and form) and receiving feedback (Ellis, 2008; Gass & Selinker, 2008). Within this theoretical perspective, output is an active and engaging part of second language learning since it is an indicator of language knowledge and evidence of the learning process. Social interaction provides students with expanded opportunities for CI and negotiation of meaning as well as CO (Long & Potter, 1985; Swain, 2005).

Based in large part on the work of Vygotsky (1978), SCT affirms that learning is a social, collaborative phenomenon that takes place in a socially-mediated context. SCT emphasizes the social and interactive character of language learning. It states that the construction of knowledge and development occurs in active engagement between the

individual and more competent individuals. According to SCT, “learning arises not through interaction but in interaction” (Ellis, 2000). SCT acknowledges the dynamic and interactive nature of learning since it is in interaction that learning takes places (Ellis, 1997, 2000, 2008). Williams (1995) suggests the following features about SCT:

- There is emphasis on using authentic language, including rich, varied, and unpredictable input.
- There is emphasis on tasks that encourage the negotiation of meaning between students, and between students and teacher, presumably with the goal of making input comprehensible to participants.
- There is emphasis on successful communication, especially that which involves risk taking, minimal focus on form, including: lack of emphasis on error correction (if it does occur, it is likely to be meaning focused), and little explicit instruction on language rules.
- There is emphasis on learner autonomy and choice of language, topic, and so on

(p.12).

SCT promotes social interaction which goes in accordance with TWI programs. The social interaction that takes place with native and nonnative speakers is a key component of effective TWI programs (Peregoy & Boyle, 1999). In the context of bilingualism, native and non-native students through peer interaction, share and work together to use and develop the language as a meaningful interactive process. Students from the minority language can work as models for the majority language students and provide opportunities for student’s CI and CO and the need to negotiate meaning. Research has argued that a second language learning classroom should provide an environment that promotes and encourages communication, opportunities to interact with native speakers of the target language and social interaction (Fillmore, 1991; Krashen, 1982). Lee, Hill-Bonnet, and Gillispie (2008) have suggested that language

skills are best developed during social interaction where there is abundant access to CI and opportunities for CO.

Core principles of SCT include mediation, zone of proximal development (ZPD), and scaffolding (Lantolf, 2000; Vygotsky, 1978). Mediation refers to specific tools including symbols, signs, artifacts, and even language that serve as means to socially learn (Lantolf, 2009). These tools are used to mediate learning through various learning tasks and demands. SCT defines language as a meditational tool for learning rather than the object of learning and instruction (Vygotsky, 1978). Mediation includes the role played by others in the learning process. Social interaction is central to SCT since it is through the use of tools and interaction that humans learn in a specific context. Social interaction is considered the matrix of language learning (Ellis, 1997). Language learning should be a process where students can interact with one another in an environment that allows them to be active participants and where collaborating and working together become tenets of the classroom activities.

In mediation is important to note that learners are not expected to simply use the tools; learners must transfer them into their world and even appropriate them for new learnings to take place (Lantolf, 2000; Vygotsky, 1978). In contrast with earlier beliefs about teaching language, learners are not expected to learn isolated pieces of information (e.g., vocabulary, language structures, and grammar) transmitted by a more knowledgeable person. Instead there is a holistic view of meaning that values what students bring with them through multiple interplays in their lives and in which environments are created for all learners to collaborate with one another and learn from one another.

The zone of proximal development (ZPD) refers to the distance between a child's actual and potential development level, as determined by whether a child can independently work and problem-solve or if he or she needs some adult guidance or more knowledgeable peers' collaboration (Vygotsky, 1978). The ZPD is the space where students cannot yet fully operate independently but can complete work if they have appropriate support. The ZPD is not a place; it emerges through interaction either with an adult or more capable peers. Collaboration and interaction among peers can result in a collective ZPD where individual learners within their learning-situated contexts learn what they need to (Ellis, 2008).

Based on Vygotsky (1978), scaffolding refers to any kind of temporary help given by a more competent person so that the learner can achieve greater goals while performing. Scaffolding is a dialogic process in which one individual helps another one with a new task (Ellis, 2000). In this way, social interaction mediates learning highlighting the importance of social interaction in SCT. Scaffolding is based on the premise that learners learn most productively with support in the ZPD. Scaffolding works as an instructional strategy used by instructors to model a task so that responsibility can gradually be given to the learners. It is known as assisted performance (Lier, 2004).

SCT has significant implications for second language instruction and teacher education. First, learning should be viewed and treated in terms of collaborative achievement rather than isolated work. Second, language is learned and developed when it is used socially within interaction, mediation, and collaboration with others in the context of the classroom. Teachers and learners become active members that can

create ZPZs in which all can learn. Third, the use of scaffolding techniques is fundamental for language use and development. Fourth, problem-solving, negotiating, and creating meaning are collaborative acts. SCT places great emphasis on social interaction since it is in interaction that language is socially used and developed; language learning takes place in interactive settings.

When thinking about the role of instruction and taking into account all these characteristics as part of this sociocultural view of language, there is a teaching model that emerged to provide new insights in second language teaching: communicative language teaching (CLT).

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

Communicative language teaching (CLT) emphasizes authentic language use, collaborative creation and negotiation of meaning, engaging classroom activities where there are exchanges of real communication, and real-life settings where students communicate in purposeful ways (Galloway, 1993; Richards, 2006; Richards & Rodgers, 1986). This communicative approach gives priority to the semantic content of language. In other words, grammar is not fully emphasized, but learners learn grammar and form through meaning. The emphasis focuses on how well students engage in meaningful and authentic language use rather than merely mechanical practice of language patterns (Richards & Rogers, 1986). As students engage in meaningful communication, the role played by the teacher is extremely important. Teachers become active facilitators of students' learning as well as facilitators of communication. They also monitor the communication process as they create a classroom environment conducive to language learning which provides ample opportunities for students to use and practice the language (Richards, 2006). Students' roles also change in CLT.

Students are expected to speak and perform more as well as negotiate and interact with others; thus gaining more confidence and expertise in the use of the language.

CLT has some distinctive features including learner-centered teaching, interactive learning, cooperative learning, whole language education, content-centered education, and task-based learning (Brown, 1994; Richards & Rodgers, 1986; Savignon, 2002). In learner-centered instruction, activities focus on the students' needs and they give more control to the students. In cooperative learning classes, emphasis is placed on collaborative efforts between students and the teacher or among students. As part of interactive learning, there is high emphasis on pair work, group work, and authentic language input in real-world contexts where language production is aimed at genuine, meaningful communication.

CLT highlights the real purpose of language: to communicate things that are real and meaningful, to communicate for genuine, real-life reasons. Individuals like to talk, to provide opinions, to express their feelings and emotions, and to share what they know with others. When communication is rooted in issues, challenges, or decisions that individuals face in the world and when communication is saturated with meaning and significance, then there is authentic communication. This is represented in the students' use of creative language to make unique statements that reflect their need to communicate.

The whole language view of CLT establishes that language is no longer treated as "the sum of its many dissectible and discrete parts" (Brown, 1994, p. 82). Instead it is the integration of them into a whole system. Content-centered education is the integration of content with the intention of promoting second language learning. In CLT,

communicative tasks become the main focus of instruction where pair and group work (e.g., where students role play or problem solve) are the means to use and develop language. Some classroom activities include information gathering, opinion-sharing, task-completion, reasoning-gap, and role-plays. All these activities require social interaction and cooperative learning approaches since they place great emphasis on collaborative work. The emphasis on pair work and group work results in students learning from hearing the language used by other members of the group and greater production of language than in teacher-directed activities. If classroom activities in CLT are intended as preparation for the real world, then activities and language used in the activities must be authentic, genuine and real-life bounded, and meaningful to the learners (Brown, 1994). The materials used in CLT settings must promote communicative language, be authentic, and be task-based.

Within CLT language is viewed “as a system for the expression of meaning; primary function-interaction and communication” (Brown, 1994, p. 70). Brown and Rodgers (1986) and Berns (1990) indicate that the most important purpose of language is for interaction and communication. Language is seen as a social tool to make meaning and to communicate with a purpose rather than as a set of rules and grammar notions. Berns (1990) stresses the importance of language variety as recognized models for teaching and learning and the importance of culture as an instrumental tool and significant construct in shaping speakers’ communicative competence.

Communicative competence is an essential concept in CLT (Hymes 1972; Richards, 2006; Richards & Rodgers, 1986; Savignon, 2002). Communicative competence is knowledge, what the individual knows. It also refers to the ability to use

language in a social context in a range of different purposes and functions. Dimensions of communicative competence which are identified in the literature include the following: linguistic or grammatical competence (grammatical, lexical, morphological, syntactical, and phonological knowledge); sociolinguistic, pragmatic, or sociocultural competence (social context and communicative purpose of social interaction); discourse competence (meaning relationships and interconnectedness of discourse not as isolated pieces, but as whole language); and strategic competence (coping strategies to communicate) (Canale & Swain,1980; Richards & Rogers, 1986; Savignon, 2002).

To summarize, CLT has important implications for second language instruction and teacher education. First, communication is a holistic process that involves several language skills and functions. Second language learning arises when learners are engaged in interaction and meaningful communication. Meaningful communication results from students interacting with content that is relevant, purposeful, interesting, and engaging (Richards, 2006). Finally, students learn in a sharing and collaborative environment that provides opportunities for them to negotiate meaning, expand their language resources, notice how language is used, and take part in meaningful communication.

SCT and CLT came to transform the way language learning and teaching was viewed. SCT and CLR share similar underlying views about language learning and teaching. SCT as a theory validates the importance of social interaction as a way to construct knowledge. In SCT, language learning is a social process situated in a context. CLT, as a language approach highlights the authenticity language has in life. CLT views language not as an artificial aspect. On the contrary language is a living

phenomenon used genuinely by individuals daily. These two, the language theory and the language approach, value the interactive piece of language and knowledge construction. TWI programs base their foundations on these two; SCT and CLT and take into account their features (e.g., scaffolding, social interaction, authentic use of language, cooperative learning, etc.,) as ways to promote language use and development.

TWI Programs in the United States

Public dissatisfaction with transitional bilingual education models was an impetus for the establishment of TWI programs (Crawford, 1991). In 1993, the Bilingual Education Act proposed, for the first time, that ELLs be encouraged to develop their native language skills (Crawford, 2007). At this point, new approaches to bilingual education began flourishing.

TWI programs started as an initiative to better serve immigrant children in their education. These programs were designed to overcome the harmful effects of segregating linguistically and culturally diverse students. These programs work differently than most bilingual models since they do not fall in the category of "corrective" education. Instead they highlight the importance of linguistic diversity and they value students' backgrounds as fundamental assets of successful education. TWI programs are more educationally and socially effective than other bilingual models that dictate a compensatory approach rather than an enriched one (Baker, 2001; Brisk, 2006; de Jong & Howard, 2009; Dolson & Mayer, 1992; Ray, 2008).

TWI is an instructional approach that integrates students from two different language backgrounds, typically native English speakers and speakers of another language (usually Spanish) to learn through both languages (a majority and minority

language). TWI programs takes into account foreign language immersion for native English speakers (influenced by Canadian immersion programs) and bilingual programs for native speakers of the minority language (de Jong & Howard, 2009; Valdés, 1997). These programs provide content and literacy instruction to all students in both languages. The intention is for students to have an immersion experience in each other's languages (Christian, 2008).

Although some states have created policies that prohibit bilingual education, Massachusetts is a state in which bilingual education supporters have convinced legislatures to exempt dual language programs from prohibition (Brisk, 2006). They were able to do this by demonstrating that dual language programs educate not only language minority students but also English language speakers, which have previously been recipients of a weak system of foreign language instruction (Howard et al., 2003). Even though the struggle for education of linguistically and culturally diverse students continues, some efforts have been and are constantly being made to structure bilingual programs to better serve those students. A very clear example is TWI programs.

Characteristics of TWI Programs

There are two common models: the "balanced" model (50:50) and the "minority language dominant" model (90:10) (Figure 2-1). In the 50:50 model, students are instructed 50% in the minority language and 50 % in the majority language. In the 90:10 model, the minority language requires greater promotion in the early grades of elementary school, which enhances the chances of developing and maintaining high levels of minority language proficiency (Howard & Christian, 2002). Instruction can be divided by subject, times, days, or teachers. The choice of Spanish as the instructional language in the beginning years of a TWI programs seeks to validate the students'

minority language and develop their linguistic and cognitive skills in the first language. Language minority students tend to be socioeconomically marginalized and are often racially or ethnically discriminated against (Valdés, 1997). Spanish is, then, heavily encouraged and promoted in the early elementary years of school. By legitimizing Spanish, language minority students can benefit not only linguistically and culturally but also academically. The aim is for students to be successful in school by providing them with a solid education in their native language. Language majority students also benefit with the reinforcement of Spanish in the early elementary grades. When language immersion takes place that early in school, language majority students have increased opportunities to learn the second language proficiently while reaching for academic achievement in both languages.

TWI programs are intended to cover Kindergarten through at least grade 5 or 6. Howard et al. (2003) state the TWI programs must have three defining criteria. First, there must be a fairly equal number of students from the minority language (usually Spanish) and from the majority language (English). Second, students from both groups are integrated for core academic instruction for most or all of the day. Third, core academic instruction is provided to both groups of students in both languages. Christian (1994) propose some additional characteristics of TWI programs:

- Programs should provide a minimum of four to six years of bilingual instruction to participating students.
- The focus of instruction should be the same core academic curriculum that students in other programs experience.
- Optimal language input (input that is comprehensible, interesting, and of sufficient quantity) as well as opportunities for output should be provided to students, including quality language arts instruction in both languages.

- The program should provide an additive bilingual environment where all students have the opportunity to learn a second language while continuing to develop their native language proficiency.
- Classrooms should include a balance of students from the target language and English backgrounds who participate in instructional activities together.
- Positive interactions among students should be facilitated by the use of strategies such as cooperative learning.
- Characteristics of effective schools should be incorporated into programs, such as qualified personnel and home-school and community collaboration

(p. 5-6).

Purposes of TWI Programs

The central goals of TWI programs include bilingualism and biliteracy, academic achievement, and cross-cultural awareness (Christian, 1994; Howard & Christian, 2002; Howard et al., 2003; Lindholm-Leary, 2001). These goals are pluralistic, and they seek to promote multiculturalism as well as maintenance of students' minority language (Cloud et al., 2000; Lindholm-Leary, 2001).

With bilingualism, it is expected that students develop high levels of communicative and literacy proficiency in both the minority and majority languages. Additive bilingualism is a form of enrichment in which students learn one language without subtracting another one. This is also related to additive schooling, where students' linguistic and cultural values are taken into account (Valdés, 1997; Valenzuela, 2009). Additive bilingualism is associated with high levels of language expertise in two languages and with positive, affirming cross-cultural attitudes (Lambert, 1984; Lindholm, 1991). In the case of language majority students who are mostly exposed to the minority instruction language during the early grades, additive bilingualism becomes a fundamental issue for two main reasons. First, young English native speakers show a fast development of comprehension skills in a second

language. Second, the language is sheltered in the sense that it is a communication-skill based language, where language is contextualized and pedagogical features include non-verbal cues, gestures, and drawings (Lindholm, 1991). Furthermore, early immersion in second language can smooth the progress of a child's second language learning (Genesse, 1994; Lambert, 1984).

For language minority students, additive bilingualism is also fundamental. Spanish native speakers might not be fully proficient in Spanish even when Spanish is their native language. Spanish is the dominant language of instruction in TWI programs in the early grades, but English continues to be the dominant societal language both inside and outside the classroom. Thus, Spanish speakers need more exposure in order to maintain and develop their native language proficiently. Additionally, learning through one's native language has various benefits, including facilitating the development of literacy, growth of content knowledge, and enhancement of cognitive and social development (Crawford, 1991; Krashen, 1991; Hakuta, 1986). Also, if sustained for a long period of time in order to promote the development of high levels of language proficiency, bilingual development may facilitate a child's cognition and enhancement of English language (Lindholm, 1991).

On the other hand, subtractive bilingualism implies a forceful situation where students are required to "forget" about their native language in order to attain a more prestigious, powerful language (refer to Valenzuela (2009) for more on subtractive schooling). Subtractive bilingualism is associated with lower levels of second language acquisition, underachievement, and social and psychological disorders (Crawford, 1991; Lambert, 1984; Lindholm, 1991). When it comes to the goals of TWI programs, there

should not be any emphasis of one language over another. There should be a balanced development of both (Christian, 1994).

TWI programs seek to meaningfully integrate students, language, and instruction in order to provide the opportunities to learn each other's languages as well as appreciate each other's cultures (Christian, 1994, 2008). Cross-cultural awareness in TWI programs is intended to help students develop positive attitudes toward the language, the culture, and the individual as part of a group. TWI programs offer an educational and social context for language and culture.

Research in TWI Programs

One explanation for the recent growth and popularity of TWI programs is the recognition that language and cultural diversity are growing issues in the country. Another explanation comes from the considerable research that has demonstrated the effectiveness of the model for both native English and Spanish speakers (Lindholm-Leary, 2001; Ramírez et al., 1991; Thomas & Collier, 1997a, 2002). Research has indicated that, on average, language minority and majority students do as well or better in standardized testing, and both groups develop oral and written proficiency in two languages (Howard & Christian, 2002). TWI programs work as language resources and serve to better educate learners from minority language backgrounds (Christian, 2008). Howard et al. (2003) and Valdés (1997) state that, in TWI programs where cultural and linguistic identities are supported, the minority language students develop enhanced cognitive, academic, and linguistic skills.

Thomas and Collier (1997a) examined, in a series of quantitative longitudinal case studies, the highest long-term student achievement levels and the instructional practices associated with six bilingual education models. They collected data between 1982 and

1996 in five participating urban and suburban school districts in various regions of the country. The bilingual education models included two-way developmental, one-way developmental, transitional bilingual education, transitional with ESL assistance, ESL taught through academic content, and ESL pull-outs. Each program was first established as a well-implemented program which included students with no prior exposure to English. Approximately 700,000 records from 42,317 K-12 language minority students were analyzed. Students were organized into cohort groups and attended the programs four years or more. The study aimed at highlighting specific characteristics of school effectiveness for language minority students rather than favoring one bilingual program over another one. Findings indicated that more cognitive and academic development in the students' first language resulted in faster progression of the students' academic and linguistic skills in the second language. ELLs who had been schooled exclusively in English tended to have fewer academic gains in comparison to native English speakers. Also, students who had previously been exposed to schooling in their first language were more successful than others without prior linguistic and academic experiences. An interesting finding indicated that, in addition to receiving strong instruction in their native language (until grade 5 or 6), receiving simultaneous English instruction was the highest long-term predictor for English achievement. The study concluded that there are three key predictors for the academic achievement of language minority students: cognitive and academic development of their first language as long as possible parallel to second language academic instruction, effective approaches to teaching the academic curriculum through both languages, and a transformed sociocultural context for language minority students'

schooling. Thomas and Collier (1997a) indicated that instructional approaches that ensured effective practices in the programs under study include those in which classes were interactive, happened in discovery learning contexts, and deviated from traditional, teacher-directed classes.

Thomas and Collier (2002) expanded the aforementioned study and conducted a five-year study from 1996 to 2001 in five research sites in northeast, northwest, south-central, and southeast U.S. aimed at examining the long-term academic achievement of language minority students. The student achievement was measured based on nationally standardized tests in different subjects and in two languages: Spanish and English. Thomas and Collier (2002) found that when language minority students are placed directly into English mainstream classrooms, students perform significantly lower. Conclusions indicated that bilingual TWI models helped language minority students develop and maintain higher levels of achievement. This study also confirmed findings from the author's 1997 study indicating that formal schooling in the students' first language was a key predictor of language minority student's academic achievement.

More research is being conducted in various areas including design and implementation of TWI programs, student outcomes, and the attitudes and experiences of individuals involved in the programs (students, parents, teachers, principals, and communities). Perhaps one area that will constantly need research is that of instructional and pedagogical teaching practices.

Teacher Pedagogy in TWI Programs

The majority of the literature in teaching practices in TWI programs is grounded in theoretical perspectives about the nature of appropriate pedagogy. Some advocate

specific pedagogical features focused on teaching models and techniques, the nature of language input and output when teaching, and the role of the teacher. These pedagogical features are based on sociocultural foundations of language teaching and learning.

Crawford (1991), in a collection of guidelines for TWI programs, highlights the importance of the teaching model in these settings. He suggests the breaking of the authoritarian transmission model in which teachers simply impart and children receive knowledge to a more student-centered model (Howard & Christian, 2000). Instruction should resemble a conversation where students learn to think rather than memorize information and where language use and interaction in the classroom reflects and elaborates on students' experiences (Cummins, 1994, 2000, 2002). In a set of guiding principles for dual language education based on dual language program standards developed by Dual Language Education of New Mexico, Howard et al. (2007) concur with Crawford (1991) about the elimination of the transmission model in these settings. They advocate an interaction approach where students engage in communication and the teacher facilitates and promotes language rather than controls it. The main pedagogical goal in TWI programs should be that of socially generating and constructing knowledge and communication as a group (Cummins, 2000; Howard & Christian, 2002; Souto-Manning, 2006; Vygotsky, 1978).

de Jong and Howard (2009) addressed issues of integration and distribution of the linguistic advantages in TWI programs. They critically examined literature and presented their perspectives about TWI programs' shortcomings to ensure linguistic equity in the programs due to various social and pedagogical factors. Two main reasons

stood out: lack of access to native language models and learning opportunities in the language of instruction. They suggest that, in order to equalize the minority language in the classroom, teachers of that minority language should provide extended opportunities to engage students in “challenging, rich language and literacy activities in the native language” (p. 93). It is in this type of environment in which students can succeed linguistically and academically.

Crawford (1991) and Lindholm-Leary (2001) also concur on the importance of providing opportunities for language production as a key factor in TWI programs. Crawford (1991) affirmed that in order to become proficient in a second language, students need ample and extended opportunities to practice orally with native speakers, preferably in activities based on SCT and CLT views where language minority and language majority students can collaborate together (Krashen, 1981, 1982, 1991). Lindholm-Leary (2001) asserts that students should be given the opportunities to produce extended language where expression of ideas is highly promoted and encouraged. She adds that in order to provide those opportunities, teachers should use structured tasks and unstructured opportunities, both involving oral production skills so that students can be engaged.

Brisk (2006) claims that even when activities are aimed at collaboration and participation among students, the activities should always be effectively structured and monitored by teachers. Based on her theoretical reviews about bilingual education, teachers should become masters at engaging students and stimulating their linguistic and academic skills. Teachers should also aim at instructing students in a way that is challenging but not overwhelming. Instruction should be based on SCT features

including mediation, scaffolding, and ZPD that aim at guiding students and pushing them to further levels of linguistic and academic growth.

Other pedagogical strategies considered best practices in TWI programs as supported by the theoretical foundations of SCT and CLT of the programs include sheltered instruction, cooperative learning, and scaffolding techniques. Howard et al. (2003) suggest that, in sheltered instruction, students' linguistic needs are considered, instruction is contextualized, and communication is made accessible to students. It includes using visual aids (e.g., pictures, charts, graphs) which allow students to negotiate meaning, make connections between course content and prior knowledge, and act as mediators and facilitators. Krashen (1991) addressed the need for comprehensible input as a mandatory requisite to function in a second language. Individuals need to comprehend what is being said and conveyed. Swain (2005) has also stated that output, "the act of producing language (speaking or writing) constitutes, under certain circumstances, part of the process of second language learning," is extremely important (p. 471). That is, in addition to comprehensible linguistic input, language learners also need to engage in meaningful opportunities for language output (Swain, 2005).

As a fundamental tenet of SCT, TWI programs should implement instruction that uses scaffolding techniques where teachers give guidance and support to students as they progressively develop independent use of the new knowledge or skill (Freeman et al., 2005; Howard & Christian, 2002). In a review of SCT and second language learning, Lantolf (2009) examined studies conducted in the early and late 90s by Takahashi-Breines, Wood, Bruner and Ross, and Donato which indicated that using scaffolding

techniques positively affected the students' discourse and resulted in students' second language growth and more engaged classroom participation. Studies also conducted by Peregoy (1991) and Peregoy and Boyle (1999) suggested that the systematic and simultaneous combination of various scaffolds, or "multiple scaffolds" (Peregoy, 1991, p. 474), became a vehicle that enhanced participation between native and nonnative Spanish speakers. They highlighted the importance of routines as a way to scaffold language, provide peer interaction, and set models for the students. They claimed that the systematic reinforcement and constant repetition of routines throughout the entire year served as scaffolding techniques. Routines served as ways to initiate students in the classroom environment as beginner participants and worked as scaffolds since they provided nonnative Spanish speakers with a contextualized learning environment.

Another pedagogical feature that is intimately related to TWI programs is cooperative learning. Cooperative learning (CL) or small-group learning is "the instructional use of small groups so that students work together to maximize their own learning and each other's learning" (Johnson & Johnson, 2007, p. 26). CL practices are associated with promoting active and equal participation of students in the classroom (Cohen, 1997). They also promote student discussion and encourage student confidence and motivation. When working together, students must reach agreements and share, and specific interaction dynamics must take place. These dynamics include turn-taking, initiating a conversation, being responsive, and providing feedback, among others. The notion of cooperation is associated not only with psychological and emotional gains but also with academic achievement (Gillies & Boyle, 2005; Johnson & Johnson, 2007).

In CL, students work together on a common goal. Students also need to interact, negotiate, and collaborate to achieve a common goal, all of which refer to the theoretical foundations of SCT and CL. In order to guide students toward their goal, CL requires teachers to play a key role in its implementation and functioning. Teachers must provide clear specifications of the dynamics of the groups, highlight the expected behaviors, and support the groups before, during, and after any CL activity. Baines, Blatchford, and Kutnick (2007) conducted a study to evaluate a four-year teacher program in the United Kingdom regarding student group work focusing on the primary school first phase, the Social Pedagogic Research into Group Work project (SPRinG). The study initiated as a response to previous research indicating a concern about CL teaching practices. The researchers, in collaboration with some of the teachers in the project, created materials and implemented approaches to better promote CL in the classes. Findings showed an improvement in students' behaviors in terms of effective group interaction.

Baines, Blatchford, and Kutnick (2007) emphasize three main components in relation to CL, in which the teacher plays a fundamental role. Teachers should enhance students' relational skills, promote effective classroom context, and provide explicit structure and support. Howard and Christian (2002) emphasize the importance of incorporating CL strategies in TWI programs since CL provides ample opportunities to practice language and promotes negotiation skills. Additionally, Howard et al. (2007) highlight the promotion of positive social interactions between teachers and students as a significant instructional practice that promotes second language development among native and nonnative speakers in TWI programs since it encourages students to interact

and communicate (Gillies & Boyle, 2005; Howard et al., 2003; Peregoy & Boyle, 1999; Soltero, 2004; Walqui, 2006).

McKeon (1994), in a review of literature about language, culture, and school, suggests specific strategies that teachers should use to support second language learning. As based on CLT views, the strategies include promoting authentic communication that is meaningful and used in purposeful ways in the classroom (Cloud et al., 2000; Lindholm, 1991; McKeon, 1994). Purposeful talk requires students in the classroom to actively and constantly engage with ideas, opinions, solutions, and to work together to co-construct meaning (Nichols, 2006). McKeon (1994) urges teachers to assume a more conversational tone in their classes rather than common, monotonous, less critical question-answer interchanges between the teacher and the students (Extended Response Handbook, 2011). In similar note, Brisk (2006) posits that instruction should be engaging, challenging, and supportive, where students play an active role in learning by maximizing all potential opportunities to collaborate and participate in the classroom (Vygotsky, 1978).

Cloud et al. (2000) argue that language used by the students should drive learning, which then becomes the context for learning. That is, when students are engaged in meaningful activities, there is spontaneous use of language which will help to develop language. Cloud et al. (2000) define five teaching strategies to foster a conducive environment for developing oral proficiency in the second language which include structuring the use of oral language within a meaningful context, choosing activities that are relevant to the students, surrounding students with language that is just complex enough, equalizing the status of the two languages, and encouraging

students to use the language as much as possible. When there are interactive activities and there are real-life goals, students become engaged and learn the language even when not knowing some linguistic forms.

Crawford (1991) and Lindholm-Leary (2001), in reviews of theoretical, conceptual, and empirical literature about TWI programs, claim that optimal language input requires four characteristics: language that is adjusted to the comprehension level of the learner, language that is interesting and relevant, language in abundant and sufficient quantity, and language that is challenging so that it requires negotiating meaning and problem-solving skills (Long, 1981). These characteristics go hand and hand with the theoretical foundations of SCL and CLT that value social interaction, promote CI and CO, and use authentic language. Lindfors (1987), when addressing theoretical perspectives about children's language and learning, highlights the fact that students can indeed flourish academically, linguistically, and culturally when teachers provide them with a rich environment, an environment that encourages genuine language production in the classroom. The classroom becomes the means in which students interact in order to learn a second language. The classroom setting requires special attention in terms of ways in which language is promoted.

Classroom Discourse in the Second Language Setting

In classroom discourse, emphasis is placed on classroom language as a system of communication and interaction with specific discourse patterns (Cazden, 2001; Cole & Zuengler, 2008; Rymes, 2009). These patterns can include discursive interactions between teachers and students and also among students.

The basic unit of classroom interaction has been considered to be a three step pattern of teacher initiation, student response, and teacher evaluation or follow up,

which is best known as an IRE pattern (Hall & Walsh, 2002; Lier, 1984; Nunan, & Lamb, 1996). Several constructs have been studied in terms of IRE patterns. Turn taking, for example, has been shown to present challenges in areas such as transitioning from student to student and distribution of student responses across the student group. There is controversy about who and when a speaker can participate. Lier (1984) talks about the rights of communication in IRE structures which can vary from teacher-controlled scenarios such as “rotating dyads” (teacher interacting with one student at the time and then rotating to another student) to a more permissive and less regulated environment where student initiation is allowed and even encouraged. Lier (1984) stresses the importance of understanding the contextual environment where classroom interaction takes place. Some contextual aspects include teacher’s input, students’ output, and other linguistic resources used by the teacher and students.

Elicitation of responses is of great importance in IRE sequences. Elicitation is a function of teacher questioning in which the teacher seeks to extract information from the students rather that providing them with the answers. Questions used by teachers in the classroom can serve varied purposes. Nunan and Lamb (1996) suggests questions can be used as instructional tools to elicit information, check student understanding, and evaluate students’ responses. They can be used as classroom management (e.g., to control student behavior) and to control classroom interaction. When questions are used to teach language and content, then elicitation can be an engaging way to encourage meaningful communication. Classroom research indicates that different types of questions yield different outcomes in the students (Nunan & Lamb, 1996). High order questions (rather than factual questions) and open questions (instead of close

questions) are associated with encouragement and promotion of students' extended responses. In these types of questions, students are expected to elaborate more on their answers by explaining, justifying, or reflecting on their ideas and beliefs. Open-ended and follow-up questions result in longer, more complex learner responses and unsolicited turn-taking often breaks out the dominant teacher-led discourse (Brock, 1986).

Other types of questions that have been studied include display and referential questions. Display questions are those in which the initiator already knows the answer while in referential questions the answer is unknown to the individual. Display questions have been criticized for several reasons including the fact that they are less conducive for developing students' communicative language use (Lee, 2006). Display questions are considered less effective since they limit students' opportunities to use genuine language use (Long & Sato, 1983). Some studies indicate that when teachers use referential questions there is more student output since students provide significantly longer and syntactically more complex responses (Brock, 1986; Nunan, 1987; Nunan & Lamb, 1996). Brock (1986) asserts that teachers who use abundant referential questions create a flow of information which generates discourse that most faithfully resembles that of normal conversation outside the classroom. Lier (1988) argues that using referential questions does not necessarily lead to student elaboration and generation of genuine conversation since these questions might trouble and frustrate students who lack content and linguistic knowledge. Also Nunan and Lamb (1996) note that low-level referential questions do not encourage students to elaborate their answers.

Consistent use of the IRE structure has been assumed to limit students' opportunities to talk in the classroom since there is a tendency for teachers to control student interaction (Cazden, 2001; Hall & Walsh, 2002). Answers to the questions can become automatic or cause some students to remain silent. Questions can be repetitive and boring for the students who have enough language background. There are also cases where some students tend to dominate answering the questions. Additionally teacher elicitation is not necessarily indicative of more student talk. The way questions are posed shapes the way classroom interaction, which determines student's answers and participation patterns.

Concern about IRE sequences is not unanimous though. Some argue that IRE sequences can be effective means to monitor and guide students' learning (Christie, 1995; Lee, 2006). Lee (2006) conducted a literature review about teacher questions, paying close attention to display questions. While one of the criticisms of IRE patterns is that teachers tend to only rely on the use of display questions, making them "inauthentic" questions (Cazden, 2001, p. 46), Lee concluded that teacher's use of display questions can have an interactional piece which involves negotiation of meaning. She argues that IRE sequences and display questions can result in meaningful, engaging conversation with the students if they have an interactive component.

Hall and Walsh (2002) conducted a review of IRE (initiation-response-evaluation) and IRF (initiation-response-feedback) patterns. Evaluation (e.g., IRE patterns) differs from feedback (e.g., IRF) since feedback provides fewer judgmental comments. Feedback seeks to continue a conversation without evaluating content or form in a

given student answer or comment. Feedback can also help to open the conversation to the classroom and have students interact with one another in collaborative ways. From the studies examined, they concluded that providing students with feedback (in the form of response affirmations, reformulations, comments, and request for justification, clarification, or elaboration) and valuing their contributions (not judging or evaluating them) resulted in students elaborating more on their utterances and participating more as ways to engage in meaningful communication. Wells (1986) suggested that learner engagement can be maximized through teacher-led discourse using a modified pattern of IRF which encourages multiple responses and seeks peer collaboration with each teacher initiation. Cullen (1998) argues that teacher questions have been long analyzed in terms of quantity when they should be examined in terms of their effectiveness in serving as input for students, facilitating learning, and promoting dynamic interaction in the classroom. Johnson (2009) also notes that the focus of teacher questions should not be the questions themselves; questions should be studied as symbolic linguistic tools that serve to assist and scaffold language and promote language development. They should be examined in terms of their capacity to stimulate interaction, negotiation, meaning, and class participation.

The impact of teacher questioning depends on factors such as how the teacher asks the questions, the type of interaction the teacher promotes, and the kind of language used to elicit the responses. If elicitation is used effectively, it can keep students alert, reduce teacher talk time, encourage more student talk time, and lead to a dynamic and stimulating environment where language learning occurs. Regardless of the nature of the teachers' questions (e.g., display vs. referential; high order vs. factual)

or the question patterns (IRE vs. IRF), the nature of the environment for learning is important. Most important are the specific ways in which teachers manage to use questions in order to elicit information from the students and promote language use and development.

Research on Classroom Discourse and Interaction in the Second Language Setting

Hall and Walsh (2002) conducted a literature review to examine specific means used in teacher-student interaction to promote language learning. They affirm that schools as sociocultural contexts with specific learning, instructional, and interactive environments play essential roles in shaping the learners' language development. In order for students to be more aware of classroom interactive practices, there must be two aspects taken into consideration: the communicative goals of the classroom and the extended opportunities given to the learners to work on these communicative goals with more expert communicators. Hall (1995) asserts that the role played by teachers in developing classroom interactive frameworks is essential. According to her, teachers must provide models of competent participation and uses of appropriate discursive structures. Teachers also play a role in providing students with ample opportunities to use these frameworks so that they develop communicative competence and active, engaging participation. According to Hall (1995), interactive practices are those episodes that are purposeful and goal-oriented communication that establish and maintain a group or classroom community. Interactive practices require interactional competence; that is, the ability to develop and manage topical issues in pragmatic and relevant ways. Hall (1995) affirms that, from a sociocultural perspective, the guidance

provided by more knowledgeable individuals can take many forms including those of modeling, providing explicit directions, and coaching.

Research Focusing on Teacher-Student Interaction

Toth (2011) examined the benefits of teacher-led discourse (TLD) structured as collaborative, whole class tasks in a second language setting. The study provides a descriptive quantitative and qualitative comparison of TLD segments of two beginning university-level Spanish classes. In class A, classroom discourse was based on standard IRF sequences. Class B also used IRF, but structures were modified to more collaborative, open-ended classroom interactions. Students were all English adult learners ranging from 18 to 30 years of age with limited Spanish proficiency. Data included videotaped lessons and classroom observations over one university semester. Data analysis looked at latency between teacher initiation and learner response, number of solicited and unsolicited learner turns, and negotiation over meaning or form. Findings coming from quantitative measurements indicated more latency in discourse in class A than in class B. Also, students were more engaged in class B than in class A. The researcher found that IRF patterns and teacher discourse can be modified to create more open-ended questions (accompanied by follow-up questions) that encourage critical thinking and problem-solving skills. He argues that TLD and modified IRF patterns can be effective if they are well-managed. Teacher discourse can be adapted to a more communicative focus where students benefit from more freedom to comment, offer solutions, and share opinions and information. The findings of this study suggested that careful and monitored TLD can indeed foster, rather than impede, second language discourse in the students.

Hall (1995) conducted a study in a first year Spanish language classroom to examine topic development and discourse organization in an interactive speaking practice. The high school class was composed of 15 students. Data collection included 37 school visits (that were audio recorded and video recorded), students' and teacher's interviews. Findings focused on two main aspects: the rhetorical structure to develop topics and the use of linguistic resources. The most common pattern was IRE which was usually initiated with a focal topic familiar to the students. Findings indicated that there was some topic development initiated by the students, but was immediately ignored by the classroom teacher. The linguistic resources include opening utterances to set the topic, the use of ellipsis as a sign of salience, and the allocation of related vocabulary items. Findings furthered indicated that opening utterances initiated by the teacher were minimal, and there was no real topic development. Hall (1995) concluded that there was lack of opportunities for students to engage in interactive practices since most interactions did not delve into extended talk about a topic. Reflections by the authors highlight the importance of the teacher as a promoter and initiator of well-established interactive environments where students can engage in talk that promotes lexical use and topic development. They also emphasized how the teacher's use of language can either facilitate or constraint students' linguistic and cognitive growth.

Verplaetse (2000) conducted a mixed methods study to examine discourse strategies and teacher input employed by a middle school science teacher to create interactive opportunities for limited English proficient (LEP) students. The study focused on a teacher who had a reputation for being skillful at promoting effective levels of interaction in the class and developing linguistic and cognitive skills in the students. The

study draws from a larger study where two more teachers were participants. During the presentation of data, the researcher established some comparisons with the other two teachers from the larger study. Interaction in the study is presented as any opportunity to produce output or as the research refers to it to practice “extended discourse” (Verplaetse, 2000, p. 224). Qualitative data sources included classroom discussions, classroom observations, and three teacher interviews. Quantitative data included frequency counts of four factors: teacher elicitations, cognitive level elicitations, open-ended elicitations, and distribution of feedback acts. Teacher utterances were organized into four types: initiation, scaffold/initiation, response, and feedback. Findings presented two specific participant structures for the classroom discussions: the inquiry phase and the rapid-fire review. The first structure initiated with the teacher posing a question, followed by students wondering, speculating, and providing of opinions and comments. The second structure elicited students’ responses and promoted participation from non-volunteering students when revising homework or going over a class assignment. Findings indicate that the linguistic minority students participated at exceptional levels of frequency. The main teacher of the study, in comparison with the other two teachers, elicited more language from the students, used more open-ended questions, and provided more feedback. The teacher corrected the students less and listened to them more. The teacher used an “acceptance” strategy where she repeated and paraphrased students’ utterances, accepting all contributions without any evaluative or judgmental tone. Qualitative findings documented specific strategies used by the teacher. These included wondering aloud, nonjudgmental responses, drafting student participation, and constant encouragement of interaction from both native and nonnative English

speakers. These findings emphasized the teacher discourse in terms of the “wondering aloud.” During this phase, there were no real questions associated with this type of discourse; instead, the teacher simply spoke aloud a curiosity, which resulted in a great benefit for student language production.

Research Focusing on Teacher Discourse

Antón (1999) conducted an ethnographic study in two university language classes (French and Italian) to investigate teacher-centered and learner-centered discourses and their interactions in the second language context. Teacher-learner interactions for this study were examined through the lens of a sociocultural perspective. Data were collected through field notes from classroom observations and audio recordings. Both classes, Italian and French, used three classroom practices: grammar explanation, exercise correction, and oral practice. Findings were organized into four relevant themes: the discourse of formal instruction, providing feedback, allocating turns, and discussing learners’ preferences and strategies. For the first theme, findings indicated that the French teacher’s discourse served as an instructional scaffold where the teacher engaged with students to promote participation which spoke of a learner-centered teaching approach. In the case of the Italian teacher’s discourse, findings suggested a teacher-centered strategy, where the teacher provided most of the answers and accurate grammar explanations like a lecture. The French teacher generated knowledge by involving students in the learning process whereas the Italian teacher provided all knowledge students were “expected” to learn. The same pattern is repeated in the theme of providing feedback. The French teacher encouraged students to negotiate meaning and self- and peer-correct in the classroom. On the other hand, the Italian teacher did not encourage any correction since the teacher provided the

correct answers. Antón (1999) argues that teacher-centered discourse is less likely to be related to students' communicative gains and suggests that teacher-led discourse should be interactive and lead to classroom dialogue, which can result in learners becoming highly involved in the negotiation of meaning and linguistic forms.

Wiltse (2006), in a qualitative ethnographic study in a public school classroom in Canada, sought to examine discourse practices that promoted students' opportunities for language use and classroom participation. The study was conducted in a grade nine language arts class during one school year. Data sources included contextual field notes, audiotaped semi-structured interviews, archival documents (e.g., newspaper with articles about the school), and classroom artifacts (e.g., teacher and classroom documents, student writing samples). Findings indicated that there was a lack of structured classroom dialogue and teacher-whole class discussions; there was mostly seatwork. The research found that the teacher did not focus on discourse in the classroom where the teacher purposely avoided initiating discussion in the classroom because of a cultural barrier for some students. The teacher noted that some Asian students did not value questioning and discussion with superiors (e.g., teachers in the case of this study). Findings also suggested that when discussion did occur, activities were not structured. The researcher argued that there was a need for explicit teaching and organization of learning activities as well as for a need for multilingual teaching practices to provide students with opportunities for academic discourses and a need for effective teacher discourse to maximize peer collaboration in the classroom.

In a study in a one-way Finnish/Swedish program in a kindergarten classroom, Södergård (2008) conducted an ethnographic study focused on teacher-student

interaction based mainly on classroom observations. This two-year study observed a group of 26 Finnish-speaking monolingual students and their experienced immersion teacher. Data included classroom observations and a teacher interview about her personal views on second language acquisition in immersion programs. The study focused specifically on five small group work episodes, each with three predictable strategies: a brief teacher-initiated discussion, a drawing task, and an oral task (a language development task) based on the pictures drawn. Findings suggested two different types of strategies used by the teacher: elicitation and feedback strategies. In order to elicit the second language, strategies included questions, answers, signals for language switch, and teacher utterances leading to spontaneous second language oral production. Questions ranged from close-ended to more open-ended ones and increased in complexity over the school year. Student communication became spontaneous since the students replied to comments without being called upon which led to meaningful conversation with real-life purposes. Feedback strategies included non-corrective repetition, positive feedback, and corrective feedback with recasts. The researcher highlighted how consistent and emphatic the teacher was in creating situations where the children were fully encouraged and sometimes even pushed to second language use. She noted that the teacher was responsive to students' utterances by modifying, slightly correcting, reinforcing, and providing positive feedback. The teacher avoided common teacher discourse such as linguistic modeling, drills, and repetition, and adjusted her discourse to promote second language use.

Research Focusing on Empowering Discourse

Arce (2000) conducted a participatory study to examine a teacher's enactment of a transformative classroom environment. More specifically, the study examined how a

teacher provided opportunities for the students to develop their voices and a sense of community. This study used dialogic retrospection and ethnographic observation methods. Data collected included observational notes, students' artifacts (e.g., portfolios, academic work, assessments, and literacy activities samples) and notes from meetings with the teacher. Findings documented that topics which required critical thinking encouraged students to become active participants where they provided opinions and points of view. Students became engaged in the solution of problems and gave opinions. The study suggests the value of a transformative learning environment that includes critical pedagogical instructional practices, critical thinking processes, and inclusion of students in decision–making processes as a central piece of learning interactions. The teacher stated that students develop their voice when there are true opportunities for students to talk about real-life issues, their feelings, and their opinions about their home and community situations.

The role played by the teacher in structuring and implementing instructional practices and classroom interactions is fundamental for running effective programs in the second language context. In the specific setting of TWI programs, these practices and interactions become of essential significance. Based on research, teachers play central roles and are tightly involved in the pedagogical pieces of TWI programs. Teachers should become masters of specific, targeted teaching techniques. Also, they should become aware of their attitudes and expectations, willingness to foster learning environments for student collaboration and social interaction, and provision of opportunities to use and develop language. Knowing more about how teachers convey and communicate these is of primary importance in the context of TWI programs.

Teacher Discourse in TWI Programs

Teacher discourse plays a vital role in second language use and development since it is important in fostering meaningful conversations, student learning, and small-group interaction (Cazden, 2001; Webb et al., 2004). Teacher discourse supports and enhances learning and provides opportunities for students to negotiate meaning (Cullen, 1998). In addition, the quality of teacher language can contribute to language development since it promotes students' contributions and active participation in classroom activities (Consolo, 2000; McKeon, 1994). Chaudron (1988), based on literature reviews and empirical research about second language classrooms, claims that teachers modify their speech when talking to ELLs in an effort to maintain conversation with the students, clarify some information, and elicit responses from the students. In a review of research on teacher-led discourse, Toth (2011) notes that teacher discourse can influence teaching practices negative or positively. On one hand, it can diminish students' participation, delimit turn-taking patterns in the classroom, and impede rather that support and encourage students' talk since most of the power and control of discourse comes from the teacher. In order to understand the role of teacher discourse in the setting of TWI programs I searched for empirical studies that would illuminate in this matter. With the exception of two studies (Freeman, 1998; Montague & Meza-Zaragosa, 1999), I looked for recent studies in which teacher discourse provided understanding insights in the context of TWI programs. I reviewed prior research and got acquainted with the latest research in the area to more integrally understand the matter. Eight empirical studies addressing the issue of teacher discourse, specifically in TWI programs, in terms of language use and development, identity construction, and teacher talk interaction patterns will be further reviewed.

Research Focusing on Language Development

Montague and Meza-Zaragosa (1999) conducted a study in a TWI prekindergarten program setting with 4-and 5-year-olds (preliterate students) who had been in the program for 2 and 3 years. The TWI model in the school was half-day Spanish half-day English. The study was conducted during three phases. During the first phase (the language production phase), there was no mandated curriculum, structured elicitation, or intervention from the teacher. The intervention phase (teacher eliciting students' responses) was conducted during Language Experience Approach (LEA), which is a period of the day where students had to dictate language to the teacher. Finally, in the post-intervention phase the teacher ceased to elicit or intervene with the students. The Spanish teacher observed the students and recorded their exact answers for all phases of the study. Findings indicated that during the first phase, students were reinforced to respond in Spanish at all times. There was little evidence of students' codeswitching to English. During the intervention phase, the majority of the Spanish answers were given only by Spanish dominant speakers. The rest of the students provided answers in English. During the last phase, students did not have to follow LEA, but language in the classroom resembled a more natural setting. In this phase, students responded in the language of their choice. Findings indicated that students became more conscious of the language use and emulated teacher discourse in which there was encouragement to produce Spanish utterances. Both language groups demonstrated less second language production during the intervention phase. Findings indicated that when elicitation of answers was fixed and structured, English native speakers limited themselves to little participation. The researchers found natural language and more open elicitation of answers was more effective than teacher-only elicitation of answers.

Hayes (2005) analyzed a dual language teacher in her efforts to foster interaction among native English and Spanish speakers in a dual language kindergarten classroom during Spanish language play centers. The 1998-99 study was conducted in a school in the mid-Atlantic in the United States. The school was located in a 90% Hispanic urban neighborhood as it was in its first TWI implementation year. The class included 21 students, 10 Spanish dominant and 11 English dominant. The teacher, a native from Argentina, was a veteran ESL teacher. Data included video and audiotaped classroom observations, field notes, and five formal interviews with the teacher participant, and one interview with the bilingual program supervisor. Findings indicated that classroom interactions were encouraged during two specific play center times: blocks and housekeeping. The teacher believed that, in order to encourage students to interact more during centers, there needed to be realia present in the centers (e.g., more attractive toys, more outfits to play with) and required scripted Spanish monologues where students were expected to declare out what they were doing while playing. The teacher was challenged by the fact that her students, regardless of the structures provided, were not using Spanish during their play centers; instead, they interacted in English or simply played silently. One episode, resulting in a sustained conversation (mainly in Spanish), implied the negotiation and mediation of a conflict over the use of Barbie dolls. For the teacher, the conversation was distracting and denoted conflict requiring classroom management. Hayes (2005) concluded that this conflict represented a genuine example of “language-productive negotiations” (p. 107). She also concluded that the simple set up of centers was not enough to activate students’ interaction. Instead, collaborative task design needed to be carefully implemented to

maximize the benefits of children's cross-linguistic interaction (Hayes, 2005; Lindholm-Leary, 2005). Hayes (2005) considers language not to be an objective with specific requirements that must be met. She claims language to be "by nature an activity" (p. 110).

Data from Hayes' study (2005) was part of a one-year ethnographic study conducted by DePalma (2010) in a TWI kindergarten classroom. The larger study focused on Spanish time, classroom design, teacher interpretations, and social production of success and failure. Data were collected through observation and interviews. DePalma (2010) conducted an in-depth analysis of multiple classroom conversations in order to examine specific teacher utterances that elicit students' conversations. The focal instructional activities included Calendar time, Time Tables, and Story Time. These activities included structured and less structured teacher strategies. This balance served different purposes; some strategies leaned more towards language input and other towards language output. This balance also promoted student confidence and language development (e.g., vocabulary, linguistic forms) in the students while other activities required more participation and challenged students to produce more language. Some activities constrained genuine discussion since the teacher's questions were close-ended and elicited formulaic speech patterns and scripted language. The researcher found that classroom activities, such as housekeeping and block centers, elicited more Spanish when students had to negotiate something or when there was some kind of conflict. One of the findings of the study suggested that language should not be considered an end but rather a means to an end (DePalma, 2010). When words get contextualized and when meaning becomes the

focus, then communication happens. The more extended interactive patterns among students happened when conflicts had to be negotiated and ambiguities needed to be resolved, which "supports [the] pragmatic view of language" (DePalma, 2010, p, 184). The teacher suggested creating open-ended activities to encourage the negotiation of meaning among the students.

Research Focusing on Language and Identity Construction

Palmer (2008a) examined discourse patterns in one second-grade TWI program in California. The focus of the study was the teacher's attempts to provide students with alternative discourses to promote language minority students' construction of positive academic identities. The study used ethnographic and discourse analysis approaches and was conducted in the 2002-2003 school year. Data collection methods included participant-observation, open-ended interviews, and close discourse analysis. The student population included African-American, Hispanic, and white students. The school had a 90:10 "minority language dominant" model. Theoretically, Palmer (2008a) drew upon discourse/Discourse approaches (Gee, 1996), "alternative educational discourse" (Freeman, 1998), and identity construction in language minority students. Classroom episodes in the library with the school staff and with substitute teachers were analyzed. Findings indicated that the Spanish teacher was able to promote and co-construct alternative discourse with the students. The Spanish teacher discourse was one that valued students' contributions to the classroom and provided opportunities for students to engage in meaningful and respectful conversations, which led to students' positive development of academic identities. Those alternative discourses were undermined when a substitute teacher was in charge or when students went to the library. Findings

indicated that the tone of the classroom is determined by the person in control, which influences students' interaction and discourse patterns.

Palmer (2008b) conducted another ethnographic discourse analysis study using some data from the previous study from both the Spanish teacher (who worked four days a week) and an English teacher (working only on Fridays). The study examined the building of students' academic identities and the role of teacher discourse in promoting (or not promoting) opportunities for the students. Data included twenty-two audio-recorded lessons and open-ended interviews including both teacher participants and parents of the students. Additionally, this study followed six focal students in different linguistic groups (Spanish dominant, English dominant, and bilingual), including diverse genders and ethnicities (African-American, Latino, and white). Findings concurred with the previous study (Palmer, 2008a). Teachers heavily influenced students' discourse patterns in the classroom. In the case of the Spanish teacher, findings indicated how she was very skilled at strategically correcting students, praising participation, equalizing language status, and focusing on academic content (rather than language form) when students contributed in class. She was also particularly skillful at opening spaces for language minority students to contribute to the class in meaningful ways. On the other hand, the English teacher struggled with providing an equal language status, which led classroom participation to be dominated mainly by language majority students. Palmer (2008b) emphasizes the role of teacher discourse in promoting opportunities for language minority students to use alternative discourses to equalize language status.

Freeman (1998) conducted a study on a TWI school in Washington, DC, where 45% of the population was Latino and the rest was white and African-American. The study examined school discourse practices using ethnographic and discourse analysis approaches. Data were collected through participant-observation approaches, open-ended interviews with policymakers, teachers, parents, and students, and documents collected during the course of her study. For the analysis of classroom discourse, data analysis took into consideration methodologies from ethnography of communication, interactional sociolinguistics, conversation analysis, and social psychology. Findings documented how the school opposed mainstream U.S. assumptions of linguistic and cultural assimilation. The school was described as a community that crossed language, culture, and class. In terms of specific teacher discourse and instructional strategies, the study described the use of "alternative discourse" and teaching practices including encouragement of all students to participate (native and nonnative), cooperative learning, and ample opportunities for students to negotiate meaning and problem-solve together.

Research Focusing on Classroom Interaction Patterns

In an ethnographic study, Takahashi-Breines (2002) examined teacher talk in a third grade TWI classroom. The researcher observed the class for two school years using ethnographic notes and audio recordings. The experienced bilingual teacher, taught exclusively Spanish in the morning and English in the afternoon. The study investigated the multifaceted role of the bilingual teacher. The findings of the study were organized and presented in terms of Thomas and Collier's (1997a) "Prism Model" which intertwines four different components that influence language learning in the setting of a bilingual context. The components included sociocultural processes, linguistic

development, academic development, and cognitive development. Findings indicated that teacher discourse is a tool that can work as sociocultural, linguistic, cognitive, and academic supports (Takahashi-Breines, 2002). In terms of sociocultural issues, findings indicated that the teacher talk related to culturally relevant teaching where she took into account critical thinking skills to foster cultural sensitivity, and social and cultural awareness. Specific teacher discourse examples include the use of positive politeness imperatives, diminutives, endearing terms, and humor. The teacher also made connections with the students and built on students' personal experiences. As a linguistic support, teacher talk worked as input for second language learning and as a source of language modeling. Teacher talk provided students with access to language in terms of content, vocabulary, and language structures. Additionally, specific instructional practices reflected meaningful classroom activities where the teacher fostered purposeful talk taking into account students' personal interests. Related to cognitive support, findings highlighted the nature of the teacher's questions to enhance students' thinking. The teacher's use of a version of IRF fostered students' extended responses and enhanced their thinking, language, and cognitive skills. In relation to academic support, students participated in group work which promoted social interaction and content development. Findings concluded that optimal language settings involved those where teacher discourse plays complex, multifaceted roles involving distinctive yet complementary supports.

Martin-Beltrán (2010) conducted a one-year ethnographic study in a fifth grade TWI classroom in California, focusing on a group of 30 students with different Spanish and English proficiency language levels. The class had four teachers: two Spanish

teachers, one English teacher for the larger group, and one English teacher for ESL pull outs for newcomers. The study focused mainly on three female students to present specific excerpts for analysis. Data were collected through audio recordings, interviews, and ethnographic observations of classroom discourse. Three approaches for data analysis were used: ethnography of communication, interactional ethnography, and critical conversation analysis. The study sought to examine teacher-student discursive practices in relation to perceived language proficiency in the classroom. Martin-Beltrán (2010) used the term discursive practices "to capture how spoken and written text is produced and interpreted by participants in a particular context" (p. 259). Findings indicated that the three focal students in the study, two Spanish dominant and one English dominant, used language accordingly to what teachers stated their language proficiencies were. Based on conversation and observation, findings indicated that if students were perceived as proficient in a language, they became engaged participants in the classrooms. On the contrary, if they were not positioned as proficient students, then the students presented themselves as not being proficient and not knowing enough to participate in classroom activities. Consistent with teachers' public statements, students resisted participating in and/or accepted marginalization within the class. Findings showed how teachers, through their talk, promoted specific discursive practices to foster environments for students to feel (and not to feel) identified as proficient language users and language experts.

After reviewing these eight studies, some conclusions can be reached in terms of teacher discourse. First, teacher talk can work as a way to praise students for their language proficiency and invite or deny them the opportunity to participate (Martin-

Beltrán, 2010). The role of teacher discourse patterns plays an essential role "to strategically empower learners by publically declaring and reifying their proficiency and to remind learners of what they can do to participate in the classroom discourse communities" (Martin-Beltrán, 2010, p. 273-274). Teacher discourse can help students to identify themselves as language proficient students and can work as a powerful medium to encourage students' participation in the classroom. It can also shape students' perceived notions of themselves and predispose them to become active participatory members in the classroom.

Second, teacher discourse plays a role in building language minority students' positive academic identities. The teacher messages about the significance of language status can either harm or benefit students' personal and academic identities. Teacher discourse can indeed help equalize the classroom learning environment and empower students if the discourse encourages and promotes equitable patterns of linguistic and cultural interactions in the classroom. It also becomes a source of empowerment if the teacher introduces students to "alternative discourses" and encourages and promotes them as equitable interaction patterns in the classroom (Freeman, 1998; Palmer 2008a, 2008b).

Third, teacher discourse can provide sociocultural, linguistic, cognitive, and academic supports. These supports include teacher responses to students' errors, teacher promotion of active and equal participation of all students, teacher creation of opportunities for language use where students share, negotiate, and problem-solve together, reformulation of students' utterances to extend and make them produce more language, and constant encouragement of interaction and collaboration among students

(Antón, 1999; Arce, 2000; Montague & Meza-Zaragosa, 1999; Toth, 2011; Wiltse, 2006).

Fourth, understanding the role of teacher discourse requires careful analysis of the role of classroom questions. Lee (2006) argues that the type of question used by the teacher facilitates or impedes language learning. To foster language use and learning, teachers must use reflective questions that encourage students to go beyond simple answers or memorized phrases. Questions must enable students to negotiate meaning and encourage expression of ideas and points of views. Questions should also invite students to elaborate, extend their language production, and promote cognitive development.

Although the potential benefits of teacher discourse have been studied in the context of TWI programs, few studies focused on the specific role of the teacher discourse and their teaching practices in fostering extended use of language. Some studies examined discourse as specific utterances used by teachers while others explored teacher assumptions, expectations, and beliefs about the role of teacher discourse in the classroom. Most of the research focuses on how classroom discourse patterns are put into practice through teacher talk. The studies reviewed here treat discourse as a way of communicating and putting into practice specific teaching strategies. Most studies use ethnographic research methods; some other include discourse analysis, and others used mixed methods (qualitative and quantitative). By employing domain analysis I expand on the previous research and elaborate more in depth on the strategic instructional patterns used by the bilingual teacher and combined that with her beliefs and values in the TWI context.

This study contributes to research about TWI programs since it describes teaching patterns used by the bilingual teacher in her classroom. It is also accompanied by an analysis of the teacher's specific views about teaching practices in TWI programs. This study offers insights into the ways in which TWI teachers, through their teaching practices, can promote opportunities for students to build and practice language in the classroom.

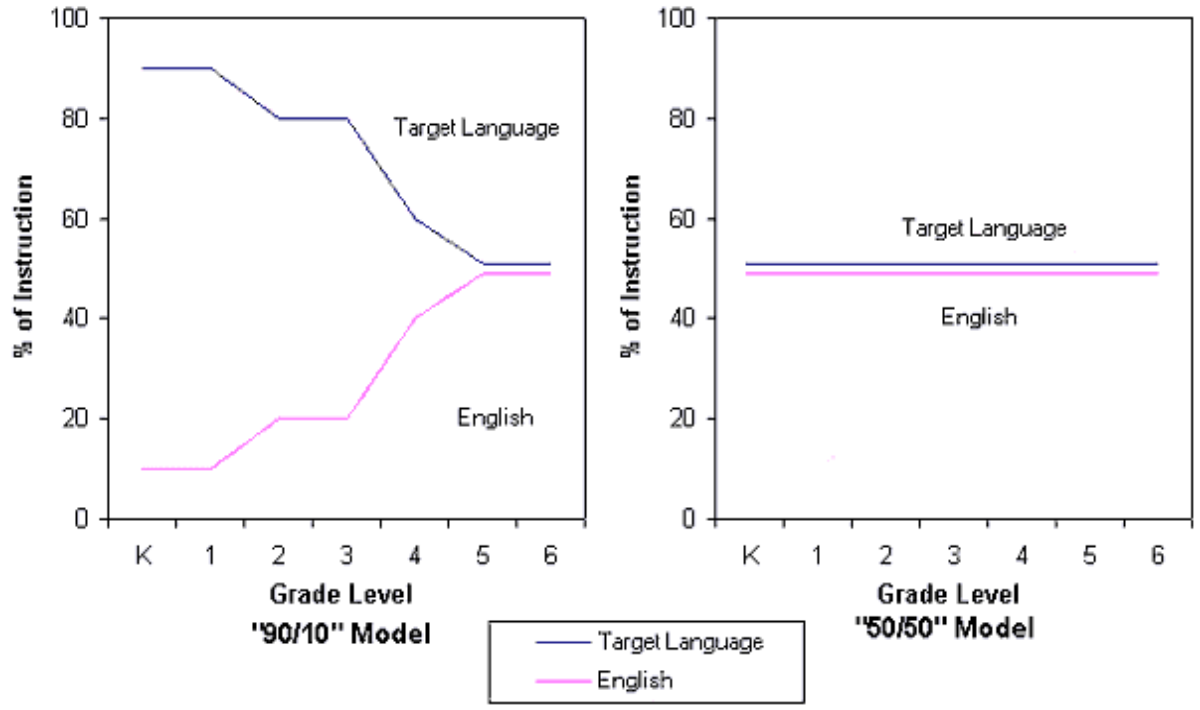

Figure 2-1. Allocation of languages of instruction in two-way immersion programs (Christian, 1994).

CHAPTER 3
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the research methodology and methods used in this qualitative study. It explains the research framework of constructivism and domain analysis as an approach to analyze data, as well as the methods used to collect the data. The purpose of this study is to describe how a bilingual teacher elicits students' extended use of Spanish language during whole group instruction in a TWI first-grade classroom. This chapter explains the procedures implemented to investigate the topic. It is divided into eight sections: (1) Research Framework, (2) Research Context, (3) Research Participant, (4) Classroom Context, (5) Data Collection, (6) Data Analysis, (7) Trustworthiness, and (8) Subjectivity.

Research Framework

The theory of knowledge supporting this study is constructivism. By supporting the study with this epistemological theory, the researcher understands that absolute realities do not exist. Realities are merely individual perceptions. In constructivism, there is no objective reality waiting to be discovered; there is no one objective truth. Instead, meaning is constantly constructed in various ways depending on different realities. Realities are distinctive and meaningful to specific individuals, therefore "truth" is not one but many (Hatch, 2002, Lather, 2006). These realities vary from individual to individual depending on his or her personal, linguistic, and cultural background (Crotty, 1998). There are indeed multiple constructed realities that are tightly bound to the individual's own way of experiencing the world based on his or her interpretations; individuals construct their own unique meanings. According to Crotty (1998), "meanings are constructed by human beings as they engage with the world they are interpreting"

(p. 43); that is, “different understandings” (p. 47) can be produced from the same experience by different people. Vygotsky (1978) addresses this by explaining that human learning is very dynamic and situated in specific physical and social contexts. In the constructivist perspective, learning or the development of understanding requires that individuals actively engage in a meaning-making process (Jones & Brader-Araje, 2002). The meaning-making process is an interactive process that is mediated by factors including culture, language, context, and social interaction (Johnson, 2009).

Constructivism “describes the individual human subject engaging with objects in the world and making sense of them” (Crotty, 1998, p. 79). It is concerned with how human beings create knowledge and meaning from constant and reciprocal interaction with experiences and ideas in their lives (Vygotsky, 1978). Additionally, it focuses on the premise that individuals, through personal experiences, construct an understanding of the world in which they live in. Knowledge is not something to be transmitted or retained; instead, it is a personal experience that is constructed. Crotty (1998) adds that constructivism focuses on “the meaning-making activity of the individual mind” (p. 58). He also states that constructivism highlights the unique experiences in each individual.

As part of the constructivist paradigm, knowledge is created in the interaction between the individual (the participant) and the individual’s environment. The individual participant is the main meaning-making source. Hatch (2002) suggests that the role of the researcher in this theoretical framework is not a stance of distance and objectivity since the essence of constructivism is to jointly construct knowledge. In constructivism, Hatch (2002) states that “researchers spend extended periods of time interviewing participants and observing them in their natural settings in an effort to reconstruct the

constructions participants use to make sense of their worlds" (p. 15). The researcher takes into account the variety and complexity of individual realities and tries to interpret the participants' construction of a reality. The researcher and participant are in constant support and mutual engagement to construct a subjective reality.

In this study, my purpose was to examine how one bilingual teacher fosters the use of Spanish and creates a context to elicit Spanish language production. More specifically, the following research question guided my study: How does one bilingual teacher elicit students' extended use of Spanish language during whole group instruction in a TWI first-grade classroom? The sub-questions of the study were as follows:

- What are some strategic instructional patterns used by the bilingual teacher?
- What are some beliefs that guide the bilingual teacher's actions and how are these conveyed in practice?

Research Context

The context for this qualitative study is a K-5 public, two-way Spanish immersion school in the northeast United States. This study is part of a larger study in which I have been part of the research team working with TWI programs. Some of the reasons for the selection of the site and the school made by the principal investigator include the school's long-standing TWI program and previous professional research relationships between the principal investigator and the school (for more see de Jong, 2002).

According to the Center of Applied Linguistics (CAL, 2011b), the majority of the studies of integration of language minority and language majority students and teachers' experiences and professional development come from California, Texas, and New Mexico (mostly Southwest states). Conducting this study in a different area can add to

the TWI literature. According to CAL (2011c), the particular state in this Northeast area is among the ten states with most TWI programs.

The elementary grades (K-5) are those most commonly served by TWI programs. There are various languages of instruction for TWI programs, but Spanish is the most predominant (Christian et al., 2000). As of December 2010, there were 376 TWI programs in 28 states and Washington D.C., serving elementary grade levels (280 TWI programs) and employing Spanish/English as the most common languages of instruction (344 TWI programs) (CAL, 2011c). This highlights the importance of meeting the needs of students whose native language is Spanish and who are currently attending and being served by TWI schools in the United States.

Also, the school in this study provides an important context in which to conduct research. The school has made curricular and academic modifications over time to more effectively meet the goals of TWI programs (de Jong, 2002). The school program has engaged in constant professional and academic growth based on reflections about theoretical understandings regarding bilingual education, second language acquisition, and student achievement in terms of academic and linguistic matters. Having interacted with teachers from the school and the principal investigator, I can affirm that they value feedback and engage in reflective practices about their strengths and weaknesses as TWI teachers. The school encourages professional development and promotes positive relationships among its staff.

Escuela El Milagro: Escuela Bilingüe de Doble Vía

Escuela El Milagro (pseudonym) is a public school in the northeast United States. Escuela El Milagro is a K-5 elementary school that began the TWI program model in 1990-1991 (CAL, 2011b, 2001c). The first program (1990) was a response to two main

phenomena: social segregation of bilingual students and a demographic trend called "white flight," where the white population moves out of urban communities as the minority population increases (de Jong, 2002). After two years of planning and professional development supported by a Title IV grant, the TWI program began. In 1995, it was fully supported by local funds.

The state's Department of Education reported that, for the 2009-2010 school year, 60% of students in the school spoke a language other than English, 49% were Limited English Proficient (LEP) students, and about 54% qualified for free or reduced lunch (CAL, 2011c) (Table 3-1). The criteria for selecting and accepting students into the school who are native speakers of Spanish include testing students when entering kindergarten, interviewing parents, and finally recommending a placement. There are no formal criteria for selecting and accepting native English speakers. Parents of both groups (minority and majority language) are required to sign a letter of commitment that explains the program and emphasizes the importance of long-term participation. One of the characteristics of effective TWI is that students remain in the program for at least six years (Lindholm-Leary, 2005; Thomas & Collier, 1997b).

According to the state's Department of Education, a total of 506 students enrolled in the school during the 2009-2010 school year, with 88 students enrolled in first grade. Taken also from the state's Department of Education, the enrollment by ethnicity of students in 2009-2010 school year the three major groups included 66.2% Latino, 27.1% white, and 3.4% African-American (Table 3-2).

Students from English and Spanish language backgrounds are fully integrated through the day. Spanish is emphasized during elementary grades since it is the main

language used for emergent literacy instruction. In 2009-2010, the school was in its third year of transitioning to an 80:20 TWI model where students were integrated during the entire instructional time and the emphasis of instruction was 80% in Spanish (Table 3-3).

The staff of Escuela El Milagro is proficient in English and Spanish. The state's Department of Education reported that, for the 2009-2010 school year, about 25% of the staff at the school was Hispanic and 39% were white; the remaining staff were Asian or other multi-race, non-Hispanic. The program staff also contained ten classroom aides, including one full time bilingual special educator, one full time bilingual social worker, one part time bilingual Title I professional, one full time Spanish as a Second Language (SSL) teacher, one full time English Second Language (ESL) teacher, one bilingual school psychologist, one bilingual music teacher, one Spanish Reading Recovery teacher, and one English Reading Recovery teacher. The demographic profile published by the state's Department of Education (2011) indicated that over 97% of teachers were licensed in teaching and about 96% of the core academic classes were taught by teachers who were highly qualified.

Research Participant

Maestra Mara (pseudonym) is originally from South America where she obtained her Bachelor of Arts in Elementary Education. She worked in full immersion English programs and taught early childhood classes in her country for ten years. In 1991, as a Fulbright scholar, she got a Masters of Arts in Early Childhood Education in the United States. Upon returning to her native country, she put together a school where she designed and implemented the school curriculum and taught in a multiage classroom. In 1998, she came back to the United States to purse a doctoral degree, graduating as a

Doctor of Education in Curriculum and Teaching. During her doctoral studies, she worked as a literacy teacher and as a teacher educator for both the Early Childhood Program and the Literacy Program at the university. She began working at Escuela El Milagro in 2005 where she taught first, second, and third grade with two TWI models, 80:20 and 90:10. Initially, she felt she lacked training in bilingual education to be able to teach in a TWI program. She attended a dual language training during her first year teaching in Escuela El Milagro. Maestra Mara was the teacher literacy leader for first grade at Escuela El Milagro in 2010-2011 school year. She is the current head teacher for first grade at the school. Her bilingual education knowledge has been building through her over 18 years of teaching experience in one-way and TWI programs.

I had the opportunity to be part of the research team previously working with TWI programs. Part of my contribution to the team included transcribing, revising transcriptions, and analyzing video recordings of four different TWI teachers. I have been dealing with an extant data base of four different teachers. The teachers that were part of the larger study volunteered to participate in the study. For the current study, I am using previously collected data from one of these teachers. I met the teacher of the study prior to conducting the study. I built rapport and was able to build connections with her. The teacher I chose was selected purposively (purposive sampling) because she was intriguingly different from other TWI teachers that I had observed. Her interactions with the students and her ways of engagement in Spanish seemed to evoke more Spanish from her students. While observing and transcribing her lessons and interviews, I noticed that in her lessons, students participated more, used more Spanish, and worked together in more collaborative ways that in other TWI classrooms. She

inspired me, as a researcher, to find out more about her teaching style, discourse patterns, and philosophy of teaching in TWI programs. I believe her discourse practices can provide valuable information for the field.

Classroom Context

There were twenty students in Maestra Mara's classroom in the 2009-2010 school year. Nine were female and eleven were male. Seven of the students were Spanish dominant, six of them were English dominant, and the other seven of the students were both Spanish and English dominant. Maestra Mara clearly stated that although students tended to be classified depending on the mastery of the language, there was a thin and subtle line when interpreting that data. Maestra Mara addressed this issue by stating that some students are not completely dominant in one language or another. She referred to this as students either being "less or more" fluent in one language or another. For her, seven of the students were more fluent in English but had some Spanish knowledge, six were Spanish fluent with "good enough" English background, and the remaining seven students had slightly limited fluency in Spanish and English. She stated that delineating between fluency and proficiency levels was very challenging in her class. For her, there were no "real" English or Spanish native speakers. There was a "mixed-middle" group mastering both languages. There were several reasons for this. First, some students were only spoken to in Spanish at home. Some others were spoken to in English by one parent and then in Spanish by another parent. Some had only been spoken to in English but had some Spanish heritage in extended family (e.g., grandmother who does not speak English).

Students and their families were from countries such as the U.S., Puerto Rico, Mexico, Bolivia, Dominican Republic, and El Salvador. Maestra Mara was the main

classroom teacher and there was also a teacher's aide with her during the literacy lessons. For the last lesson, there was a volunteer helping in the classroom. Both the teacher's aide and the volunteer are bilingual.

Data Sources

The data used in this study were collected during the larger, more comprehensive study of four teachers. As part of the larger study, my task was to transcribe a subset of the lessons: the literacy lessons. The data from these lessons were available to me. Thus I became fully familiar with the teacher participant's literacy lessons and felt connected to the data. For the current study of one teacher, the two primary sources of data were four audio and video-recorded classroom literacy lessons and two one-hour individual teacher interviews. The data were selected because they captured the teacher's teaching practices including her use of language, behaviors, beliefs and views, and language scaffolding techniques, among others. The two main sources of data are detailed below.

Classroom Lessons

According to Hatch (2002), videotaped lessons are advantageous because they can be viewed over and over again and non-verbal aspects of language can be captured. Facial expressions, non-verbal communication, emotions, reactions, non-linguistic ways of interacting, and responding are all examples of such evidence. The videos were used to conduct transcriptions of the lessons (including textual and contextual notes). After lessons were transcribed, the current study focused on the transcriptions of the lessons, not the actual videos. There were a total of four literacy lessons that took place on December 11 and 18, 2009, January 29, 2010, and May 28, 2010. The average length of the literacy lesson was about eighty minutes (See Table 1-

1). This study focused on these four lessons. All four lessons were interactive, focused around small group work and the teacher's instruction and engagement of students in cooperative learning activities. The first lesson was organized around student learning centers; one center was teacher-led. There were five tables where students worked either together cooperatively or individually. For the other three lessons, the teacher assigned students to work on projects, including creating and presenting a story, practicing and acting out a mini-play, and creating and putting together a whole group mural. For the lesson where the teacher instructed students to act out a mini role-play, there was a debriefing time where the teacher encouraged students to provide feedback about the activity.

During whole group instruction, the teacher was sitting on a chair in front of the students, and the students were sitting in rows on the floor facing her. Next to her, there were two little boards that served different purposes: writing information, writing the objectives of the lessons, presenting a message, explaining concepts, making drawings, etc. The walls around the boards were filled with student-made posters and projects. There was also a word wall and posters that included specific letters (e.g., "ch, h") where students wrote words that had those letters. The teacher-made posters included some stories and poems for students to read aloud as a group. The teacher and the students made constant use of the posters, letters, and words on the walls of the classroom.

Even though the nature of each lesson was different, each lesson had specific times where there was whole group instruction, which is the emphasis of the study: to examine how a bilingual teacher elicits students' extended use of Spanish during whole

group instruction. Students' extended use of Spanish refers to students' utterances that deviate from a short verbal communication, single answers, and common teacher-student turn taking patterns. To meet the definition of "extended utterance" the students' utterances must be long. The utterances must convey one or more full ideas, in which students formulate an opinion, share an idea, provide a comment, offer a solution, or negotiate meaning. The main focus of the study was communication that was meaningful, extensive, and genuine between the teacher and the students.

The majority of the whole group instruction took place at the beginning of each lesson (Lessons 1, 3, and 4). Lesson 2 had two whole group instruction segments, one at the beginning and one at the end. I analyzed all five whole group instruction segments and examined the patterns in the instructional strategies that led to extended conversation. The five whole group segments totaled approximately one hundred and twenty-seven minutes (Table 3-4).

During whole group instruction, there were five particular activities. The first one was an opening activity referred to as "morning message" or the presentation of the "teacher's news". It included greetings, reviewing content previously learned, brainstorming ideas, building vocabulary, and reviewing of grammar points such as punctuation marks, accent, the use of specific letters (e.g., "h, ch," etc.,), capital letters and synonyms, and singular and plural structures. It also included some news presented by the teacher, which served as contextualized information that evolved into questions designed to engage students and encourage them to use Spanish. A second activity was a well-known cooperative learning structure: Think-Pair-Share. This structure provided opportunities for students to interact with their peers. Several Think-

Pair-Share events took place during whole group instruction in which students had to share some information, express their opinions, brainstorm ideas, seek solutions, list things, or explain something. A third activity included the reading of poems to review grammar structures, practice reading skills, and build on content knowledge and vocabulary. The fourth activity that happened during whole group instruction was the presentation of specific tasks students needed to carry out with their peers. In this activity, the teacher presented some information and had students brainstorm ideas about the task. The tasks included having students create a poster in groups, practice dialogue to role play a mini-play, and create a classroom mural. During the presentation and brainstorming of this fourth activity, the teacher reviewed some classroom management procedures, explained the directions for the activities, reinforced students' expected behaviors, and encouraged student cooperation in the negotiation of meaning and solution of problems. The fifth and final activity was a debriefing session after the mini-play activity where the teacher encouraged students to provide feedback on how the activity went and what could be done to improve the activity.

Individual Interviews

Semi-structured interviews in qualitative research are used to explore participants' experiences and interpretations. They serve to uncover meaning individuals use in order to talk about their experiences and make sense of them (Hatch, 2002). The participant in the study was interviewed twice. The first interview was conducted in December 2009 and the second was in June 2010. Both interviews were conducted by the principal investigator of the larger study. The first interview provided background about the research participant. It lasted about an hour and focused on the teacher's personal and professional background in order to establish rapport and find out more

about learning and teaching experiences in terms of bilingual education and teaching in TWI programs. The second provided evidence of the teacher's set of beliefs about her teaching practices. This second interview was about forty minutes long and was directed at talking more in depth about the participant's views and beliefs about her teaching practices in terms of TWI goals, students' problem-solving skills, social and academic language, language proficiencies and students' status, and integration of native and non-native speakers in the classroom when teaching, learning, and planning curriculum. The interview protocol included nine questions (Appendix). This current study focused on both interviews, paying close attention to the participant's teaching practices and beliefs in the setting of TWI programs in the context of her classroom.

I collaborated with the participant as I conducted member checks with her about her perspectives of her instructional practices. For the member checks, I maintained communication, via email and video conferences, about the data process and analysis. I interacted with her during three specific times: at the beginning of the data analysis, during data analysis, and at the end for the checking of some preliminary findings. At the beginning of the data analysis, I informed her of the data analysis process. She also provided some feedback on the writing sections about the research context, the research participant, and the classroom context. She suggested some minor content changes (e.g., personal information, countries of origin of her students). During the data analysis and after I had created some domain categories, I checked with her to confirm the categories taken from her lessons and the interviews. The teacher participant had full access to the findings prior to the writing of Chapter 4. She read through the preliminary findings and confirmed them.

Data Analysis

Data analysis for this study draws on Hatch's (2002) concept of inductive analysis, specifically domain analysis. This type of analysis seeks to generate understandings from specific elements to general conclusions. Two main features characterize domain analysis. First, there is a constant and systematic search for patterns of meaning that are inducted from particular elements and then generated to larger categories within the data (Hatch, 2002). In other words, inductive analysis "is to begin with particular pieces of evidence, then pull them together into a meaningful whole" (Hatch, 2002, p. 161). Second, domains are established through the use of semantic relationships that link specific elements in order to create greater categories. Spradley (1979) defines a domain as any symbolic category that contains other categories. That is, a domain is a compilation of categories that have in common a certain type of relationship. Spradley (1979) states that there are three fundamental concepts in domain analysis: included terms (given categories), cover term (title given to a set of categories), and semantic relationships. He identifies nine semantic relationships in order to conduct domain analysis including strict inclusion (X is a kind of Y), spatial (X is a place of Y, X is a part of Y), cause-effect (X is a result of Y, X is a cause of Y), rationale (X is a reason for doing Y), location for action (X is a place for doing Y), function (X is used for Y), means-end (X is a way to do Y), sequence (X is a step to Y, X is a stage in Y), and attribution (X is a characteristic of Y, X is an attribute of Y). At the end of the study, all these semantic relationships were not equally salient. For the current study, there were indeed more than the study needed to answer the research questions. However, going through all of them encouraged the exhaustive search for potential relationships that at the end were insightful for the findings of the study. The most used types of semantic

relationships for this study were strict inclusion, rationale, function, means-end, and attribution.

This study used domain analysis to examine how a bilingual teacher elicited students' extended use of Spanish language during whole group instruction in a TWI first-grade classroom. Inductive analysis was used since it provided insightful information and worked effectively for extracting meaning from complex data that was gathered with an open focus in mind. Domain analysis became essential for this study because it provided a systematic approach to processing data. It was a good fit for a constructivist, descriptive study.

Conducting Domain Analysis

All data collected—audio and video recorded lessons and interviews were transcribed. For the lessons, transcriptions had an extra component. In addition to the textual component of the transcription, contextual notes were taken. Contextual notes included teacher's non-verbal communication (e.g., gestures, face motions), the use of teaching materials, student-student interactions, and student-teacher interactions. Since all data from videos was in Spanish, all initial analysis took place in Spanish. In order to remain as faithful as possible to the data, English translations did not occur during this phase. Temple and Young (2004) talk about translation dilemmas, and they highlight that the choice of when and how to translate is sometimes determined by the resources of the researcher in terms of language proficiency, time, and even funding issues. They also mention how some researchers stay away from translating because there are some instances where specific things cannot be translated; in those cases, translation causes meaning to be lost. Given that I am a native Spanish speaker, all data were kept

in Spanish. Translation happened when findings needed to be presented to an English-speaking audience.

To conduct the domain analysis for this study, I used Hatch's (2002) proposed steps (all of which are further elaborated and fully explained below) as follows:

- Read the data and identify frames of analysis ("meaningful units")
- Create domains based on semantic relationships discovered within frames of analysis
- Identify salient domains, assign them a code, and put others aside
- Reread data, refining salient domains and keeping record of where relationships are found in the data
- Decide if your domains are supported by the data examining examples that do not fit with or run counter to the relationships in your domains
- Complete an analysis within domains
- Search for themes across domains

Read the Data and Identify Frames of Analysis ("Meaningful Units")

The first step I conducted in domain analysis was to become fully familiar with the data, thus various readings of the data took place in order to get to know the data set. From all four literacy lessons, I isolated the five teacher-initiated whole group instruction segments to begin initial coding. I identified what Hatch (2002) defines as "frames of analysis" (p. 163). Frames of analysis refer to the pieces of analyzable parts of the data. I referred to them as "meaningful units" since they resembled specific segments of text that were comprehensible on their own and contained one solid idea. The meaningful units were summarized so that they represented unique and specific analyzable frames. Hatch (2002) argues that meaningful units can range from a simple set of words to larger pieces of information, even entire episodes and events. For this current study, I

confined the meaningful units to words, clauses, phrases, or sentences that indicated a full idea. Meaningful units referred to the initial conceptual categories of the data. Meaningful units served as parameters that delimited the study determining how the researcher starts looking closely at the data. After all meaningful units were determined, they were listed on separate sheets of papers. Once in the list, I began thinking about possible included terms (name of the specific elements) as those that would capture the essence of the meaningful units (Table 3-5). The included terms represented summarizing labels about the meaningful units. I created a new list of included terms on a separate piece of paper. At the end of this first step, I had three separate lists: one containing all meaningful units, another one including the meaningful units with their respective included terms, and a last one containing all included terms identified. From both interviews, I began initial coding and then followed the respective domain analysis steps as I did with the lessons. Since the very beginning of the study, two stipulations took place. First, I had a research journal to record my insights and wonderings. The journal helped me keep a systematic recollection of the data analysis. Second, when I began analysis and interpretation of data, I kept in mind that the main knowledge producer was the teacher participant. Thus, I did member checks with her where she provided insights to the researcher during the data analysis process. During the first stages of coding, she read through the meaningful units and included terms. We did a video conference where she checked the categories I had created. In addition, during this step I collaborated with two Spanish-speaking colleagues to be provided with feedback about the initial coding stages of the data analysis process where all data

were in Spanish. The colleagues also confirmed the included terms and categories I had generated.

Create Domains Based on Semantic Relationships Discovered within Frames of Analysis

The main focus of this step was “to develop a set of categories of meaning or domains that reflect relationships represented in the data” (Hatch, 2002, p. 164). The domains were referred to as meaningful categories of the data. The key element of domain analysis relied on this very aspect: to create the domains to relate categories. Thus categories could only be categories as long as specific elements could be related to others throughout semantic means. Spradley affirms (1979) that “any symbolic category that includes other categories is a domain [where] all the members of a domain share at least one feature of meaning” (p. 100). Included terms and cover terms become essential to establish the semantic relationships of a domain. Included terms were inducted from the meaningful units (the members of the category), and cover terms (the names of the categories) served as umbrella terms that captured the categories belonging to the included terms. All included terms were thoroughly examined before naming the cover terms since it was in their content and essence that cover terms emerged. Cover terms were carefully analyzed since their label resulted from systematic, conscious, and deep analysis of the included terms. To illustrate, a domain includes three components: the cover term (e.g., Think-Pair-Share Events), the included terms (e.g., indicating that students pair up, encouraging students to tell their partners about the meaning of a word, and telling students to close their eyes and think prior to sharing with their partners), and the semantic relationship (e.g., Indicating that

students pair up is a characteristic of Think-Pair-Share Events). In this case the semantic relationship is of attribution inclusion (X is a characteristic of Y) (Figure 3-1).

I thoroughly reviewed all included terms. As I was revising them, I sought to group similar included terms together. After all included terms were clustered, I selected one semantic relationship at a time (from all the nine Hatch (2002) proposed) and went one by one through the data set searching for examples of the relationship. To do this, I prepared a domain analysis worksheet and made copies of the blank sheets to search for the semantic relationships (Figure 3-2). At that stage, I was critical of my analysis and searched for all semantic relationships without favoring or neglecting any category. I remained open to searching for examples of all semantic relationships. As suggested by Hatch (2002), I started with a specific relationship, read through the data and asked if there were examples of the relationships. Hatch (2002) indicates that there is a possibility that during this step the researcher might find more domains than the ones that are to be presented as findings of the study. Nevertheless, he argues that at this point it is counterproductive to decide on domains; the focus here is to search for as many domains as possible (even if they seem unimportant to the researcher). For this current study, I indeed found more domains that needed, but I followed the step of search for domains faithfully to Hatch (2002) suggestions. All domains were labeled with a capital D followed by either LL (data coming from literacy lessons) or TI (data coming from teacher interviews) and a number (e.g., DLL2). Conducting a thorough domain analysis at this point was key for later stages during the analysis. It is important to note that I kept a systematic research journal with analytical notes.

Identify Salient Domains, Assign Them a Code, and Put Others Aside

After the search for semantic relationships was conducted, then “data reduction” took place (Hatch, 2002, p. 168). With all the domains that emerged, I analyzed them and decided which domains were salient to the study. The selection of the domains was highly related to the research purposes of the study and aimed at answering the questions the study. In the research journal I had the main question and the sub-questions of the study written so that I could easily refer to them when analyzing the domains. In order to select the salient domains, I revised every domain and its respective included terms independently to reflect on the salience of the domain and the included terms as they related to the study’s research questions. I considered included terms that could be related to and used in other domains as well as the possibility of merging domains. From all initial domains selected (both from the literacy lessons and teacher interviews) there was a substantial reduction of domains. The ones that directly related to the research questions became the salient domains; the rest were labeled as non-salient domains. Hatch (2002) suggests the following questions to be taken into account when revising all domains. This set of questions served as a guide in the search of salient domains for the study:

- Could this relationship be linked to other domains discovered in the data?
- For domains with few included terms, are these included terms important to understanding what is going on in the data?
- Are these the only included terms in this domain?
- Are there more included terms that I may have missed or that will show up later in the data?

Hatch (2002) indicates that the researcher should not be biased by the number of included terms. It could be the case that some domains are unimportant, yet they have

a large amount of included terms whereas some domains might have few included terms and have powerful, insightful data related to an important aspect of the study. After I selected the salient domains, I kept all other domains (non-salient domains) as a point of reference in case I needed to go back. Domain analysis is a recursive process of constant revision, coming back, redefining, and reanalyzing which is all part of the complex nature of inductive analysis.

After all salient domains were identified, I created a code system to keep track of the domains. I followed Hatch's (2002) suggested outline format: Roman numeral for each domain and a capital letter for each included term. In the case of the existence of sub-categories, I used lower case letter (e.g., IIAa).This coding was kept in the domain analysis worksheets.

Reread Data, Refining Salient Domains and Keeping a Record of Where Relationships Are Found in the Data

In this step, I made sure that the data supported the existence of a domain and all correspondent included terms were identified. This process implied reading the data again, refining the salient domains, and being careful to keep record of the relationships and where they were found in the data. After all salient domains were selected and refined, I meticulously studied all the selected salient domains and their included terms to get familiar with the data. Then I picked one domain at a time and read carefully through the data searching for specific examples of where the relationships of the domain were found in the data. The examples were marked in the data and in the domain analysis worksheets. I also kept track of the page number of the copies of the lesson and the interviews. That way, I kept record of the places in the data where the

examples were located (using Hatch's outline format) and the places in the domain analysis worksheets were the semantic relationships of those examples were found.

To conduct this step, I created a table to help me visualize the data in a more organized way. In this table, I included the description of the code, the actual code, the page number where the code was identified in the data, the source where the code came from (e.g., literacy lesson or teacher interviews), and a list of all the examples found in the data. This was a systematic and efficient way to relate the codes to the examples while keeping record of the sources and the page numbers. The table worked as a guide to cluster sets of codes that belonged to (or did not fit) the descriptions of the codes and the domain themselves. I created two separate tables at first (one for the lessons and another one for the interviews) and examined the data three separate times in order to avoid missing any examples and reach saturation of evidence. After deliberate analysis of both tables, I fused both tables into one that included all examples coming from the literacy lessons (LL) and teacher interviews (TI) (Table 3-6). By using this data, I contributed to the trustworthiness of the study. I continued writing and referring to my research journal about the data analysis taking place in the literacy lesson and the interviews.

Decide if Your Domains Are Supported by the Data and Search for Examples That Do Not Fit with or Run Counter to the Relationships in Your Domains

This step of domain analysis called for deductive reasoning in order to decide if the tentative domains found and the hypothetical categories identified support the existence of domains. Hatch (2002) suggests answering the following questions:

- Is there enough data to support the existence of this domain in the setting being studied?
- Are the data strong enough to make the case for including this domain?

- Are there other data that do not fit with or run counter to the relationship expressed in the domains?

Glaser and Strauss (1967) and Hatch (2002) indicate that a data “saturation” stage must be reached in this step of domain analysis. They argue that an absolute saturation stage is not likely to happen, but it is feasible and recommended for the analysis to reach a point where all the elements of the domains are repeated and there is representation of evidence of data. Hatch (2002) suggests a careful read of the data that lead to a systematically effort “to uncover or disconfirm the domains discovered” (p. 171). He proposes the use of negative examples. He suggests selecting domains in order to question their creation and construction in terms of categories. He considers this question, “What is going on here that does not fit with what I have included in my domains?” (p. 171). By rethinking domains, it is important to note that some domains might be reevaluated, partially or completely modified, or even abandoned in their totality. For this study, no domain was completely abandoned yet there was merging and modifications of domains. Hatch (2002) asserts that analytical questioning must take place at all times and the researcher must always have fresh eyes to be able to pick up any incongruence to support the trustworthiness of the study and eventually its findings.

Complete an Analysis within Domains

This next step was used to further the analysis and provide more insightful, richer description and analysis of data. It moved the analysis to a more interpretative level. The purpose of this step was to deeply study the data organized into domains in order to discover new links and connections, even new domains. This step necessitated searching within domains and searching for themes across domains for complexity,

richness, and depth. Completing the analysis within domains required revisiting included terms, cover terms, and semantic relationships to try to frame categories differently. First, I considered including or excluding included terms and even thinking about the possibility of organizing new domains. Second, I searched for special relationships among specific included terms to try to find out if they fit together because of some commonalities. Third, I examined domains to determine if categories had distinctive features that required the creation of a new domain. Hatch (2002) refers to this step in terms of “filling in and modifying an outline” (p.172). Completing the analysis within domains served the purpose of deeply examining the domains identified and better understanding the complexity within each domain.

Search for Themes across Domains

The final step of domain analysis involved looking for themes. From all the data analyzed, I looked for broad themes that brought pieces together. In order to do that, I examined the domains in search of repeated patterns or patterns that showed connections among the data. Hatch (2002) proposes a set of question to guide this examination as follows:

- What does all this mean?
- How does all this fit together?
- How are pieces related to the whole?

I read both the original data set and the frames of analysis, focusing more on the frames of analysis in the search for particular relationships. As searching for themes, I kept records of the relationships and the places where they were found. Three strategies were used. First, I kept in mind potential themes and was open to finding new themes. Second, Hatch (2002) proposes “a systematic comparison among the domains

identified" or the looking for "general semantic relationship among domains" (p. 174). Hatch (2002) suggests that when searching for similarities some thought be given to possible differences among domains as well. As part of this strategy, I considered the following questions:

- What is the same or similar among these domains?
- What threads connect the domains in positive ways?
- How are they similar? How are they linked?

The third strategy focused on relating pieces to a whole. I constructed a meaningful whole that represented the specific parts of the analysis up until this point. Hatch (2002) suggests two possible scenarios for this: one, to do a graphic representation and two, to write a summary overview of what has been found. For this current study, I created a summary that organized all the parts in order to create "a whole that makes sense" (Hatch, 2002, p. 175). I also used some graphic representation which helped me to visualize data and themes to write up the summary. At the end of this step, I had a sense of what the data meant, the relationships among the domains, and how the parts of the analysis fit together. As I put the summary together I selected data excerpts to support the elements of domains, which became part of the findings.

One last step before writing the findings was to have a final check to see if there was sufficient data that provided enough evidence and supported the findings. At this point, with the domain analysis worksheets, the research journal, and the examples to be used to represent the findings, the writing of findings took place.

Trustworthiness

For an audience to examine the quality of a study in terms of its design, the selection of the participants, and even the results, there should be some level of trustworthiness. Lincoln and Guba (1985) highlight the importance of this by claiming that researchers must convince the audience that the research findings are indeed something “worth paying attention to” (p. 290). Some strategies in qualitative research that can ensure trustworthiness are triangulation, peer reviews, member checking, and audit trials. In the case of this study, various methods were used to verify perspectives and triangulate findings. In the case of peer reviews and during the coding and creating of domains, I worked with two Spanish-speaking classmates and also with the principal investigator of the larger study (who has some Spanish background) to review sample pieces during the data analysis process. The two classmates I worked with are fellow doctoral candidates in the College of Education at the University of Florida. Both classmates are Spanish-native speakers, are ESOL certified, and have experience teaching in K-12 settings. Taking into account the constructivist nature of the study, I conducted member checks with the teacher participant to make sure that I provided an accurate representation of her meaning-making process. The teacher participant engaged in corroborating information about the study by reviewing the initial coding and the creation of domains and confirming the findings of the study. Finally, for audit trails, there was a thorough documentation of the entire research process. I had a very detailed and systematic research journal where memos, comments, insights, decisions, and questions were kept orderly.

It is important to note that different research paradigms favor more specific strategies to ensure trustworthiness. In the case of domain analysis, Hatch (2002)

suggests three ways to reach for trustworthiness, including revising to check possible domain modifications, data saturation, and disconfirming domains. Hatch (2002) urges researchers, from the initial steps and through the entire process of domain analysis, to carefully examine and constantly and systematically revise elements of domains and the domains themselves. Along with following the steps of domain analysis, researchers should be open to new domains or domains that might need modification, even domains that might have to be left aside. For this study, some domains were put aside since they did not help in answering the research questions of the study while others needed modification and had to be fused. In relation to data saturation, as already mentioned, there has to be enough solid evidence of each of the elements of the domains. In order to reach saturation, the parts that constitute the domains must be repeated over and over again. I revised all domain analysis components (meaningful units, included terms and semantic relationships) several times to ensure all data were incorporated into the identified domains. One last piece of trustworthiness that must be taken into account is the search for counterevidence to the domains identified. A search was conducted to find possible evidence that might disconfirm each identified domain.

Other issues in terms of trustworthiness of the study relate to data collection. Data were collected over an extended period of time from December 2009 until June 2010. In addition, videos and interviews were transcribed verbatim and in their entirety. The transcriptions included text and also contextual descriptive notes that helped in the analysis of the data. This ensured that the analysis took into consideration the participants' words as well as her actions.

Subjectivity

In terms of the researcher's subjectivity, I offer my experience in TWI programs. I began gaining familiarity with these programs in 2009-2010 as I was part of the research team for over a year and a half. At first, I became familiar with bilingual education and its different types, including that of enrichment in its form of TWI programs. Due to my linguistic background as a native Spanish speaker, I transcribed literacy lessons for a first-grade TWI teacher, then revised Spanish and English transcriptions in literacy and math for other teachers. I also transcribed in English, including literacy and science lessons. Additionally, I transcribed and revised three teachers' interviews. In collaboration with the principal investigator of the study, I conducted a study on Think-Pair-Share as a way to promote peer interaction and language development in the classroom of one first-grade teacher. Our purpose focused on the teacher's discursive scaffolding of cooperative learning activities (specifically Think-Pair-Share) in a Spanish TWI first-grade classroom. The first-grade bilingual teacher for this current study was the last teacher whose classroom videos I transcribed so her transcriptions were fresh in my memory. I met the first-grade bilingual teacher and the current teacher of the study (Maestra Mara) as we presented together in La Cosecha Dual Language Conference in 2010.

Bilingual education has been part of my life for the past sixteen years. My personal and professional identity is that of a bilingual person and drives my fascination for the topic. I am a Latina, a native Spanish speaker, and an English language learner. Professionally, I have worked as an English teacher and professor and as an English teacher educator. In my native country of Costa Rica, I have taught English as a foreign language, and the student population has been mostly linguistically homogeneous:

native Spanish speakers. However, I personally struggled with students not viewing English as an important aspect of their education since students did not really need it to "survive" in the country. In the U.S., Spanish is viewed as a foreign language. Students might not really need Spanish to "survive" since the entire country functions in terms of English. Students in TWI programs in the U.S. might not see the importance of learning (for non-native students) or developing and maintaining (for native speakers) a second language.

I am familiar with the exceptional challenges students face when learning a second language and also with the challenges teachers face in terms of pedagogical features when teaching culturally and linguistically diverse students. Based on my experience in teaching English as a foreign language in a Spanish-speaking country for many years, I know there is more to teaching than simply "knowing" a language. Knowing *about* the language is essential. Knowing about *how to teach* the language is fundamental. In addition to the great deal of social and academic language needed, pedagogical and curricular knowledge must also be mastered in order to feel confidence when teaching a second language. A mandatory aspect for me is for teachers to show true, genuine care for the students and hold high expectations levels.

I firmly believe that teachers working in TWI programs who can see students as human beings with strengths, weaknesses, unique backgrounds, and the positive potential for knowing two languages can reach the students in more effective ways. It has been affirmed that teaching diverse students successfully implies challenging one's attitude toward students, their languages, and their cultures, which can result in teachers' motivations being transferred to the students and can directly affect student

performance and achievement (Banks et al., 2005; Howard et al., 2003; Nieto, 2000; Valdés, 1997). As a Spanish speaker, I am an advocate for Spanish-speaking students. It is my belief that teachers need to pay close attention to Spanish-native speakers in the context of TWI programs since these programs can be the only option for them to preserve their heritage language, their linguistic and cultural roots.

As a result of being involved with the larger study and as my bilingual background, I developed an interest in TWI programs and was drawn to the unique interactions and dynamics that take place in the programs. Conducting research in the field of bilingual education, specifically in the context of TWI programs, encourages me to better understand effective teaching practices. It also motivates to know more about the challenges, the weaknesses, and strengths of the programs and how they are working in terms of meeting the needs of Spanish-speaking students.

This chapter situated the study within constructivist and domain analysis approaches to research and also elaborated on the implications of such approaches on the methodology used in the study. Further, the chapter described the research context of the TWI school setting of the research participant. The classroom context was also detailed. The data sources including classroom lessons and interviews as well as the procedures for their collection were explained. The data analysis referred to domain analysis approaches to systematically reflect on the data. Finally, issues of trustworthiness of the findings and the researchers' subjectivity were discussed.

Table 3-1. Two-way immersion classes

Grade level	N^0 of classes
Kindergarten	5
First Grade	5
Second Grade	4
Third Grade	4
Fourth Grade	4
Fifth Grade	4

Table 3-2. Enrollment by ethnicity 2009-2010

Ethnicity	Percentage of students
African-American	3.4%
Asian	1.0%
Latino	66.2%
Native American	0.0%
White	27.1%
Native Hawaiian, Pacific Islander	0.2%
Multi-Race, Non-Hispanic	2.2%

Table 3-3. Instructional approach and design

Percentage of time	Kindergarten	First grade	Second grade	Third grade	Fourth grade	Fifth grade
Percentage of Spanish for Spanish native speakers	80%	80%	70%	50%	50%	50%
Percentage of Spanish for English native speakers	80%	80%	70%	50%	50%	50%

Table 3-4. Whole instruction segments

Lesson episodes	Date	Time
Whole group segment #1	December 11, 2009	36:06
Whole group segment #2	December 18, 2009	25:06
Whole group segment #3	January 29, 2010	29:05
Whole group segment #4	January 29, 2010	08:20
Whole group segment #5	May 28, 2010	28:03

Table 3-5. Coding sample

Meaningful Units	Included Terms
¿Quién tiene otra idea?	Encouraging alternative solutions
¿Alguien tiene otra idea diferente a la de regales?	Encouraging students to think of different ideas
Por eso idea es muy buena	Praising students for providing ideas
Y voy hacer marcas de conteo como esta mañana	Organizing students' suggestions and ideas
¿Julio qué ideas tienes?	Asking students to share their ideas to the whole class
¡Oh él dice cómprale algo pero no en el centro comercial por internet en la compu!	Rephrasing what a student has said
¡Gracias Sarah!	Thanking students for providing ideas

Table 3-6. Examples found in data

Description of Code	Code	Page	Lesson/ Teacher Interview	Examples Found in Data
Pretending not to know a word or some vocabulary or an answer to something, pretending not to know what to do	IA	1	LI	*"Yo no sé"*
		3	LII	*"¿Quién sabe qué es esto?"*
		3	LII	*"¿Y qué se usa en las damas?"*
		4	LII	*"¿Y saben qué paso? Andrés me dijo es popular. Y no sé que eso"*
		4	LII	*"¡Yo no sé qué es eso! ¡No sé qué es eso! ¡No sé qué es eso!"*
		4	LII	*"Famoso bonito pero ¿qué es eso?"*
		13	LII	*"No sé Andrés no sé"*
		13	LII	*"No sé cómo van hacer para decidir quién escribe que"*
		16	TII	*"With the Spanish speakers when they speak I'm like I don't know"*
		16	TII	*"With the Spanish speakers when they speak I'm like I don't know the answer"*
Asking for students help to define a word, asking students to define a word, requesting students help by wondering	IB	1	LI	*"¿Cómo podemos decir eso en español?"*
		17	LI	*"¿Quién me dice palabras de cómo se dice cake?"*
		3	LII	*"¿Qué significará popular?"*
		4	LII	*"¿Quién me quiere ayudar?"*
		4	LII	*"Pero ¿qué es eso?"*
		4	LII	*"¿Qué será eso?"*
Asking for students help to solve a personal problem	IC	13	LI	*"¿Qué puedo hacer? ¿Me ayudan a mí?"*
		13	LI	*"¿Quién más tiene ideas para ayudarme a mí?"*
		14	LI	*"¿Cuál es tu idea para ayudarme?"*
		13	LII	*"Y tal vez Andrés tu me puedes ayudar"*

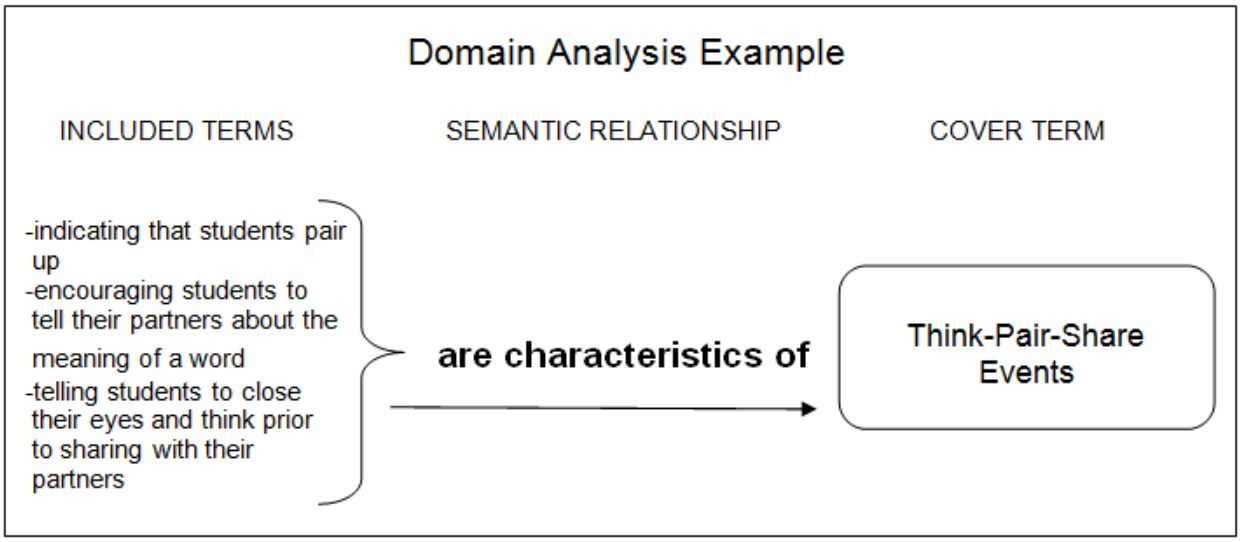

Figure 3-1. Domain analysis example

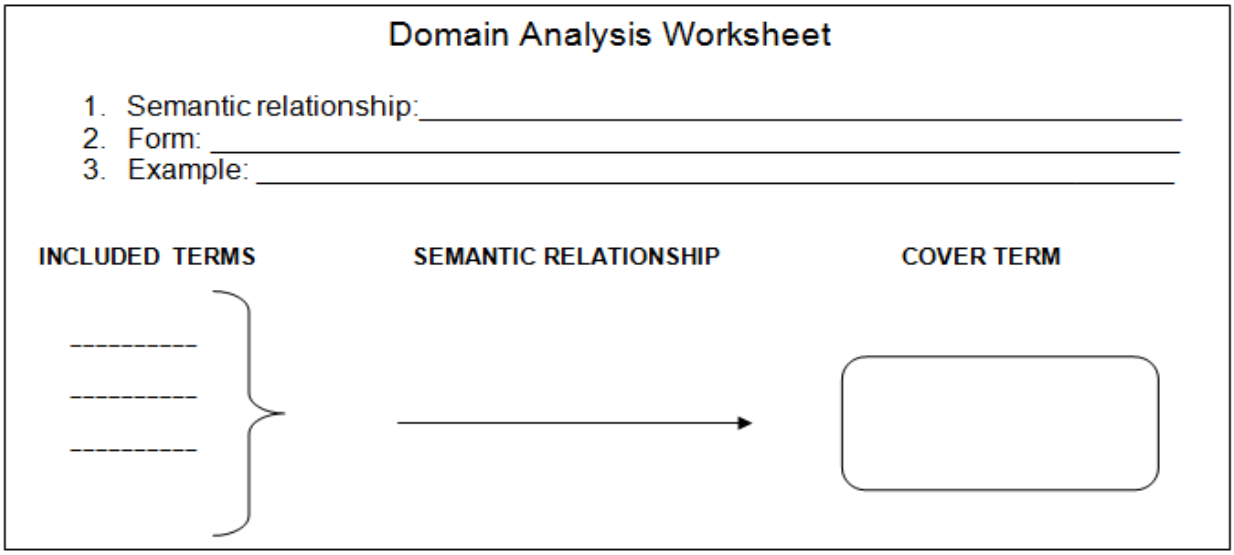

Figure 3-2. Domain analysis worksheet

CHAPTER 4
FINDINGS

The presentation of results in this chapter is organized in terms of the research questions of the study. The main research question examined how a bilingual teacher (Maestra Mara) elicited students' extended use of Spanish (SEUS) during whole group instruction. The two sub-research questions focused first on describing strategic instructional patterns used by Maestra Mara, and second on describing her beliefs and how these guided her teaching practices in a TWI first-grade classroom.

The findings are presented in terms of these three research questions. Three main instructional structures were studied to examine evidence of ways in which Maestra Mara elicited SEUS. Through these structures, Maestra Mara provided contexts to help students understand language (comprehensible input), presented students with problems that needed to be solved (problematization), and encouraged students to be independent problem-solvers and negotiators (decentralization). I refer to these instructional structures as a Comprehensible Input/Problematization/Decentralization (CPD) framework.

After explaining this framework, I describe specific instructional strategies used by Maestra Mara to implement the CPD framework. Finally, I address Maestra Mara's beliefs in terms of her actions in the TWI classroom. The descriptions of Maestra Mara are supported by quotes taken from the literacy lessons and teacher interviews.

Prior to presenting the findings that answer the research questions, I describe the general classroom culture and the climate that Maestra Mara promoted. It was within the context of the classroom climate that Maestra Mara supported language production in her lesson structures.

Classroom Community and Rapport Building

Maestra Mara's warm classroom environment promoted cooperation and welcomed students' comments and suggestions in a friendly and respectful manner. She created a safe environment where students were invited to ask questions. Students could also seek clarification of unknown vocabulary or unclear classroom tasks (e.g., *¿Alguna otra pregunta?* Another question?). The classroom culture encouraged and expected students to solve problems, make decisions, and work together as a group.

Maestra Mara constantly thanked students. She thanked them for various reasons. Some were managerial including thanking students for following expected classroom behaviors (e.g., raising their hands to comment on something, showing and moving their index and middle fingers up and down to indicate students have the same idea as others) and thanking students for following directions. She also thanked students for asking questions and most importantly for providing ideas and solutions.

In addition to thanking students, Maestra Mara praised students for participating and showed excitement when students shared ideas and opinions. She enthusiastically emphasized how she valued students' comments, ideas, and opinions. In the following quote, a student proposed an idea to solve a problem, and she reacted by exclaiming, {*¡Gracias me gusta más que la ropa!* Thank you I like it even more than clothing!} with a raised, excited voice (indicated in curly brackets) demonstrating the value placed in praising students for providing solutions. Her enthusiasm validated students' suggestions and reinforced the idea that she welcomed and embraced students' input.

Similarly, Maestra Mara encouraged students to be responsive to other students' ideas. She highlighted the importance of helping one another and collaborating in the classroom. In this way, she promoted a sense of classroom community. In the following

example Maestra Mara responded to and included the whole class in evaluating a student's suggestion (note the curly brackets as raising of the voice):

> *(interactúa con un estudiante) ¿Manaña? {¿Le puedo festejar mañana?} (pregunta a toda la clase)¿Le {puedo} celebrar mañana? ¿Les parece buena idea?*
>
> (interacts with one student) Tomorrow? {Can I celebrate tomorrow?} (addresses the entire class) {Can I} celebrate tomorrow? Do you think that is a good idea?

This example highlights how Maestra Mara took students' suggestions into account in regards to classroom activities and tasks. Additionally, as part of her building of classroom community, she urged students to listen to what others had to say and persistently encouraged students to be respectful to one another. She created a sense of collectiveness where students needed to help each another. Each of the following questions or statements highlights an example of Maestra Mara's sense of collectiveness (all names are pseudonyms).

> *Vamos a escuchar que dice Amy*. Let us listen to what Amy says.
>
> *Escuche lo que dice Luke nos fue bien porque todos teníamos un pan de jenjibre*. Listen to what Luke is saying that it went well because everybody had a gingerbread.
>
> *¿Quién le ayuda a María? Ok ayudémosle a María*. Who will help María? Ok let us help María.
>
> *Vamos a ver como Lauren escribe. Veamos si escribe o hay que ayudarle*. Let us see how Lauren writes. Let us see if she writes or if she needs help.

When correcting students, Maestra Mara sometimes used direct correction, but most of the time she provided scaffolds so that students could self and peer-correct. She also respectfully asked students for permission to correct a grammar, spelling, or vocabulary mistake they had made (e.g., *¿Natalia puedo corregir algo?* Natalia can I

correct something?). She asked students' permission in very polite ways and adopted a humble position.

In addition to her invitations and responses to students, Maestra Mara conveyed a caring attitude towards her class and students in various ways. She smiled and laughed at all times. She made fun of herself (e.g., calling herself *"cabeza de pollo,"* chicken's head, implying how forgetful and silly she could be). She also used humor and jokes to establish rapport with the students thus creating a warm comfortable environment in her classroom. She established positive personal interactions with the students individually and in groups through actions such as praising students who were good friends, good classmates, and good partners in the classroom. Maestra Mara showed care by cuddling and hugging students and using terms of endearment to address them (e.g., *"mi amor, mi vida,"* my love, my life).

In general, Maestra Mara's classroom culture reflected warmth and care and encouraged student language production. Students felt free to ask questions, seek clarification, and interact with the teacher and classmates. Most importantly, she welcomed varied opinions and praised students for offering them. At this point, I provide detail as to how she elicited SEUS during whole group instruction.

Students Extended Use of Spanish (SEUS)

All examples of whole group instruction in the classroom were teacher-directed. The teacher sat in front of the students who were gathered on the rug facing her. In some cases, students interacted in pairs or in groups for short periods of time and then again as a whole group. During the whole instruction events in the data set, there were seven specific episodes that indicated students' extended use of Spanish (SEUS). The seven SEUS episodes encouraged students to produce language that was extended

and purposeful in nature. In these episodes, at least eight different students conveyed one or more full ideas to provide an opinion or comment, offer a solution, or negotiate some meaning. The SEUS episodes varied in terms of the number of students that spoke; they ranged from a minimum of eight students to a maximum of 18 students per episode. This variation is linked to the duration of the episodes which ranged from four minutes to twenty-three minutes (Table 4-1).

Eliciting Students' Extended Use of Spanish

The most prominent finding of the study is Maestra Mara's purposeful creation of opportunities for students to use and develop language in meaningful ways. Seen as recurring patterns in all seven SEUS episodes, the teacher achieved this by means of three specific instructional structures, described above as the CPD framework. First, Maestra Mara used strategies to provide students with a context for language comprehension (comprehensible input). Second, she presented students with problems that needed real-life solutions (problematization). Finally, she decentralized her role as the teacher to promote more student participation and leadership in decision-making process and providing of suggestions (decentralization). These structures acted independently; nevertheless, they also acted together in simultaneous and complementary ways. Each structure is detailed below.

Providing a Context To Support Language Comprehension (Comprehensible Input)

Maestra Mara provided students with comprehensible input to ensure that students were able to understand what was being said to them. Maestra Mara provided students with a context to enhance comprehension and support the development of meaning. She achieved this by presenting students with situational contexts to provide

students with background. To provide situational contexts, she used her personal life stories and personal problems, which provided authenticity and content for the problems she asked them to help resolve. In addition to context, she used her intonation and non-verbal communication.

In her teaching, Maestra Mara contextualized language through her intonation patterns and non-verbal communication to enhance language comprehension. Maestra Mara's intonation facilitated the development of meaning by denoting emphasis and conveying the emotions connected to specific situations. For example, the raising (indicated in curly brackets) and lowering of her voice (indicated in square brackets) made content more comprehensible by drawing students' attention to specific elements of a story or problem and by creating variety that kept students engaged. Maestra Mara also used non-verbal communication parallel to verbal utterances to enhance student understanding. The combination worked as an empowerment tool and as linguistic reinforcement in her teaching practices. She used non-verbal communication both to sustain student engagement and to scaffold the comprehension of meaning. To support comprehension, Maestra Mara used face and body gestures (e.g., touching and/or hitting body parts, making specific faces, showing emotions). Other non-verbal communication cues included pausing, pointing at students, and sustaining eye contact which signaled students to provide solutions and communicated Maestra Mara's expectations for students to help her with a personal situation. Additionally, she referred to classroom materials such as posters and books to make content comprehensible thus providing students with context to understand better and produce language more effectively.

In the following examples taken from a literacy lesson on December 11, 2009, Maestra Mara told the students that she and her entire family (son, daughter, and mother) had forgotten her husband's birthday. In interviews, she asserted that it was indeed a personal problem she was going through at the time. She read the story to the students as part of the morning message for the day. At the beginning of the story, she indicated that her story was sad and troublesome due to the fact that she forgot her husband's birthday. Her intonation and attitude invited the students to help her by providing suggestions to communicate her regret and secure her forgiveness. Note the non-verbal cues (in parentheses) which worked as non-linguistic support. Also note how she raised (indicated in curly brackets) and lowered (indicated in square brackets) her voice to put emphasis on forgetting the birthday and reinforced the emphasis by using non-verbal communication (e.g., touching her head, making a sad face).

> *(leyendo el mensaje de la mañana) [Ahora tengo una mala historia] (hace cara triste) una mala noticia (pone su dedo gordo hacia abajo) anteayer antes de ayer ayer fue jueves antes de ayer fue miércoles (se refiere a un poster de la clase) el miércoles el miércoles me olvidé (toca se cabeza) del cumpleaños del cumpleaños de Rafael ¡Cabeza de pollo! (toca su cabeza) {Francisco} no regalo {Francisco se olvidó Ana Emilia se olvidó (golpea su pierna) mi mami Carmen se olvidó} (golpea su pierna) ¡Ay no! (hace cara triste y de preocupación) {Todos nos olvidamos ¡Qué pena! ¿Qué puedo hacer? ¿Me ayudan} (apuntan a los estudiantes) {a mí} (se refiere a si misma)?*
>
> (reading the morning message) [Now I have a sad story] (makes a sad face), a sad story (does "thumbs down"). Two days ago, two days ago yesterday it was Thursday two days ago was Wednesday (referring to a classroom poster). On Wednesday I forgot (touching her head) Rafael's birthday: his birthday! Chicken's head (touching her head)! {Francisco} no present {Francisco forgot about it, Ana Emilia forgot about it}, (hitting her leg) {my mother Carmen forgot about it}, (hitting her leg) my mother the grandmother of the children. Oh no (making a sad and worried face)! {Everybody forgot! What a shame! What can I do? Can you} (pointing at the students) {help me} (referring to herself)?

In the next excerpt, Maestra Mara encouraged students to provide her with solutions to her real-life problem. Note how her intonation in this case reinforced students' offering of solutions and encouraged others to provide solutions to help her solve her problem. In the last two lines of the excerpt, she communicated the emotion of forgetting her husband's birthday by lowering her voice (indicated in square brackets) and using non-verbal communication (making a sad face, touching her head, hitting her legs). Then she paused and provided students some time to think and reflect upon her problem. She invited students to empathize with her. She sustained eye contact to make sure all students felt invited to provide solutions. She created an authentic context with which students could identify.

> *¡Oh Felipe ya tiene una idea y Steven también (hace cara feliz)! {¡Ah Melissa y Lucia tienen una idea} (hace cara feliz) {para ayudarme a mí!} (se refiere a ella) {Porque sabe ¿qué pasa?} [Rafael está enojado], (hace cara enojada) [está un poco triste], (acerca sus manos a sus ojos). [La Maestra Mara se olvidó] (toca su cabeza, hace cara triste y golpea sus piernas) (pausa y mira fijamente a los ojos a los estudiantes) ¿Quién más tiene ideas para ayudarme a mí?*
>
> Oh Felipe already has an idea and Steven too (makes a happy face)! {Ah Melissa and Lucia have an idea} (makes a happy face) {to help me} (refers to herself)! {Because you know what is going on?} [Rafael is mad] (making an angry face). [He is a bit sad] (moves her hand to her eyes). [Maestra Mara forgot about it] (touching her head, making a sad face, and hitting her legs) (pausing and looking at students' eyes). Who else has more ideas to help me?

Presenting Students with Problems (Problematization)

Maestra Mara presented students with problems and encouraged students to provide solutions. By providing students with real conflicts and through eliciting solutions in pairs and groups, she invited students to extend their language production and problem-solving skills. In several cases, she initiated conversation by stating she had a problem (*Tengo un problema*). In other instances, she simply posed a question with a

reference to a problem. She presented students with personal problems and language-related problems that elicited students extended language production. Note how in the following examples taken from a literacy lesson on December 11, 2009 Maestra Mara indicated to the students that there was a problem with regard to the language. In the first example, students were filling in the date in the morning message. After one student wrote the word *"hoy"*, Maestra Mara questioned the spelling of the word (e.g., *Hay un problema ahí dice hoy pero está mal escrito*. There is a problem here it says today but it is not written correctly). In a similar way, in the second example, she also indicated that there was a problem with the semantics of a word (*Tengo un problema en una palabra. Tengo un problema en esta palabra*. I have a problem in a word. I have a problem in this word).

In the following example, Maestra Mara engaged with the students in planning a play. She challenged students to think about what characters of different books might say so that students could rehearse for the play. Students had read various versions of a book so there was a problem in determining whether or not the main animal character was male or female. Maestra Mara opened up a space for students to provide ideas and comments so that the class could decide which character (male or female) to choose for rehearsing the play (*¿Pongo el zorro o la zorra? ¿Qué creen?* Should I put the male or female fox? What do you think?).

In the following excerpts Maestra Mara presented students with problems about how to deal with a classroom task. In this excerpt, Maestra Mara initiated a discussion by explicitly stating in a lowered voice (indicated in square brackets) that she had a problem. She also conveyed an attitude, accompanied by non-verbal communication of

worry about a genuine problem and the need for students to provide ideas to solve it. She gave students instructions about a classroom activity in which groups had to talk about an assigned book and write about four specific parts (the setting, the characters, the problem, and the solutions proposed to solve the problem). More specifically, she presented students with the problem of deciding students' tasks within their groups. She questioned students and they began proposing ideas about how to solve the problem. Within a few minutes students reached an agreement as a group.

> *Pero [tengo un problema] (pausa, baja su voz y muestra preocupación, se inclina hacia los estudiantes, pone su mano en la cara y muestra una expresión en su cara de preocupación e intranquilidad) no sé Andrés no sé y tal vez tu me puedes ayudar [no sé cómo van hacer para decidir quien escribe que].*
>
> But [I have a problem] (pauses, lowers her voice, and shows preoccupation, leans forward towards the students, puts her hand on her face, and shows a worried concerned face) I don't know Andrés and maybe you can help me [I don't know how you are going to decide who is going to write].

As the lesson continued, Maestra Mara challenged students with another problem. In this case, she wanted to ensure that students were careful about what they wrote on the poster.

> *{¿Qué tal que yo pienso una idea y escribo} [y luego está mal?] (muestra una cara de preocupación, pone su mano en su boca y mira a los estudiantes, luego pausa) ¿Qué creen que puedo qué podemos hacer para que no suceda eso? (pausa) ¿Puedo tachar si me equivoco? Pero preferiría no equivocarme entonces ¿qué puedo hacer?*
>
> {What if I think of an idea and I write it} [and it is wrong] (shows a worried face, puts her hand in her mouth, and looks at the students, then pauses)? What do you think I can we can do for that not to happen? (pauses) Can I cross it out if I make a mistake? But I'd rather not make the mistake, so what can I do?

She encouraged students to think about solutions prior to writing on the poster. As students thought about the problem and began offering ideas, she encouraged student interaction in their groups in order to negotiate about what they would write on the poster.

Decentralizing Her Teacher Role (Decentralization)

Maestra Mara promoted a sense of classroom community, where she was not the only knower in the classroom. By decentralizing her role, she elicited students' language production in Spanish. Most importantly, decentralizing her role provided students with a central role: an ownership over their language and knowledge. She encouraged students to play a more central role in the classroom in specific ways. First, she made sure solutions, comments, and ideas came from the students. She invited class members to work together, help one another, and positively evaluate suggestions provided by others. Second, Maestra Mara not only opened up spaces for students to make suggestions, but also provided spaces for students to explain those suggestions and provide a rationale by sharing the thinking behind the suggestions. Notice, for example, that in the excerpt below taken from a literacy lesson on January 29, 2010, she asked students to propose ideas on how to decide on characters from a book in order to perform a play. Students needed to designate specific characters to specific students, which caused a problem, and she encouraged students to provide solutions to solve the problem. She did not provide students with solutions to a classroom problem. Instead, she encouraged students to think of possible solutions to solve the problem. Students engaged in discussion about choosing characters for a classroom play. A student proposed an idea. Maestra Mara validated the idea but made sure the student explained the idea more in depth. Maestra Mara's questioning of students demonstrated

her decentralizing role and invited all students to provide solutions (e.g., *¿Qué podemos hacer?* What can we do?). Note how she used “we” rather that “you” as a way to integrate the students. In her questioning she clearly acknowledged that she expected students to be active participants and propose ways to solve problems in the classroom.

> *Repito lo que dice Felipe y la misma pregunta tiene Amy {¿Qué podemos hacer si un niño quiere ser el hombre de jenjibre y el otro también quiere ser el hombre de jenjibre?} (Sarah proposes to use “bubble gum bubble gum”) Ok ¿Cómo es bubble gum bubble gum?*
>
> I repeat what Felipe says and Amy has the same question.{ What can we do if a student wants to be the ginger man bread and the other one was to be the gingerbread man?} (Sarah proposes to use “bubble gum bubble gum”) Ok how is bubble gum bubble gum?

From the excerpt about the male/female character, Maestra Mara knew that only one character (either male or female) was part of the play. Nevertheless, she opened up a space and let a student provide rationale about a possible way to include the two.

> *¿Pongo el zorro o la zorra? Ayúdenme a contar escuche escuche pero (interactúa con un estudiante) ¿Cómo ponemos el zorro y la zorra en un solo cuento?*
>
> Should I put the male fox or the female fox? Help me to count listen listen but (interacts with one student) how can we put the male fox and the female fox in one story?

Finally, Maestra Mara explicitly stated that she was not the one that decided all the time, informing the students about how she welcomed and encouraged their suggestions. Note how in the next excerpt she conveyed her expectations that students play a central role in the decision-making process. Students had decided to vote for the selection of specific characters to perform in a play, but one student questioned why Maestra Mara had not voted. Maestra Mara responded that she wanted students to decide, negotiate, and problem-solve together.

¿Yo? ¿Y yo porqué? Yo no voto ah yo no voto (pausa) yo quiero lo que hagan mis niños. Yo no quiero involucrarme. Ustedes solucionan. La maestra esta vez no decide.

Me? Why me? I don't vote ah I don't vote (pauses). I want what my kids want. I don't want to get involved. You solve it. The teacher does not decide this time.

In the following excerpt from a literacy lesson on December May 28, 2010, students approached Maestra Mara with questions about deciding which students would be in charge of making the drawing of an animal as part of a classroom activity. Students expected her to provide them with answers. Instead she pushed them to come to a decision within their groups.

¿Saben qué van hacer? Ustedes deciden. Cada grupo tiene que decidir quién va hacer el dibujo del animal.

Do you know what you are going to do? You decide. Each group must decide who will do the drawing of the animal.

Strategic Instructional Patterns to Elicit SEUS

As part of the CPD framework, Maestra Mara's specific instructional strategies included pretending not to know and wondering aloud, using synonyms, activating students' background knowledge, encouraging and expecting students to produce more language, expecting all students to participate, implementing Think-Pair-Share cooperative structures, and encouraging elaboration. These strategies are explained in detail now.

Pretending Not To Know and Wondering Aloud

Maestra Mara's purpose for pretending not to know and wondering aloud was to create an authentic reason for communication and elicit language from the students. Her strategy consisted on pretending not to know either the meaning of a word, some vocabulary term, or an answer to something. She pretended not to know how to go

about things or what to do in specific situations. This strategy is related to two elements of the CPD framework: problematizing and decentralizing. She presented students with a problem (problematizing) and encouraged them to provide solutions (decentralizing).

Integrally related to pretending not to know was the strategy of wondering aloud about the meaning of a word and asking students help her define it. Her questioning was sometimes direct, but most of the time she requested help through wondering. By using this strategy, she encouraged students to provide the definition of unknown vocabulary for their peers (decentralization). Defining words also provided context for the students (comprehensible input) to carry out tasks with an emphasis on language production (oral and written). In the following example, she requested students' help to define a word.

> *¿Quién me quiere ayudar con esa palabra?* Who wants to help me with that word?

Note in the example below how Maestra Mara acted as if she did not know the meaning of the word "popular" and presented the students with the problem of not knowing. She read the word in a poem and invited students to define it. Note how her question was posed as a wondering.

> *¿Qué significará popular? ¿Qué será eso?* I wonder what popular means. What would that (popular) be?

A student provided translation of the word by telling Maestra Mara that it was "popular" in English. Still pretending not to know, she paused and indicated that a student had provided an answer, but she still did not know the meaning of the word. She opened up a space to include the rest of the class in reflecting about the meaning of the word. She expected students to provide more than a literal translation of the word. She

encouraged students to think of possible ways to explain the meaning of word. Note how she raised her voice (indicated in curly brackets) and used repetition to convey emphasis.

> *¿Y saben que pasó? Andrés me dijo es popular y no sé que eso. ¡Yo no sé qué es eso! {¡No sé qué es eso! ¡No sé qué es eso!}*
>
> And do you know what happened? Andrés told me it is popular and I don't know what that is. I don't know what that is! {I don't know what that is! I don't know what that is!}

Notice how in the next excerpt Maestra Mara pretended not to know in regards to a classroom task students needed to carry out in groups. She explained a task and wondered aloud about how students might get organized.

> *No sé cómo van hacer para decidir quien escribe que.* I don't know how you are going to decide who will write.

Using Synonyms

Maestra Mara used synonyms as means to provide context for the students (comprehensible input) and broaden students' possibilities to speak and interact with the classmates. She also used synonyms as a way to encourage students to learn vocabulary words and promote students' thinking skills. A strategy consisted on Maestra Mara expanding on students' use of synonyms in her lessons by referring to synonyms students offered and used in their speech. As linguistic support, there was a synonym chart in the classroom she often referred to during lessons. Students were encouraged to look out for synonyms to write in the chart. In the following excerpt, Maestra Mara reinforced the synonyms for the word "stop" which students had proposed as they brainstormed possible dialogues for book characters to perform a play.

> *Para para ¿Quién dijo eso? Alto es un sinónimo de para y puede decir Para para o alto alto*.

> Stop stop who said that? Alto (stop) is a synonym of para (stop) and you can say para para or alto alto.

The following example from a literacy lesson on December 12, 2009, shows how Maestra Mara explicitly asked students to generate synonyms in supporting students' language production and use. She presented students with a problem (having forgotten about her husband's birthday) to which students responded by offering possible solutions. A student suggested that she get him a birthday cake. Maestra Mara realized that cake in Spanish has many synonyms. First, she praised the student's suggestion and then asked students for other ways to say cake in Spanish (note the raised voice to put emphasis indicated by curly brackets). Students were eager to provide synonyms.

> *Ok esta también idea Robert me gustó ¿Cómo se dice "cake"? {¿Quién me dice palabras de como se dice "cake"?} ¡Pastel! ¿Cómo más? {¿Quién más sabe otro nombre para pastel? Otro sinónimo} ¡Queque! ¿Quién más sabe? ¿Quién sabe otro sinónimo para pastel?*
>
> Ok that is fine Robert I liked the idea. What is cake is Spanish? {Who can tell me words about how to say cake?} *Pastel!* ("cake" in Spanish) What else? {Who else knows another name for cake? Another synonym!} *Queque* ("cake" in Spanish) Who else knows? Who else knows another synonym for cake?

Activating Students' Background Knowledge

Maestra Mara activated students' background knowledge in order to establish connections between past and current content knowledge. Also activating students' background knowledge enabled students to carry on classroom tasks and compensate for those whose Spanish background would otherwise be insufficient to carry out a classroom activity or engage in classroom conversations and discussions. This activation of knowledge elicited students' language and content knowledge and contextualize students' learning. She initiated this activation with *"¿Quién se acuerda?"*

Who remembers? It was also accompanied by a reference to a book read, an activity, a word explained, or an event that happened in the classroom.

In the following excerpts taken from two literacy lessons on January 29, 2010, and May 28, 2010 Maestra Mara activated students' background knowledge by referring to two previously read books, *The Three Little Pigs* and *The Gingerbread Man.* In the first excerpt, she asked students about a problem that was part of the plot of *The Three Little Pigs*.

> *¿Quién se acuerda cual era el problema?* Who remembers what the problem was?

In the second excerpt, she activated students' background knowledge by making reference to dialogues of two characters in the book *The Gingerbread Man*. Activating students' background knowledge worked as a way to provide students access to content and vocabulary to carry out a classroom activity.

> *Vamos a escoger el viejito y la viejita ¿Qué puede decir el viejito y la viejita? ¿Qué decía el viejito? ¿Quién se acuerda que decía el viejito?*
>
> Let us choose the old man and the old lady. What can the old man and the old lady say? What did the old man say? Who remembers what the old man say?

In the following excerpts taken from a literacy lesson on May 28, 2010, Maestra Mara reminded students of a word or topic that she taught them previously. The importance of remembering and understanding the word or topic was key to carry out a classroom activity.

> *¿Quién se acuerda de una palabra? ¿Quién se acuerda? Se acuerdan que les dije ayer que íbamos hacer algo muy especial y les enseñe una nueva palabra ayer.*
>
> Who remembers a word? Who remembers? Do you remember that yesterday I told you we were going to do something very special and I

taught you a new word yesterday?

¿Quién se acuerda cual es nuestro hábitat de aquí de nuestra clase? ¿Quién se acuerda? ¿Quién se acuerda como se llama nuestro hábitat?
Who remembers the habitat of our classroom? Who remembers? Who remembers the name of our habitat?

In the following excerpt, Maestra Mara directed students to create a classroom mural. She required students to brainstorm some ideas in order to activate students' background knowledge. As students provided their ideas, she wrote the ideas in the board which provided students with a review of vocabulary and grammar. The ultimate purpose of this was for students to use language as they worked on a mural in their groups. Note how non-verbal communication was also part of the context in two specific ways: it made content more comprehensible (e.g., touching of her head when referring to thinking processes) and communicated an expectation that students participate (e.g., leaning forward, staring at students). Also note her raised voice (indicated by curly brackets) to grasp students' attention.

Piense más (se agacha hacia los estudiantes, los ve fijamente y toca su frente) que en los animales. Piensen como es el hábitat donde viven pulpos al norte bien al norte {¿Qué más?} Cosas otras cosas morsas (escribiendo en la pizarra) {ah escuche algo súper importante ¿Por qué serán los peces muy importante? ¿Puedes repetir eso muy fuerte? ¿Por qué serán muy importante los peces?} (escribiendo en la pizarra) Escuche {¿Quién sabe cómo se dice tengo muchos peces?} ¿Cómo será solo uno? Escuche mi pregunta.

Think more (leans forward towards the students, stares at them, and touches her forehead) about the animals. Think about the habitat where the octopuses live up north. {What else?} Things other things (tell me) walruses (writing in the board) {ah listen to something very important: why are fish important? Can you repeat that loudly? Why are fish so important} (writing in the board)? Listen {who knows how to write fish in plural?} How do you write fish in singular? Listen to my question.

Maestra Mara's activation of students' background knowledge led to more language production since it required students to speak more and provide answers to her questions. She expected students to use language while relating to prior knowledge, and establish connections between past and current content.

Encouraging and Expecting Students To Produce More Language

Maestra Mara constantly encouraged students to produce more language. There was verbal encouragement to continue talking when students were in pairs sharing, brainstorming, or listing ideas. She also encouraged students to produce more language as a whole group when students were discussing a problem and formulating solutions to the problem. Encouragement also included the teacher asking students to expand on answers. More specifically, she encouraged students to produce language in four distinctive ways:

- Encouraging students to provide more ideas
- Reinforcing the use of complete sentences and ideas
- Encouraging students to provide different and varied ideas
- Expecting all students to participate
- Implementing cooperative structures such Think-Pair-Share

I provide specific examples to illustrate these four patterns in which Maestra Mara encouraged and expected students to produce more language.

Encouraging Students To Provide More Ideas

Maestra Mara pushed students to provide more ideas, think more deeply, and extend their language production. Note the *"más"* (more, what/why else) as a key word in encouraging students to speak more. The context of the following example is from a debriefing time where Maestra Mara asked students what went well when they practiced and presented a play. She questioned students, and in the middle of students providing

ideas, she insisted that students provided more comments. Each question represents a different utterance in which she encouraged students to provide *"más."*

> *¿Porque saben más que salió bien? ¿Quién sabe más que salió bien? ¿Quién más dice como nos fue? ¿Por qué más? ¿Quién más tiene otra idea? ¿Porque más les fue bien o mal? ¿Qué más?*
>
> Why else do you know it went well? Who else knows what went well? Who else knows how it went? Why else? Who else has another idea? Why else it went well or not so well? What else?

In the following example, students brainstormed ideas about specific things that a mural must have. When students suggested things, Maestra Mara constantly pushed students to provide more ideas and to offer more suggestions. Each question and sentence represents a different statement.

> *En el Ártico hay animales ¿Qué animales? ¿Cómo cuáles? ¿Qué más? ¿Qué más? Piense que más en los animales, piense cómo es el hábitat donde viven. ¿Qué más hay? ¿Qué más? ¿Qué más? ¿Qué más hay?*
>
> In the Arctic there are animals. What animals? Which ones? What else? What else? Think more about the animals. Think about how the habitat where they live is. What else is there? What else? What else? What else is there?

Reinforcing the Use of Complete Sentences and Ideas

Maestra Mara required that students use a complete sentence (subject-verb-object structure) when giving an idea. In the following excerpt, Maestra Mara asked students how they felt when presenting a play. A student provided a simple word ("happy"). Maestra Mara requested that the student used a complete sentence to express her opinion. Note how her request was accompanied by the use of non-verbal communication and raising of her voice (indicated in curly brackets).

> *{¿Cómo se sienten ahora?} (Natalia pronuncia una palabra) Oración completa (usa sus dos brazos y los elonga a los lados) (Natalia formula una oración completa) {Ah se siente muy feliz porque hice algo muy bien}.*

{How do you feel now?} (Natalia pronounces a word) Complete sentence (uses her arms by elongating them to the sides) (Natalia states a complete sentence). {Ah she feels happy because I did something very good}.

In the same way, in the excerpt below Maestra Mara asked a question and would not accept the short answer provided by the students.

¿Qué debe tener nuestro mural para que sea una representación del hábitat del Ártico del Polo Norte? (Christopher ofrece una respuesta corta) Dame una idea (mira fijamente a Christopher).

What must our mural have to be a representation of our habitat of the Arctic of the North Pole? (Christopher provides a short answer) Give me an idea (sustains eye contact).

Encouraging Students To Provide Different and Varied Ideas

In addition to Maestra Mara expecting students to provide more ideas, she also encouraged students to provide different ideas. She expected students to diversify their answers and pushed them into thinking about different possibilities, suggestions, and solutions to problems proposed. The following excerpt comes from the lesson about her husband's birthday. When students began to repeat solutions to her problem, she encouraged them to think of different solutions. Note the use of *"diferente"* (different) and *"otra"* (another) as means for her to indicate she expected students to provide varied answers.

¿Quién tiene ideas para ayudarme a mí? ¿Otra idea? Ropa ¿Otra idea? ¿Otra idea {diferente?} ¿Quién tiene otra idea diferente? ¿Quién tiene otra idea? Alguien tiene otra idea diferente de regalo? No regalos (díganme) otras cosas.

Who else has ideas to help me? Another idea? Clothing. Another idea? A {different} idea? Who else has a different idea? Who else has another idea? Does somebody have a different idea from presents? No presents (tell me) other things.

In the next example, several students proposed similar dialogues for characters in a play. Maestra Mara overheard a student proposing a different idea and encouraged the student to speak up and offer his suggestion (*¿Luke? Tú dijiste otra cosa.* Luke? You said something different.)

In the following excerpt, Maestra Mara asked students a question related to a book they had read. A student (Natalia) provided an answer that was slightly different from what students had studied, but it was indeed accurate. Another student (Robert) immediately affirmed how that was not the precise answer according to the book. A different student (Amy) argued that answers did not necessarily have to be the same. Maestra Mara validated Amy's observation (by doing "thumbs up") and acknowledged that answers did not have to be exactly the same, which affirmed the value of diversity in answers and praised students for offering different ideas.

> *O puede ser diferente no tiene Amy (muestra sus pulgares hacia arriba) no necesitamos decir igualito si podemos cambiar.*
>
> Or it can be different. It does not have Amy (doing "thumbs up") we don't need to say it exactly the same way. We can change.

.

Expecting All Students To Participate

Maestra Mara was explicit in her expectations that as many students as possible participate. When Maestra Mara wondered aloud, posed a question, or provided students with some context to solve problems, she expected students to be ready to provide ideas. She was masterful at managing whole group instruction and firmly insisted on student participation. The classroom interaction during whole group indicated she skillfully engaged students in meaningful conversation. There was dynamic construction of knowledge as Maestra Mara interacted with the students. When few students raised their hands to offer their opinions, she openly stated she had more

than one student, thus implying that more students needed to participate, as the following excerpts illustrate. Note how she expressed a statement of concern which indicated her expectations for more students to raise their hands and provide opinions.

> *¡Oh solo Natalia tengo de alumna!* Oh I only have Natalia as a student!
>
> *Veo cinco manos (levantadas) no veo más manos por aquí.* I see five (raised) hands. I don't see hands over here.

Implementing Think-Pair-Share Events

Five of seven SEUS episodes had a Think-Pair-Share event related to them. These events worked within the CPD framework, connected to many strategies already discussed, and created opportunities for students to talk more within the structure of larger group lessons. However, because this instructional pattern was used so frequently and was a core element of the teacher's instruction, it is described as a unique feature. This strategy served four specific purposes. First, and perhaps most importantly, it was used as a way to encourage more language during larger group lessons. Instead of one student talking at a time, Think-Pair-Share ensured half of the students were talking at any given time. Second, it was used to encourage students to brainstorm ideas to be further used in a classroom activity. Third, it was used to enable students to define a word or some vocabulary. Lastly, the Think-Pair-Share events served as means to activate students' prior knowledge (e.g., vocabulary, grammar, or content knowledge). This strategy provided ways for students to think about something before having to speak to the entire group. The Think-Pair-Share events shared a common characteristic: they began with *"dígale a su pareja"* (tell your partner). Some other common structures of the events included the following,

- Directing students to close their eyes and think

- Pairing up students
- Encouraging students to work one-on-one with a partner to brainstorm ideas, discuss solutions to problems, list suggestions, provide examples, and define words
- Praising expected behaviors (showing respect, raising hands, listening to one another, taking turns, talking with one's partner)
- Encouraging students to share with the class the ideas they had just discussed with their partner

The following three examples illustrate the Think-Pair-Share pattern. In the first one, Maestra Mara indicated how she expected students to talk about a problem. Students shared momentarily in pairs and then got together as a group to share. Note the use of her tone of voice and the use of non-verbal communication to convey points of emphasize.

> *¿Quién se acordaba cual era el problema? Díganle a su amigo bilingüe a su pareja ¿Steven tu pareja es Amy? Ok dile a tu amigo (estudiantes interactúan con sus parejas) Ok mirada escolar (pausa) me gusta la mirada de María y la mirada de Cindy ok ¿Quién se acuerda cual era el problema de este libro? {¡Qué problema!} (golpea sus pierna) {Es un problema} (golpea su pierna)*
>
> Who remembered what the problem was? Tell your bilingual friend, your partner. Steven your partner is Amy? Ok tell your partner (students interact with their partners). Ok mirada escolar [a classroom management strategy which means all students need to look at Maestra Mara or gather as a whole group] (pauses). I like how María looks at me and Cindy too. Ok who remembers what the problem of this book is? {What a problem} (hits her legs)! {It's a problem} (hits her leg)!

In the second example notice how in addition to all the Think-Pair-Share patterns presented in the first example, Maestra Mara indicated that students, prior to telling their partners, close their eyes and think for some time. Then students began sharing and talking in pairs.

> *Vamos a escoger el viejito y la viejita ¿Qué puede decir el viejito y la viejita? ¿Qué decía el viejito? ¿Quién se acuerda que decía el viejito?*

Cierren los ojos, piense que puede decir el viejito. Cierra los ojos. Ok dígale a su amigo, a su amiga.

Let us choose the old man and the old lady. What can the old man and the old lady say? What did the old man say? Who remembers what the old man said? Close your eyes. Think what they old man can say. Ok tell your male or female friend.

In the third excerpt Maestra Mara reinforced expected Think-Pair-Share behaviors by encouraging students to talk and help one another. Note the non-verbal communication in parentheses which served as ways to make language more comprehensible. Also, she interrupted the event to clarify instructions for some students that seemed confused. Additionally, she modeled some behaviors for students and interacted with some pairs. Finally, she encouraged students to decide in pairs what they wanted to share with the entire class.

Quiero que con su pareja júntese a su pareja (pone sus manos juntas) {piense que tiene que tener nuestro hábitat para que sea perfecto nuestro mural} (los estudiantes interactúan con sus parejas) ¡Me gusta como Natalia está conversando con uh {Natalia está hablando con su pareja!} (interactúa con un estudiante) Felipe ¿Qué es tu pregunta? ¿Qué es hielo? (a la pareja de Felipe) ¡Explícale! (con todo el grupo) Mirada escolar (pausa) ay que lindas miradas gracias hay personas que todavía no me han entendido (usa su dedo índex) voy a repetir de otra forma la pregunta quiero que con su pareja (pone sus dedos indexes juntos) piensen (toca su frente con ambos dedos indexes) y me digan (pone sus dedos en la boca) y hablen entre ustedes y decidan (usa sus manos) que tiene que tener nuestro mural para demostrar sobre nuestro hábitat del Ártico. En el Ártico ¿hay animales? {¿Qué animales?} (los estudiantes vuelven a interactuar con sus parejas) (Maestra Mara deja su silla e interactúa con una pareja) ¿Cómo cuáles? Reina acércate y escucha ¿Qué más? (Maestra Mara vuelve a sus asiento y habla a todos los estudiantes) Decidan con su pareja que van a compartir con la clase. Quiero que compartan algunas ideas.

I want you to get together with your partner (put her hands together) {think about what our habitat must have to be our perfect mural} (students interact with their partners). I like how Natalia is talking to uh {Natalia is talking with her partner} (interacts with one student). Felipe what's your question? What's ice (to his partner)? Explain it to him (addresses the

entire group). Mirada escolar (pauses) ay such beautiful looks thank you there are some people that have not yet understood (uses her index finger). I'm going to repeat the instruction in a different way. I want you that with your partner (puts her index fingers together) you think (touches her forehead with her index fingers) and tell me (puts her index fingers in her mouth) and talk between yourselves and decide (uses her hands) what our mural must have to show our Arctic habit. Are there animals in the Arctic? {Which ones?} (students get back to interacting with their partners) (Maestra Mara gets close to a pair of students and interacts with them) Which ones? Come closer dear and listen. What else? (Maestra Mara sits down in her chair and addresses all students) Decide with your partner what you are going to share with the rest of the class. I want you to share some ideas.

Encouraging Elaboration

Within the context of classroom conversations, Maestra Mara used strategies to encourage students to elaborate by requiring them to explain their thinking as they provided answers. She demanded that students share their thinking and listen to others' thinking as well. She provided the space and explicit expectation for students to provide rationale for their suggestions. In the episode about selecting characters for a play, one student thought of a solution during whole group brainstorming. When Maestra Mara was counting the raised hands, she stopped and asked students to listen to the student's suggestion. She provided the student the opportunity to explain himself and provide some rationale for his suggestion.

(a toda la clase) ¿Pongo el zorro o la zorra? Ayúdenme a contar espere escuche escuche (interactúa con un estudiante) pero ¿cómo ponemos el zorro y la zorra en un solo cuento?

(to the whole class) Should I put the male fox or the female fox? Help me to count wait listen listen (interacts with one student) but how can we put the male fox and the female fox in the same story?

Maestra Mara also used follow-up and high-order questions to help students explain their thinking. In the following excerpt, Maestra Mara brainstormed with the students about possible dialogues. Note how she engaged in a conversation with the

students to help them elaborate their suggestions. As students suggested ideas, Maestra Mara used follow-up questions to keep the conversation going and demand more rationale and student language production.

> *¿Qué puede decir el viejito? ¿A quién? ¿A él? Y antes de agarrar ¿Qué puede decir? ¿Y qué dirá la viejita?*
>
> What can the old man say? To whom? To him? And before grabbing what can he say? And what will the old lady say?

The excerpts below demonstrate her use of high-order questions to elicit elaboration. Maestra Mara recurrently used three specific structures: *"porqué"* (why), *"cómo"* (how), and *"qué crees"* (what do you think). She emphasized the importance of students' developing critical skills used in clarifying, explaining, providing insightful opinions and justifications. In the next excerpt Maestra Mara was asking a student to make an inference about the setting of a story (which was not communicated in the text).

> *¿Andrés donde crees tú que fue la historia?* Andrés where do you think the story was?

The excerpt below refers to the debriefing episode after students had presented a play. Maestra Mara used high-order questions to push students to extend their language production and develop some critical thinking skills. Note how the questions invited students to provide different answers. Every statement and question represents a different example.

> *¿Cómo podemos mejorar nuestra obra de teatro para la próxima vez? Y ¿por qué más? ¿Cómo creen que les fue en la obra de teatro? Bien ¿Por qué? ¿Qué piensas tú? ¿Cómo nos fue en nuestra obra? ¿Por qué? ¿Por qué más? ¿Natalia por qué más? ¿Por qué más les fue bien o mal? ¿Cómo podemos hacer mejor para la próxima vez? ¿Andrés como podemos hacer algo mejor? ¿Cómo podemos pensar mejor para la próxima vez? Pero ¿Cómo podemos mejorar en lo que hablamos?*

¿Cómo podemos mejorar?

> How can we improve our play for next time? And why else? How do you think the play went? Fine why? How do you think our play went? Why? Why else? Natalia why else? Why else it went well or not so well? How can we make it better for next time? Andrés how can we make it better for next time? How can we make it better for next time? How can we think better for next time? But how can we improve in what we speak? How can we make it better?

Teacher Beliefs about Language that Guide Her Teaching Practices

During the interviews, Maestra Mara stressed several of the core beliefs that guide her teaching practices. First, she clearly stated her belief in the importance of using specific strategies (pretending not to know, using synonyms, encouraging and expecting students to produce more language, using Total Physical Response [TPR], providing models, pair and group work, and using of non-verbal communication) to elicit more language production from the students, which were demonstrated in the literacy lessons.

> With the Spanish speakers, when they speak I'm like I don't know. I'm like I don't know the answer.

> When I add synonyms that's when they shine. You see the list of the "ch" sounds. Those are mostly my Spanish speakers. They put the page. I thought with "ch" I don't have too many words, but look at how many! I had to bring another piece of paper! Yeah! So they write down when they are reading. They're finding so that's when they shine.

> With English speakers I've tried the sentence structures. I use them quite a lot. I write them down on strips for everywhere write them down in (on) the board. I tried to use TPR a lot. I model a lot with my hands and face. I provide models.

Second, Maestra Mara firmly believed in the importance of promoting and implementing classroom spaces and opportunities for students to interact in order to use and develop the language. These opportunities included working in centers,

implementing Think-Pair-Share events, and providing students with unstructured settings to problem-solve and negotiate together. She noted,

> TPS (Think-Pair-Share) we do that a lot I think...I think I love working with centers. I think it allows them (students) to openly speak and talk whatever they want.

Maestra Mara referred to the importance of providing students the necessary space to engage in conversation in the classroom. She recognized the significance of providing instructional structures to support students lacking linguistic background, but highlighted the need for Spanish-speaking students to be exposed to less structured instructional situations so that they could explore language and use it more freely. She indicated the need for Spanish-speaking students to use language in more genuine ways. Note the following example in which Maestra Mara openly stated her belief in providing students with open spaces so that students could solve problems in authentic manners.

> I believe in having in place times when the kids can resolve things without killing each other. You are there. They know you are there and they solve which is why I don't like about giving so many structures is because it does not give freedom for the first language speakers.

Maestra Mara did not believe in linguistically "standardizing" students in the sense they could only speak or be provided certain level of language. She affirmed how important it was to open spaces and create opportunities for students to use language in genuine and exploratory ways. She noted, "Like put them in a square (Not liking to put students in a box) I don't let them explore the language for me it's very hard (to put students in a box)."

Third, Maestra Mara emphasized the need for students to use language and extend their language production. Interesting to note is how she expected students not

only to use their language further but also to think further. She made explicit the link between language and thinking skills stating, “With the Spanish speakers when they speak, I usually go beyond, I ask more. So like I tried to go beyond with them so that they think further so that they use their language further.”

In her practice, the link was also clearly demonstrated. As previously presented in the examples from the literacy lessons, the notion of extending language and thinking was demonstrated in her use of follow-up and high-order questions.

Finally, Maestra Mara highlighted her belief in the importance of encouraging her Spanish-speaking students to speak more Spanish, providing various reasons. First, Spanish is their home language, where their immediate and extended family only speaks Spanish. Second, it was usually the case (in her experience) that students’ use of Spanish was accurate (oral and written). Thirdly, students had enough language background to speak Spanish. Note the following example in which Maestra Mara explained why she pushed Spanish-speaking students to speak more Spanish. She particularly referred to three students (Steven, Christopher, and Estela).

> With Steven I’m always saying *“habla en español”* (speak in Spanish) because all his relatives are from Bolivia and they only speak in Spanish. The mom only speaks Spanish and his Spanish is strong enough. So if you hear me I am like with him *“en español”* (in Spanish) is with him and then with Christopher in this table. His Spanish is flawless. He is one of my best. He is my best reader and then with Estela. She is also in the Spanish side.

As Maestra Mara shared her beliefs, she also talked about some struggles she had in her classroom. These tensions are further elaborated now.

Teacher’s Tensions in the Classroom

Through both interviews Maestra Mara explicitly expressed some tensions she had when teaching in her TWI first-grade classroom. These tensions included students’

language use, promoting of problem-solving and negotiation skills, providing less structured vs. more structured classroom activities, and advocating for Spanish-speaking students. It is fundamental to address and elaborate on the tensions, or "struggles" as she called them, since they provided additional evidence about the beliefs that guide her teaching practices. These tensions, while presented independently, highly relate to one another.

Students Language Use

Maestra Mara's first tension dealt with students' use of language. More specifically, she expressed concerns about students' switching languages, mostly from Spanish to English. She believed that sometimes English-speaking students spoke more Spanish than the Spanish-speaking students, and that Spanish-speaking students switched from Spanish to English more frequently. She affirmed, "It is interesting because many times the English speakers speak more Spanish than the Spanish speakers." She identified two main reasons for this. First, some Spanish-speaking students did not want their English-speaking peers struggling with understanding the language. Because of this she believed that Spanish speakers were kind enough to switch to English for those students who struggled with Spanish. The second reason she proposed was that some students switched simply because their Spanish was not strong enough. She noted that switching from Spanish to English was more common when they were working in pairs or groups. When students were gathered in whole group instruction, they more consistently spoke Spanish as she stated, "Students don't switch during whole group. In whole group they're with me. They're good. They don't' switch. They know it's Spanish. It is when they are working with themselves (that they switch)".

A constant struggle for Maestra Mara was when students worked in groups and spoke in English. She pointed out how important it was for her that students collaborated and worked in Spanish. She insisted that she created these spaces for students to interact with each other, thus using their Spanish. She believed in these spaces as unique and authentic opportunities for students to practice Spanish. Nevertheless, she also wanted students to work cooperatively as she expressed it, "I struggle a lot if I care if they speak in Spanish or not. There are times I don't because for me it's more important they're working together." She expressed her convictions for Spanish use, but she also indicated her support of students speaking in any language as long as they collaborated and worked together stating, "I shouldn't say this but I sort of let them speak in whatever language they want." She argued that she did not care what language students spoke as long as they worked together, but she also communicates her belief that she has to encourage Spanish use (even when students work independently in groups), commenting, "I don't care. I don't care; but in the other hand, I'm like... because I struggle that they need Spanish right now and if I don't push them they'll never get it."

Promoting of Problem-Solving and Negotiation Skills

This tension linked to the previous one dealt with language use but related more broadly to the promotion of problem-solving and negotiation skills among the students. Maestra Mara asserted:

> That's another struggle. Do I really care that they're collaborating and cooperating in English or Spanish? {I don't!} I just want them to cooperate, help each other, and it's fine it's fine if it is in English. But then comes the other side of me, you know, it's like that's the tension I have all the time. It's there every day.

She believed that promoting these skills was sometimes as or more important than promoting language skills. Note how Maestra Mara raised her voice (indicated in curly brackets) to show her frustration and uncertainty when it comes to letting students problem-solve and negotiate in the language students feel more comfortable (English), even if it is not the intended language (Spanish). She explicitly stated this was a daily struggle.

Providing Less Structured vs. More Structured Classroom Activities

When talking about classroom activities, Maestra Mara believed there was some tension in how she managed and balanced structured and unstructured tasks in the classroom. She believed she was an effective classroom manager who provided students with models and behavioral and managerial structures to be followed. Her statement showed a sense of self-efficacy in terms of classroom management issues. However, she wondered if managing and controlling students was always a useful way to promote students language and thinking skills:

> There is a lot tension for me as a teacher, like my traditional piece as a teacher, and I don't know if it's too traditional. It is that I want to control my kids and I'm good at that. I like my management piece, but for me it's also really important that when I give them the chance, when I'm not that structured I give them the leeway of talking and problem-solving.

She commented on a specific situation in which she provided students with all possible structures and instructions to be followed. Nevertheless, within the lesson she let the students provide some ideas and insights. She reflected on the importance of having students suggest ways to deal with things (e.g., carry out classroom tasks) because students can propose viable and original ideas. She emphasized how this tension was a constant challenge in her classroom, commenting, "You know I was struggling because I wanted them to do something specific. And they came up with

other ideas and so that's a clash between my traditional piece and my other pieces (language and critical thinking promoter)."

Maestra Mara questioned whether giving students too many structures was counterproductive to language learning and development. She highlighted the importance of not giving many structures and providing students with opportunities to make suggestions about how to play a game, solve a problem, or decide on students' duties and tasks in their groups.

> Like somebody mentioned Brian oh Brian Eeny, Meeny, Moe and Brian said let's do that and they (the rest of the class) said ah good idea. So even though it was something imposed by a game, they talked about it.

Maestra Mara was troubled by these tensions, but reflecting on these tensions served as a way for her to evaluate her teaching strategies.

Advocating for Spanish-Speaking Students

Maestra Mara noted that she took Spanish-speaking students into account (more than English-speaking students) when teaching and planning. She wondered if that was appropriate when teaching both student populations. She stated that her Spanish-speaking students "have her heart."

> I think when I plan I think more about my Spanish speakers. When I plan I plan to see, I have higher expectations for them than the other ones (English-speaking students).

> When I teach I usually think about my Spanish-speaking children. I don't know if that's correct but that's what I do.

The primary goal for Maestra Mara was for Spanish-speaking students to excel linguistic and academically. She stated she wanted her Spanish students to shine.

> Spanish speakers need more help from me than the other ones (English speaking students).

> It's good to be bilingual, but these (Spanish-speaking) kids really need good education because that's their future.

She compared her student populations and it was evident that she defended Spanish-speaking students. Maestra Mara believed Spanish-speaking students suffered from academic, emotional, and socioeconomic disadvantages. In the following quote, she asserted that English-speaking students excelled not only in academic matters but also in their linguistic skills. In this example, Maestra Mara reflected on a teacher meeting where she defended Spanish-speaking students. In the meeting, teachers within the school evaluated Spanish and English-speaking students' grades. Maestra Mara complained that Spanish-speaking students needed more reading in order for them to excel academically.

> English speakers are shining and now they are bilingual. And my other babies (Spanish-speaking students) you know I said we need to step it up. People are like: more reading for the English-speaking children and {I'm like no more reading for my Spanish speakers!} I'm like look at the English speakers: they are shinning across the board. And where are my other babies? They have my heart. They are not here (at an excelling academic level) and that's why we need like to push them (Spanish-speaking students), but not push for the English speakers. It's for the Latinos we need to push it.

Maestra Mara believed English-speaking students did not need as much academic support as Spanish-speaking students did. She argued, "The other ones (English-speaking students) are doing it for an additive part in their lives. English speakers are shining and now they are bilingual." English-speaking students became bilingual as an extra component in their academic life whereas Spanish-speaking students needed to be bilingual to keep their cultural and linguistic roots and succeed in an English-speaking country.

Furthermore, she talked about some of the reasons why English-speaking students stood out academically, stating “The other ones (English-speaking students) usually go beyond. They have, you know, their great background knowledge, the great parent involvement who support their reading at home. Also English speakers have all this school language.”

Maestra Mara highlighted how Spanish-speaking students did not have as many advantages. Spanish-speaking students’ parents struggled in the context of the United States. Some had several jobs, lacked English skills, and had limited formal schooling knowledge. Maestra Mara was an advocate for Spanish-speaking students in her class and in the TWI school.

Chapter 4 presented the findings of the study. The findings were organized in terms of the main research question and the sub-questions of the study. The main research question examined how a bilingual teacher (Maestra Mara) elicited students’ extended use of Spanish (SEUS) during whole group instruction. The two sub-research questions focused first on describing strategic instructional patterns used by the teacher, and second on describing her beliefs and how these guided her teaching practices in a TWI first grade classroom. The CPD (Comprehensible Input/Problematization/Decentralization) framework was presented and supported with evidence from the literacy lessons. At the same time, specific instructional strategies were elaborated as complementary ways within the CPD framework. Finally, through evidence provided in the interviews, Maestra Mara’s beliefs and tensions were addressed to better comprehend her teaching practices in the TWI classroom.

Chapter 5 will summarize the conclusions of the study. It will also provide links with the research literature about TWI programs and teaching practices in the second language setting. Lastly, chapter 5 will talk about the implications of the study for teachers, teacher educators, and educational researchers in the field of English language teaching.

Table 4-1. Number of students and duration of SEUS episodes

Literacy lessons	SEUS episodes	Number of students who spoke	SEUS duration
Literacy Lesson #1	1	13	11:49
Literacy Lesson #2	2	8	04:15
Literacy Lesson #2	3	9	17:00
Literacy Lesson #2	4	10	04:10
Literacy Lesson #3	5	18	23:20
Literacy Lesson #3	6	12	09:36
Literacy Lesson #4	7	14	22:15

CHAPTER 5
DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Overview of the Study

TWI programs in the United States were developed to provide students who speak a language different from English the opportunity to learn English while maintaining their native language. TWI programs encounter many challenges in achieving this mission including integrating native and non-native speakers, establishing equilibrium between making content comprehensible to nonnative speakers, and ensuring content is stimulating and challenging enough for the native speakers (Freeman, 1998; Hayes, 2005; Howard et al., 2007; Howard & Loeb, 1998; Lindholm-Leary, 2001; Palmer, 2008a, 2009; Potowski, 2004; Valdés, 1997). The most significant challenge, however, is ensuring the use of strategies that foster language development and use, particularly in the minority language (de Jong & Howard, 2009; Potowski, 2004; Valdés, 1997). There is a need for more and better research about specific teaching practices in the context of linguistically diverse classroom settings and the relationship between teaching practices and language production. The present study adds to the literature about teaching practices in TWI programs.

The study, using an inductive approach, examined a bilingual teacher's (Maestra Mara) practices and beliefs that lead to student extended use of Spanish (SEUS) in a first grade classroom. The study employed qualitative methods of data collection. Four literacy lessons and two teacher interviews were the data sources. Data were analyzed through domain analysis that sought to provide in-depth descriptions of Maestra Mara's teaching practices. Findings indicated that Maestra Mara purposefully promoted genuine opportunities for students to use and develop language. Her teaching practices

were based on a Comprehensible Input/Problematization/Decentralization (CPD) framework which served as a pedagogical combination and as a solid platform to elicit and extend student language production. In addition to the framework, she put into practice specific instructional strategies to ensure student language use. Her language views complemented her teaching practices as she firmly believed in the importance of providing students with real opportunities to explore language.

The purpose of this chapter is to provide further discussion of the conclusions, link the conclusions to existing research literature, and present implications of the findings for teachers, teacher educators, and educational researchers. It begins with a discussion of the most prominent conclusions of the study and the relationship of the conclusions to related literature. Finally, implications for future practice and research on second language teaching are provided.

Summary of the Findings

The study documents the practice of a bilingual teacher who used three instructional structures to support language use. First, she provided students with a context to enhance language comprehension and the development of meaning. Second, she presented students with real-life problems so that there was purposeful communication. Finally, she decentralized her role for students to engage more and become autonomous problem-solvers and negotiators. Maestra Mara's instructional strategies elicited student language production in complementary ways and were situated within a holistic context. It was within the CPD framework that she employed her strategies including pretending not to know and wondering aloud, using synonyms, activating students' background knowledge, encouraging and expecting students to produce more language, implementing cooperative structures (specifically Think-Pair-

Share events), and demanding elaboration from the students. Pretending not to know and wondering aloud offered opportunities for authentic use of language. Synonym use and activation of students' background knowledge provide students with access to vocabulary. Think-Pair-Share events enabled students to interact one-on-one with a partner in order to talk about a topic, brainstorm ideas, make lists, or define a vocabulary term. Maestra Mara also pushed students to produce more language by using encouragement. She encouraged students to provide more and varied ideas, reinforced students' use of complete sentences and ideas, and expected students to participate more. She demanded, in subtle and explicit ways, that students use the language. She was constant and firm in what she considered to be necessary for students to produce Spanish. Her willingness and disposition to create the opportunities was also key in building the environment to elicit student language. As a native Spanish speaker, Maestra Mara was moved to provide these opportunities since she knew students needed genuine opportunities to use and develop their language skills.

The findings from this study are clearly linked to the implications of SCT and the pedagogical suggestions of CLT. In addition, the strategies used by Maestra Mara clearly are consistent with and provide illustrations of strategies suggested in the literature.

Discussion of the Findings

The study reinforces several suggestions about second language teaching and learning. First, this study supports SCT and CLT as frameworks which provide students with rich environments that foster social interaction and genuine language opportunities. Second, the study highlights the importance of the teacher role in TWI settings. Third, this study adds to research related to specific teaching practices to elicit student

language production. Finally, the study provides support that the teacher beliefs and expectations play a major role in the context of TWI programs.

Sociocultural Theory (SCT) and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

SCT as a learning theory and CLT as a second language approach highlight the importance of social interaction and environments that promote and encourage communication. SCT considers language learning to be acquired through social interaction situated in a social context where students' knowledge contributes to the creation of new knowledge. SCT acknowledges the interactive nature of learning since it is in interaction that learning takes places (Ellis, 1997, 2000, 2008; Vygotsky, 1978). SCT views language development as a dynamic process in which student participation and collaboration in the learning setting are essential. Within this theoretical perspective, the learner is an active agent engaged in situated meaning making where there is dynamic joint construction with others in the classroom (e.g., classmates, teacher, and others). SCT suggests that language is best learned when there is authentic language use, collaborative creation and negotiation of meaning, engaging classroom activities with exchanges of real communication, and real-life settings where students communicate in purposeful ways (Galloway, 1993; Richards, 2006; Richards & Rodgers, 1986).

CLT provides a set of pedagogical implications that is consistent with SCT. This communicative approach highlights the semantic content of language. Grammar is not prioritized; learners learn grammar through meaning. Language is seen as a social tool to make meaning and to communicate with a purpose rather than as a set of rules and grammar notions. CLT emphasizes student engagement in meaningful and authentic language use rather than merely mechanical practice of language patterns (Richards &

Rogers, 1986). Distinctive features of CLT include learner-centered teaching, interactive learning, cooperative learning, whole language education, content-centered education, and task-based learning (Brown, 1994; Richards & Rodgers, 1986; Savignon, 2002).

CLT highlights the real purpose of language: to communicate things that are real and meaningful. It approaches communication as being rooted in issues, challenges, or decisions that individuals face in the world and promotes communication that is saturated with meaning and significance. CLT views language "as a system for the expression of meaning; primary function-interaction and communication" (Brown, 1994, p. 70). CLT fosters environments that promote problem-solving and negotiation skills in the classroom setting by using real-life contexts which encourage students to communicate in purposeful ways. Williams (1995) suggests that the following features of language instruction are consistent with SCT: authentic language use, tasks that encourage negotiations, and emphasis on genuine communication with little explicit instruction on language rules.

Instructional features consistent with SCT and CLT were present in Maestra Mara's classroom. Maestra Mara's creation of spaces for students to use language freely implied a focus on meaning and content. She focused on learning specific language structures and form, but it was embedded in meaning and context. Her classroom practices resembled a group conversation more than a formal didactic context for the teaching of language. Language in her classroom was not simply a subject that needed to be taught. Language became a medium to the free expression of ideas. It was within this context that students used language in authentic ways including

communicating a thought, sharing a comment, offering an idea or a solution to a problem.

The findings from the current study reinforce earlier findings about the nature of CLT that supports extended language use from Hayes (2005) and DePalma (2010). Hayes' study (2005) study reported that students were reluctant to comply with the teacher expectations to speak Spanish when presented with fixed environments and scripted language structures. However, Hayes (2005) noted extended language use when students mediated a classroom conflict referring to this as a "language-productive negotiation" example since students genuinely engage in solving a real-life problem. Hayes argued that language is not an objective with specific requirements that must be met. Instead, language, especially in TWI programs, is "by nature an activity" (p. 110). De Palma (2010) subsequently conducted a larger study where she also examined teacher strategies that led to student language production. Similar conclusions were reached: real-life contexts in which conflicts are resolved and meaning is negotiated lead to extended language production Maestra Mara's tensions are real struggles in which she seeks to balance scripted language structures and unstructured language activities. Hayes (2005) notes that "language-productive negotiation" situations elicit authentic communication use whereas the provision of language frames delimits students to scripted language production. Teachers in the context of TWI programs need to see the importance of knowing when and how to provide students with language structured activities. Presenting students with conflicts and problems served as opportunities to expose students to genuine communication since they invite students to negotiate and produce language in authentic ways. As students participated

in authentic communication, Maestra Mara also insisted and assisted students in producing grammatically and semantically correct language. In this way, she embeds linguistic form within function.

CLT as pedagogy consistent with language learning theory (SCT) is critically important in TWI settings. In these settings, the ultimate goal is for students to become linguistically, culturally, and academically competent students. Reaching this goal requires the teacher to purposefully use CLT features to ensure student participation and language learning in all students.

The Teacher's Role

Some literature refers to teacher roles and how they can provide spaces for students to use the minority language in TWI classrooms (Palmer, 2008a, 2009). Several scholars concur that teachers can be initiators, moderators, and promoters of language use and development (Christian et al. 2000; García, 2004; Hall, 1995; Lessow-Hurley, 2009). Teachers can not only help but also harm student language production (Christian et al., 2000; García, 2004; Lessow- Hurley, 2009). Hall (1995) and Hall and Walsh (2002) concurred that teacher's role is to promote an interactive environment that fosters language production and builds a sense of classroom community. Maestra Mara's willingness to create learning environments for student collaboration and social interaction affected student language production in effective ways. Students identified with situations and problems posed by Maestra Mara and felt invited to speak and express their ideas. The findings demonstrated that by building a warm, positive classroom community and establishing rapport with the students, she created an inviting environment for language use. In this environment, she created a space where students' comments and ideas were embraced and even celebrated.

Language production was supported with praise and encouragement. The classroom environment communicated to students the value of providing ideas and offering solutions in a non-threatening environment.

Palmer (2008a) noted that teaching and discursive practices can not only stimulate but also dampen minority language use. Palmer (2008a, 2008b) asserted that teachers heavily influence students' discourse patterns since they provide (or don't provide) spaces for students to use language. In both her studies, the role played by the teacher (or the person in control at a specific time, including Spanish or English teacher, substitute teacher, or librarian) was instrumental in fostering environments for students to interact and contribute in meaningful ways in the classroom. The teachers in the study who purposefully supported language fostered language opportunities to support students in learning and using the minority language opportunities that were not artificial or mechanically created. Facilitative teachers made spaces for students to interact, problem-solve, negotiate, and use and develop language. Maestra Mara's creating of language spaces initiated authentic interaction and conversation. de Jong and Howard (2009) claim that too often students in the context of TWI programs are not provided with enough "challenging, rich language and literacy activities in the native language" (p. 93). They claim that providing students with extended opportunities to use the minority language results in students' mastery and building of the language. Others also concurred that providing students with significant opportunities for language production is an essential aspect of TWI programs (Crawford, 1991; Lindholm-Leary, 2001).

McKeon (1994) suggested that teachers need to foster a conversational tone in their classes and move away from monotonous, question-answer exchanges between

the teacher and the students. Creating interactive environments, however, is not enough. The role teachers play is also important. Maestra Mara's role went beyond the creation of the language production space. She also created a nurturing, responsive environment for students to produce more language. Maestra Mara consistently demanded more language production from the students. She created the language opportunities and promoted language production. The current study provides an important contrast to the findings of Delgado-Larocco's study (1998) which linked low-language production to practices in which teacher demanded little language production from the students. As a result, students' Spanish skills were diminished and English became the high status language in the school.

Findings from Södergård (2008) study about teacher strategies highlighted the importance of teacher responsiveness to students with regard to their contributions in the classroom and their language building. Maestra Mara's responsiveness to the students' use of language ensured more student language production. She showed genuine interest when students shared personal information or offer a comment or solution. She did not agree or disagree but invited students to share their comments, elaborate their suggestions, and justify their answers. She engaged in discussion by validating and extending students' opinions. Maestra Mara paid careful attention to what students were saying. She did not want students to simply say things or superficially answer questions; she expected students to think about what they were saying and elaborate their thoughts and ideas. She demonstrated that she valued students' contributions to the classroom. It is important to note that even when focusing on the meaning students were creating and how they were struggling to try to make sense of

their ideas and suggestions, Maestra Mara also focused on form and language accuracy but embedded in meaning.

Maestra Mara used her language to support high-order thinking. She encouraged elaboration by using high-order and follow-up questions to ensure students continue their thinking. Her question patterns were interactive in nature and evoked student collaboration and negotiation of meaning. However, she did not provide much of a formal evaluation of students' contributions. Her feedback was not judgmental; instead, her feedback consisted of polite requests for justifications, clarification, and elaboration from the students. As in the study conducted by Hall and Walsh (2002), question patterns that provided students with feedback rather than evaluation, resulted in students participating more and engaging in meaningful conversations with the teacher and among students.

Maestra Mara's role in her TWI first grade classroom implied being aware of the importance of providing students with opportunities to use language. She made sure a welcoming environment was created where students could feel motivated and praised for participating and providing their opinions. Her role in the classroom was that of a language promoter. Encouraging students to produce more language required specific instructional strategies.

Teaching Practices to Elicit Student Language Production

Maestra Mara was a resourceful teacher who used several strategic instructional practices to elicit and support extended conversation in Spanish. Maestra Mara's instructional patterns indicated a commitment to promoting students' problem-solving and negotiation skills where she encouraged students to offer solutions and interact with peers to create and negotiate meaning. To ensure student language production,

Maestra Mara used the CPD framework accompanied by specific teaching patterns, including pretending not to know and wondering aloud, using synonyms, activating students' background knowledge, encouraging and expecting students to produce more language, implementing Think-Pair-Share events, and encouraging elaboration.

The CPD framework was a structure through which Maestra Mara provided students with a context for language comprehension, presented students with problems that needed solving, and decentralized her teacher role to ensure student participation and language elaboration. She provided students with situational contexts to which students could relate. She also provided context and comprehensible input through the use of intonation and non-verbal communication. Additionally, students were presented with problems which opened up opportunities for students to help Maestra Mara either to solve a personal (e.g., forgetting a birthday) or a language-related (e.g., deciding on a character for a play) problem. The "I have a problem" phrase along with the non-verbal cues (e.g., leaning forward, showing a concerned face, staring at students, and sustaining eye contact) worked as effective initiators to elicit student language productions in Spanish. The three instructional structures of the CPD framework were complementary of one another. They worked as a platform for students to produce more language. The CPD framework created an invitational context for encouraging and drawing out language. Maestra Mara used the framework simultaneously and it worked together in a solid manner to elicit students' extended language production.

As one of the tenets of SCT and CLT, Maestra Mara gave more control to the students. She decentralized herself in the classroom so that students became central, active players in their learning, linguistic, and cognitive processes. Language was

elicited to foster development of thinking, problem-solving, and negotiation skills. Language became a vehicle for students to develop the ability to solve problems and propose solutions. Arce's (2000) study concluded that, when students are included they become active participants. Arce (2000) claims that these processes are a key piece in learning interactions since they engage students in providing solutions where students put linguistic and cognitive skills into practice.

The CPD framework provides a learner-center teaching approach. In Thomas and Collier's (1997a) study, a prominent finding highlighted that the most effective teaching practices in the setting of TWI programs were learner-centered. They indicated that instruction that was less teacher-centered was more likely to enhance linguistic and academic student gains. Shifting from a teacher-centered to a student-centered approach in the TWI context has been encouraged by others, who also emphasized the importance of teachers who promote language rather than have power over it (Antón, 1999; Crawford, 1991; Cummins, 1994, 2000; Howard & Christian, 2000, 2002; Howard et al., 2000, 2007; Souto-Manning, 2006; Vygotsky, 1978). It is in this context that teachers are not language authorities; instead they foster environments in which students become language authorities. The teacher role changes from the only language provider to a facilitator of genuine dialogue between the students who also know language and can contribute to the classroom in meaningful ways. It was the CPD framework which supported purposeful talk by requiring students to actively engage in ideas, opinions, and solutions.

Maestra Mara's questioning was also indicative of strategies that elicited student language production. She expected students to elaborate and provide rationale for their

suggestions and opinions. Her question patterns are consistent with patterns suggested in the literature. Nunan and Lamb (1996) and Toth (2011) argued that high-order questions and open-questions lead to more student second language discourse. Hall and Walsh (2002) noted that providing students with feedback (in the form of response affirmations, reformulations, comments, and request for justification, clarification, and elaboration) and valuing their contributions (not judging or evaluating them) resulted in students elaborating more on their utterances and participating more as ways to engage in meaningful communication.

Teacher Beliefs and Expectations

Maestra Mara's core beliefs included using specific strategies to elicit more language production from the students, promoting and implementing classroom spaces and opportunities for students to interact, emphasizing the need for students to use language and extend their language production, encouraging her Spanish-speaking students to speak more Spanish, and holding high expectations for all students. Maestra Mara believed in spaces for students to interact and use language and the use of specific strategies to elicit students' extended use of Spanish. She firmly believed in the importance of providing students with interactive spaces for students to explore the language, learn from one another, and feel free to communicate their thoughts in the classroom. She applied her beliefs to her teaching practices.

Banks et al. (2005) addressed the importance of teachers' attitudes and expectations as well as their dispositions with regard to the students they teach. Teachers' views and perceptions about students play an essential role in the teaching context. Dispositions, including valuing students' linguistic and cultural strengths, result in more student participation in the classroom. Villegas and Lucas (2007) state that

having high expectations for the students and approaching the students' education in responsive ways leads to engaging students in effective school learning. Maestra Mara valued Spanish-speaking students and their linguistic contributions to the classroom. She believed the Spanish-speaking students had unique strengths which worked as ways for Maestra Mara to convey high expectations for student performance. Martin-Beltrán (2010) suggested that teacher talk in this classroom conveyed high expectations. Teacher talk can invite or alienate students from classroom participation. If teachers' comments suggest a belief that student lack proficiency in the language, then students marginalize themselves and refuse to participate. Maestra Mara presents a model in which she communicated students were proficient and as a result, students were eager and more willing to participate. Her high expectations for students to produce more, extend their utterances, and share their thoughts elicited and reinforced language production. Her expectations indicated she knew students were capable of producing more language so she pushed them to produce more. Her expectations also suggested that she places language-minority students in an empowered position. She conveyed that Spanish-speaking students are language experts thus she put students in authority as contributors. She firmly believed students could contribute in meaningful ways. She emphasized the importance of holding high expectations for language minority students since they are in a position of knowing more and are capable of producing more language.

Maestra Mara believed in finding a balance between developing linguistic and cognitive skills in the students. She promoted language, problem-solving, and negotiation skills development. She provided students with spaces to develop language,

problem-solve, and collaborate together. As one of her beliefs, she highlighted the importance of Spanish speakers speaking more Spanish because there are fewer opportunities for them to develop their language outside of school. She believed bilingual teachers need to work on language minority linguistic skills because Spanish-speaking students lack many advantages that English-speaking students have. Maestra Mara speaks as a Latina who advocates for her Latino students but she emphasizes the fact that the Spanish-speaking student population's linguistic and cognitive needs should be more effectively addressed in TWI programs.

Implications

The current study suggests important implications for future practice and research in second language and teaching. Implications for teachers and teacher educators in TWI contexts are explored first, followed by implications for educational researchers.

Implications for Second Language Teachers

Second language instruction is complex in nature. Teachers teaching in TWI programs understand the challenges that these settings bring, especially when teaching students in the minority language. English is the dominant language which socioeconomically and linguistically has a higher status in society and thus, in school. The current study adds to the body of literature that addresses possible ways in which TWI teachers can empower language minority students to maximize their linguistic skills by providing opportunities for them to use, develop, and maintain their native language. This dissertation study focused on describing how a bilingual teacher fostered the use of Spanish and provided a classroom environment that elicited and supported students' extended conversations in Spanish. The study provided insights into the ways in which

TWI teachers, through their teaching practices, can promote opportunities for students to build and practice Spanish in the classroom.

The findings of the study indicate that teachers, the classroom environment they create, the instructional strategies they use, and the expectations they have for the students are key features in promoting language opportunities in a second language setting. Teaching practices to increase students' extended use of Spanish that are gathered from this study include creating a sense of classroom community, building rapport with the students, using a pedagogical framework with CDP features, implementing specific instructional strategies, and holding strong language beliefs and high expectations for the students. The expectations teachers hold for their students require consideration. Maestra Mara believed students could produce more language. As a result, she constantly pushed students to use language to provide explanations, offer solutions, and negotiate meaning as a group. Second language teachers need to have high linguistic and cognitive expectations for their students. Particularly in the setting of TWI programs, teachers need to notice and internalize the potential bilingual students have since having high expectations leads to students' linguistic and academic growth. However, the mere demand for more language would not necessarily result in students producing more language; a context for language comprehension must be provided in which teachers use intonation and non-verbal communication to scaffold language. Teachers also need to foster a warm, respectful environment where students feel free to ask questions if something is unknown, make linguistic mistakes when expressing their ideas, and engage in conversation and discussion freely.

Teachers need to understand the impact the teacher role has in the classroom. Providing the opportunities does not mean that the teacher has to control the language activities or become an authoritarian model in the classroom. The teacher is crucial in putting specific strategies into practice to provide students with opportunities for social interaction to use and develop language. The following specific strategies are suggested from the study of Maestra Mara's instruction:

- Provide students with a context to make content and language comprehensible to the students (comprehensible input).
- Present students with real-life situation where there are opportunities to problem-solve or negotiate.
- Let the students play a more central role in the classroom.
- Provide students with real-life scenarios.
- Activate student background knowledge to establish connections with previously learned content.
- Pretend not to know and wonder aloud.
- Use synonyms.
- Use non-verbal communication (referring to classroom materials and posters, face and body gestures, pauses, sustained eye contact).
- Use scaffolding techniques to facilitate student language learning.
- Push students to produce more language.
- Encourage students to provide more and varied answers.
- Insist that students provide full sentences and ideas.
- Encourage all students to participate.
- Use cooperative structures such as Think-Pair-Share events.
- Use open-ended and follow-up questions.
- Provide students with feedback rather than an evaluative response.

It is important to note how Maestra Mara provided feedback to the students. She did not offer judgmental responses; instead, she accepted students' responses and either sought clarification or elaboration of answers. Teachers should pay close attention to student participation. Maestra Mara constantly invited student participation reinforcing the need for students to participate and engage in classroom conversation. She made it clear that she expected students to participate. Maestra Mara used a wondering tone which was key in getting students to offer solutions and express their ideas and comments. Posing a curiosity, presenting an uncertainty, and simply wondering aloud about something engaged students in meaningful communication where they needed to purposefully deal with issues. When wondering aloud, Maestra Mara used non-linguistic cues to provide a context for language comprehension and to emphasize her wondering about something. It is important for teachers to understand that wondering aloud worked as a strategy that invited students to produce language genuinely. Teachers need to understand that direct questioning might be counterproductive to language production since these types of questions and interactions might limit student language production.

Implications for Second Language Teacher Educators

Changes in teaching practices require shifts in teacher beliefs about learning and teaching. Students learn in many ways which have been proven to deviate from direct teacher instruction. It is fundamental for second language teacher educators to understand the principles of SCT and CLT and to emphasize their principles in the second language classroom. Teacher educators need to go beyond theories and place greater emphasis on practical issues. The teaching strategies Maestra Mara used to create an environment that promoted language should be highlighted for prospective

teachers. One suggestion for teacher educators is to have students read cases like the one described here so that students can see and engage in discussion with peers about teaching practices that elicit students' extended use of language.

Another suggestion is to provide students with pedagogical tools, keeping in mind that skilled use requires more that knowing the tools. Teacher educators need to make spaces for student teachers to use, critique, and reflect about the tools in real scenarios. Language educators could present students with teacher cases to be thoroughly analyzed in terms of teaching strategies used by TWI teachers. That way, the tools become true and acquire real meaning, as opposed to strategies student teachers read in books in their classes.

Of equal value, language teacher educators need to address the importance of building a classroom community where Spanish-speaking and English-speaking students learn from one another through the use of language and through opportunities for problem-solving and negotiation. Establishing rapport with the students is key to ensure a warm environment in the class. A suggestion for teacher educators relates to culturally-responsive pedagogy which addresses the needs of students coming from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds. Villegas and Lucas (2002, 2006) proposed six salient qualities for professional development of teachers and teacher educators, including understanding how learners construct knowledge, learning about students' lives, being socioculturally conscious, holding affirming views about diversity, using appropriate strategies, and advocating for all students. Culturally-responsive pedagogy speaks of teaching approaches in which students are given opportunities to engage in meaningful activities where students "learn to think critically, become creative

problem-solvers, and develop skills for working collaboratively" (Villegas & Lucas, p. 30). This pedagogy reinforces the fact that all students are capable learners regardless of their cultural or linguistic background and encourages teachers to hold affirming, high expectations for all students.

Implications for Educational Research

Maestra Mara presents two very intriguing aspects: her effective teaching practices to elicit language production and her set of beliefs in the context of TWI programs. A future study that will take into account both aspects and will provide additional insights to the current study suggests a critical discourse/Discourse analysis (Gee, 2011). Under such a study Maestra Mara will be examined through two lenses: details of speech (descriptive discourse) and details of context (critical Discourse). Gee (2011) differentiates between *Discourse* (with a capital "D") and *discourse* (with a little "d"). For him, discourse (with a little "d") refers to any instances of language-in-use or any stretches of spoken language; that is, language in its linguistic function (details of speech). *Discourse* (with a big "D") (details of context) is language "plus other stuff" (p.34). Discourses are "ways of combining and integrating language, actions, interactions, and ways of thinking, believing, valuing, and using various symbols, tools and objects to enact a particular sort of socially recognizable identity" (p. 201). Discourse analysis is the study of language-in-use (Clarke, 2005; Gee, 2011). Its primary focus is in "how language is used in certain contexts" (Rapley, 2009). The objective of discourse analysis is to understand what individuals do with language in specific situations.

As part of details of speech, Gee (2011) proposes the use of a tool named Significance which refers to a language building task which analyzes how teachers use

language to “actively build things in the world” (Gee, 2011, p. 202). According to him, significance, as a process within discourse analysis, refers to how language is used to enhance or lessen importance given to things in specific situations (e.g., teaching a first-grade TWI classroom) and to signal to others (e.g., students) how individuals view that importance. A study focused on Significance would describe what and how Maestra Mara, through her use of language, values and makes more or less significant. Initial questions to reflect on the teacher’s use of language include the following:

- What things are relevant and significant for the teacher when teaching?
- In what ways are they significant?
- How are they evident?
- How does she signal students about what is significant for her when teaching?

The Significance tool also looks at specific words and grammatical devices and how those are used to increase and decrease significance for certain things when teaching. Discourse analysis addresses the intonation patterns of a speaker. The intonational tool might be used to analyze Maestra Mara’s intonation patterns. A study of intonation including the transcriptions of the lessons and the adding of the videos might yield insightful perceptions since visual data from the videos provide meaningful, rich portrayals of use of symbols, tools, teacher gestures, interactions, and reactions that would work as complementary aspects of the teacher use of language. The intonation tool would look closely at linguistic features including function and content words (informationally and less informationally salient), stress, and intonation. Content words (usually informationally salient) refer to major parts of speech such as nouns, verbs, and adjectives, while function words (usually less informational salient) refer to determiners, pronouns, and prepositions, for example. Stress and intonation also help to indicate what is more or less salient for the speaker when using language. According to Gee

(2011), stress “is a psychological concept, not a physical one” (p. 131). Stress pays close attention to increased loudness, increased length, and changes in pitch (raising or lowering) of the teacher’s voice. Questions guiding the intonation tool include “What information did the teacher make salient in terms of where the intonational focus is placed?” and “What tone ideas and idea units did the teacher use to contribute to the meaning of the utterance?” A future study would examine what Maestra Mara does with language in a TWI Spanish first-grade classroom.

A critical discourse/Discourse analysis seeks to examine details of speech (through microanalysis of intonation patterns) and details of context (through macroanalysis of set of beliefs and actions). A future study would look at establishing a smooth “dance” with details of speech and context. In addition to describing discourse it would be valuable to dig deeper into the set of beliefs in regards to language teaching and learning in TWI settings (details of context). This future study of language might focus on Discourse/discourse to analyze language interactions, occurrences of language-in-use, any stretches of language used by the bilingual teacher when teaching (discourse) as well as language and other aspects (Discourse) including ways in which the teacher takes action, interacts, values, disposes, believes, relates, reflects, responds, and uses diverse artifacts in her classroom. Such study would illuminate the teacher’s actions, values, and interactions and how those are associated with the teacher language. Additionally, the study might look at how Discourse is used to build significance for the teacher when teaching.

More research is needed to understand teachers’ role in promoting the spaces for students to engage in meaningful Spanish conversations (Hayes, 2005). Howard et al.

(2003) have emphasized the current need for more research in the area of instructional strategies to learn more about effective teaching practices in TWI classrooms. More research is needed in TWI teaching practices and specific strategies that elicit the minority language production. Also, more research is required to understand how preservice teachers learn to use these instructional strategies and the challenges faced in learning them would be really important. Conducting more research in this area is mandatory to continue expanding on effective teaching practices in TWI programs. Particularly, knowing more about relevant teacher discourse and use of language can result in more effective teaching practices to better serve the diverse student population in TWI programs.

This study adds to the current knowledge base on teaching practices in TWI programs. It shows that a combination of instructional strategies within the context of a framework results in effective teaching practices to elicit student extended Spanish use. Further, it confirms the theoretical basis of SCT and CLT as solid tenets in the context of second language instruction. Finally, this study builds on knowledge to the growing body of literature about second language teaching and learning in TWI programs.

APPENDIX
TEACHER INTERVIEW GENERAL PROTOCOL

1. Tell me about your experiences teaching in general and in the TWI program specifically.

2. What do you see as the goals of the TWI program?

3. Native/non-native speaker integration is an important component of a TWI program. What are your thoughts about this component and its importance for meeting the goals of the TWI program?

4. In what ways do you consciously consider native-non-native speaker interaction in your lesson planning?

    a. In setting lesson objectives?

    b. When you use small groups, how do you decide on group composition?

    c. When you use small groups, how do you decide on the task students will be asked to complete?

    d. When you use small groups, how do you ensure individual and group accountability?

    e. What is your role during small group instruction?

5. How do you prepare your students to work in groups together? (socially, academically, and linguistically)

6. What patterns of interaction have you observed when grouping native and non-native speakers?

7. Do you think native-non-native speaker grouping is always the most optimal way of grouping in a two-way program? Explain.

8. What do you consider the most challenging in capitalizing on native and non-native speaker interaction?

9. What do you see as the greatest benefit of the presence of native and non-native speakers?

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Patricia López Estrada was born in Puntarenas, Costa Rica. She grew up in Esparza where she graduated from Liceo Diurno de Esparza in 1996. She earned two Bachelor of Arts degrees in English Teaching and English with emphasis in Translation from Universidad Latino Americana de Ciencia y Tecnología in 2000. In 2005, she obtained a Licentiate degree in Applied Linguistics with emphasis on English from Universidad Nacional de Costa Rica. She also earned a degree of Master of Arts on Second Language and Culture with Emphasis on English as a Foreign Language for Adult Learners from Universidad Nacional de Costa Rica in 2007.

During her studies at the university, she worked as an educational assistant for the Costa Rican Department of Education, where she assessed and trained teachers of rural areas in the country. She has taught English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and English with Special Purposes (ESP) for several years. From 2002 to 2007, she worked as an English professor in various universities including Universidad Católica de Costa Rica, Universidad de Costa Rica, Universidad Latina de Costa Rica, and Universidad Técnica de Costa Rica. In 2005-2006, she worked as the coordinator of English Extension Programs in the Board of Community Educational and Technical Assistance in Universidad Técnica Nacional where she conducted a curriculum reform for the Conversation English Programs and designed new curricula for the English programs. At Universidad Nacional, she conducted an ethnographic research study entitled “Humanistic approach: A different perspective in the EFL classroom” which was published in *Letras Linguistics Journal* of the Escuela de Literatura y Ciencias del Lenguage in 2007.

Patricia López Estrada began her Doctorate of Education degree at the University of Florida in 2007. There, she collaborated with an associate professor from the University of Florida in writing an article titled “The role of a teacher in promoting language use through think-pair-share interactions” which was published in the *Sunshine State TESOL Journal* in Spring 2011. She presented in South East Regional TESOL Conference in September 2010 and La Cosecha Dual Language Conference in November 2010.

Upon completion of her doctorate degree, she will take a position as a professor with Instituto Tecnológico de Costa Rica to teach English classes and conduct educational research. She now lives in San Carlos, Costa Rica.