TEXTURING WITH MULTIMODAL TEXTS ACROSS CONTENT AREAS: A TRANSLANGUAGING MULTILITERACIES APPROACH TO TEACHING AND LEARNING

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Texturing with Multimodal Texts across Content Areas: A Translanguaging Multiliteracies Approach to Teaching and Learning

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Dissertation

Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School of

The University of Texas at Austin

in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements

for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

The University of Texas at Austin

May 2017

Dedicatoria

Para mi querida hija, Analu.

My translanguaging little girl.

Eres mi luz, fuerza e inspiración.

Te amo.

Mamá y Papá, gracias por demostrarme el valor de la paciencia y la perserverancia.

Gracias por abrazarme y escucharme en los momentos difíciles. Los quiero mucho.

TEXTURING WITH MULTIMODAL TEXTS ACROSS CONTENT AREAS: A TRANSLANGUAGING MULTILITERACIES APPROACH TO TEACHING AND LEARNING

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The University of Texas at Austin, 2017

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Abstract: The purpose of this research is to show ways in which a bilingual teacher and emergent bilinguals interact and engage with multimodal texts in the science, social studies, and language arts curricula. Literacy events, literacy practices, and texturing with multimodal texts within and across content areas were framed under multiliteracies and translanguaging theory. The findings in this case study of a third-grade bilingual teacher and her class suggested how the supplementation of multimodal texts prompted authentic student engagement and flexible ways of teaching and learning in the bilingual classroom. The design, production, and distribution of new texts are key in promoting language development and gaining disciplinary knowledge. Together, the findings highlight a classroom that affords emergent bilinguals the use of dynamic linguistic and literacy practice content areas. In light of this, I propose a translanguaging multiliteracies pedagogical approach for teaching and learning.

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Chapter 1: Introduction and Theoretical Framework

Growing up, I received an additive bilingual education in English and Spanish (Bartlett & García, 2011). I was proud of growing up bilingual and bicultural and was certain that it gave me an economic "bilingual advantage" in the international labor market (Callahan & Gándara, 2014). Thus, 13 years ago I migrated to the United States for work and to pursue a master's degree, hopeful and optimistic about my education and attaining greater professional opportunities in the educational field. I first arrived in New Hampshire, where my then husband was studying a master's in business administration. After he graduated, we moved to New York City, where he started his career in business consulting. I held a student and work dependent visa, which did not give me status for working at the time. I began to look for work, but I was quickly confronted with the reality of being Mexican in the U.S. My skills, educational degree, experiential knowledge, and, most importantly, my language were devalued. So, I decided to begin a new journey. I enrolled in graduate school and pursued a master's degree in liberal studies with a focus in urban education at the Graduate Center at City University of New York. After my husband's company sponsored us to become permanent residents, I worked in New York City at a Jewish private middle and high school for a few years. We then moved to Austin, Texas, and I decided to pursue a Ph.D. degree in curriculum and instruction in the program area of bilingual/bicultural education. Language and bilingualism became central in the way I navigated graduate school and my personal life.

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As mentioned, I immigrated to the U.S. coming from a high socioeconomic status in Mexico and with a high level of education giving me many advantages over immigrants who arrived to the U.S. under very different circumstances. Even with these advantages, I felt the marginalization of the educational system. Callahan and Gándara (2014) speak to the complexity of language in American society: "Language, however, is not a simple, neutral economic commodity; in a racially stratified society like the US, language use is delicately interwoven with questions of class, status, culture, and identity" (pp. 8-9). This transfers to my own educational experiences in the U.S. Some of my professors held a deficit view of my language and literacy skills, not taking into account the way I transferred my Spanish narrative writing skills into my English academic writing. I had the opportunity to work as a teaching assistant and an assistant instructor in the graduate program area at the University of Texas teaching courses related to language and literacy development. Similar to my own experience as a graduate student, the undergraduate students I taught questioned my English skills, overlooking the fact that I was bilingual. These experiences (among other challenges) helped me understand the importance of accumulating sufficient cultural, linguistic, and social capital (Portes, 2000) to attain academic and professional success in academia. My struggle as an immigrant woman in the 21st century is not a new or unique story of American immigrants.

For these reasons, I am invested in the education of culturally and linguistically diverse young learners. Historically, in the United States there exists a deficit view of

bilingualism and bilingual education when it intersects with race, ethnicity, and class (Callahan & Gándara, 2014). Bilingualism is not viewed as a commodity or a resource in students coming from minority communities (Ruiz, 1984). Many bilingual education programs have a main emphasis on English development for immigrant students, erasing their home languages and cultures (Cervantes-Soon, 2014; Crawford, 1999; García & Kleifgen, 2010). This subtractive view continues to permeate the educational system, marginalizing recently arrived immigrants and children of immigrants in the classroom and undervaluing their vast linguistic and cultural resources (Hakuta, 2011; Paris, 2012). To ensure success for the growing number of Spanish (and other languages) speaking immigrants coming to the U.S., educators need to make use of the linguistic and cultural capital, as well as the experiential knowledge, that emergent bilinguals bring into the classroom, offering them opportunities to succeed academically and professionally in a subtractive school environment (Valenzuela, 2010).

Yet it is extremely difficult to change deficit ideologies toward emergent bilinguals. Speaking languages other than English is seen under a paradigm of language as a "problem" (Ruiz, 1984). The main language goal in most U.S. schools is for emergent bilinguals to "master" the English language, with little to no concern for whether they maintain or continue to develop their home language. English is considered one of the main tools for success in the academic setting as well as for social and economic advancement (Huntington, 2004; Pease-Alvarez & Hakuta, 1992; Schildkraut, 2003).

This is not to deny the importance of English for the academic and future success of emergent bilinguals. Yet, globalization trends and increasing diversity in our complex society call for more attention to bilingual and biliteracy practices. Engaging emergent bilinguals with bilingual and biliteracy practices supports the acquisition of academic content, skills, abilities, and cognitive flexibility (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; García, Flores, & Chu, 2011; Hakuta, 2011). The main goal of culturally sustaining pedagogical practices is to support continued development of culturally and linguistically diverse students' home languages and cultures (Paris, 2012). Bilingual/bicultural practices with culturally sustaining purposes help Latina/o students succeed academically by affirming their identity and cultural background, including their language. They support Latina/o students' bilingualism and biliteracy development. This study observed emergent bilinguals' biliteracy practices, promoting dynamic and flexible language practices for emergent bilinguals' authentic engagement in the classroom. In particular, I carried out a semester-long study in a third-grade dual-language classroom exploring ways in which emergent bilinguals engage and interact with multimodal texts for content-area learning.

Significance of the Study

Recent research in education points toward the benefits of children's bilingualism and biliteracy development for academic, social, emotional, and professional success. Children who are fluent and literate in two languages have greater cognitive flexibility, are more likely to stay in school, are more secure in the labor market, and develop and maintain better family relationships (Bialystok, 2011; Callahan & Gándara, 2014; Portes

& Hao, 2002; Portes & Rumbaut, 2006). Emergent bilinguals' biliteracy and bilingual development is fostered when teachers allow children to use dynamic linguistic practices (García & Kleifgen, 2010; Martínez, 2010), use multicultural literature (Fránquiz, 2012; Pérez & Torres-Guzmán, 2002), set up collaborative structures for student interaction (Gort, 2008; McGroarty, 1989), and involve parents and include community resources during instruction (González, Moll, & Amanti, 2005; Yosso, 2005). It is of great importance for school settings to offer opportunities where emergent bilinguals develop academic literacies using two or more languages simultaneously and where their identities and cultural practices are valued (Fránquiz, 2012).

One fundamental aspect of schools' (bi)literacy activities are the texts read and taken up inside the school curriculum (Apple, 1992; Bunch, 2013). Research evidences the importance of including literacies that sustain students' home language and cultures in the classroom (Ladson-Billings, 1995; Paris, 2012; Villegas & Lucas, 2002). Thus, researchers have focused on studying discussions surrounding the inclusion of multicultural children's literature in the curriculum for bilingual learners. These studies have shown how multicultural children's literature support emergent bilinguals' biliteracy development by including their linguistic and cultural resources (DeNicolo & Fránquiz, 2006; Fránquiz, 2012; Medina, 2010; Worthy, Durán, Hikida, Pruitt, & Peterson, 2013). For example, recent literature in the field outlines the benefits of exposing bilinguals to multicultural texts, including 1) giving voice and identity to bilingual students (Fránquiz, 2012; Medina, 2010), 2) providing opportunities for cross-

cultural understanding (Escamilla & Hopewell, 2010), 3) increasing students' cultural expertise (Worthy et al., 2013), and 4) scaffolding to obtain English literacy skills (Hornberger & Skilton-Sylvester, 2003; Moll, Saez, & Dworin, 2001).

Yet, there is limited research surrounding the use of multicultural texts in content-area instruction. For example, in their study of literacy learning in the secondary school content areas, Moje, Ciechanowski, Kramer, Ellis, Carrillo, and Collazo (2004) found that students rarely use home or community knowledge in science classroom learning activities. Studies show that when teachers include multicultural texts in the content-area classroom, students become active participants in gaining new knowledge and expand and deepen their knowledge about content areas (Fránquiz, Avila, & Ayala Lewis, 2013; Salinas, Naseem Rodríguez, & Ayala Lewis, 2015). In sum, past studies have focused on the inclusion and use of multicultural children's literature in English language arts in elementary classrooms, but few studies explore the inclusion of these texts in the content-area classroom.

The body of research above explores bilingual children's interactions with texts, although much of it appears to define texts relatively narrowly in terms of children's literature or written texts (New London Group, 1996). In addition to traditional linguistic forms of texts, the New London Group (1996) calls for visual, audio, gestural, and spatial elements for meaning-making processes. The interactions that individuals have with a variety of forms of texts play a major role in understanding and comprehension in the classroom.

In this study, I take a broader view of texts to consider emergent bilingual students' interaction with multimodal texts that mediate students' learning experiences in content areas (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2001b; New London Group, 1996). Texts may come in the form of abstract signs or representations and/or more concrete objects such as children's books, a poster, drawing, etc. Some examples of the texts that the teacher and students engaged and interacted with in this study are videos, images, realia (or everyday objects), anchor charts, comic strips, movie trailers, textbooks, notebooks, worksheets, maps, and picture books, among others. Here, I highlight a classroom that opens spaces for emergent bilinguals to use flexible linguistic practices when engaging with multimodal texts.

Overview of the Project/Research Questions

The New London Group (1996) calls for a broader view of literacy in an increasing culturally and linguistically diverse world. Recent research provides evidence that linguistic and cultural practices support emergent bilinguals' engagement and academic success in science and social studies (Avila, 2013; A. C. Barton & Tan, 2009; Buxton, 2006; Fránquiz & Salinas, 2013; Moje et al., 2004). It is clear that more research is needed to understand how students interact dynamically within and across different modalities (e.g., visual, audio, spatial, and/or behavioral) and the effect of their interactions on meaning-making processes (Zapata, 2013). A pending question in the literature is *How does emergent bilinguals' engagement with multimodal texts support learning and biliteracy development in distinct content areas?*

Using a case study approach, I will explore ways in which one bilingual teacher in a third-grade classroom merges (bi)literacy practices in language arts, science, and social studies content and skills by introducing multimodal texts that support and sustain the students' varied cultural and linguistic meaning-making processes. In particular, I will observe how emergent bilinguals and their teacher engage with multimodal texts, paying particular attention to the linguistic and cultural resources that becomes relevant in their learning experiences across the language arts and science/social studies curricula.

The guiding research questions for this study are as follows:

- How does a third-grade bilingual teacher interact with students around (multimodal) texts within and across a language arts and science/social studies curricula?

- How do emergent bilingual/biliterate students engage with (multimodal) texts within and across a language arts and science/social studies curricula?

- What linguistic and cultural practices become relevant as a teacher and students interact and engage with (multimodal) texts across content areas?

Terminology: A Few Notes

Following, I will describe some key terms I will be using throughout the remaining chapters. These will be short definitions to provide a clear understanding of how and why I use these terms. Additionally, some concepts will be described thoroughly in the theoretical framework or literature review.

I use several terms to describe the students in the study. Because this study took place in a two-way dual-language classroom, I follow García and Kleifgen's (2010) use

of emergent bilinguals to refer to all students in the dual-language classroom; all of the students are learning new language practices in order to become bilingual and biliterate. Yet, precisely because this term can be taken to refer to all the children in a dual-language classroom, the use of the term "emergent bilingual" has been challenged; because it can be taken to refer to all the children in a dual-language classroom; it does not allow us to isolate the speakers of languages other than English and who are learning English in school. It is fairly common in the bilingual Spanish/English classroom to identify the students as either Spanish or English dominant. I recognize these labels are imperfect. The label of Spanish-dominant student is similar to labels such as limited English proficient or English language learner that have considered individuals as being "limited" or only learners of English (Hornberger, 2003). However, the dual-language program and teacher recognizes students as such. Thus, I will identify students as Spanish or English dominant based on how the program identifies them to help me to more clearly distinguish those students who are learning English (but speak primarily Spanish at home) from those who are learning Spanish (but speak primarily English at home).

I use the term minoritized language to refer to the non-English (i.e., Spanish) language in use. The United States has been driven by national and supra-national language ideologies. These have been and are political in the sense that they include authority, power, and hierarchies of languages that privilege certain cultural groups in a society (Ek & Sanchez, June 2008; Razfar & Rumenapp, 2011). Historically, U.S. language ideologies functioned as systems of social control. The education system

promoted linguistic assimilation to the English language as a "crucial component of loyalty and what it means to be an 'American'" (Wiley & Wright, 2004, p. 145). Following the same nativist ideology, the English Only movement rose in the U.S. during the 1970s, promoting monolingualism and the use of English as an official language in the United States (Wiley & Wright, 2004). More than any explicit effort at reversing language shift, one of the main factors that influence the preservation of language is power. In his book about language policy, Spolsky (2004) explains the tension between the powers of languages in language management. Quoting Lambert, the author describes the power tension between languages as a "form of struggle between a weak David and a threatening Goliath" (Spolsky, 2004, p. 215). When I refer to the minoritized language, I want to emphasize that struggle. In other words, I want to highlight issues of inequity in society and in the classroom—that is, the connection between language and power.

This study highlights the importance of the maintenance and preservation of language. I will use native language to refer to the language that an individual first learned and/or knows best. This does not intend to describe the proficiency level of the individual's language. When using the term "home language," I signify the language the students hear most in their immediate community and/or home.

"Literacy events are activities where literacy has a role. Usually there is a written text, or texts central to the activity and they may be talk around the text" (D. Barton, Hamilton, & Ivanič, 2000, p. 8). A text is a mediating artifact that elicits ideas and engagement in the classroom. The text has a multiplicity of modes: written, visual,

spoken, and gestural, among others. Some examples are books, posters, audio, mass media, technology, etc. (refer to the multiliteracies approach for an extended definition of text and its use in this study). In this study, I first identified the literacy events or the classroom activities involving the interaction and interpretation of texts. Literacy events are constructed within the social and cultural knowledge created collaboratively by teacher and students. Street (2006) posits: "The ways in which people address reading and writing are themselves rooted in conceptions of knowledge, identity, being. It is also embedded in social practices…" (p. 2). Literacy events embedded in social practices or location are the classroom's literacy practices.

Finally, I refer to multicultural children's literature throughout the study. The ways we name children's literature point toward the function and use of it in the elementary classroom. As put forth by Cai (2003), "This debate over definition is not just bickering over terminology in the ivory tower of academia, but rather is concerned with fundamental sociopolitical issues. We should not underestimate the power of naming" (p. 269).

Historically, multicultural texts were introduced in the regular classroom as a result of the civil rights movement. Curricular reform in this era considered the inclusion of minoritized groups' history, in particular that of African American students and later extended to other minority groups such as Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans, Native Americans, and Asian Americans (Bishop, 1997; Botelho & Rudman, 2010). In the history of public schools around the civil rights movement, pressures coming from

educators for curricular materials attending to culturally diverse students' needs had a tremendous impact on the types of books publishing companies decided to print or promote through awards. Likewise, the introduction of books in elementary classrooms was held accountable through the introduction of multiculturalism as pedagogy.

From that historical point forward, the concept of multicultural books depended upon administrators' or teachers' perceptions of culture and multiculturalism (Botelho & Rudman, 2010). Following Nieto's multicultural education lens (as cited in Bishop, 1997), children's literature that should be used in the classroom is literature that not only includes the omitted stories of minority groups but also represents positively their experience. Scholars and researchers generally agree that to be a multicultural text, a text should represent the minoritized experience, show linguistic and cultural authenticity, and/or deal with issues of power and agency.

Some reviewed studies use the term "culturally relevant" texts instead of "multicultural" texts. Freeman and Freeman (2004) differentiate culturally relevant from multicultural texts in that culturally relevant books help children make connections to their own lived experiences. In other words, they are an authentic representation of the children's lives. They explain how in culturally relevant children's literature, readers: 1) experience characters that are similar to them and their families, 2) are familiar with the settings where the stories take place, and 3) find characters that are similar in age, gender, and language use and choice. Because of a) the varied representation of Latina/o culture in the community that accounts for the diversity within Latina/o cultures (Ghiso,

Campano, & Hall, 2012; Medina & Enciso, 2002) and b) the interpretative subjective term of authenticity (i.e., represented in notions of insider views, connection between the reader and the writer, multiplicity of stories, hidden stories, messiness of cultural experiences, accuracy, acceptance, language use, and/or cultural representation (Fox & Short, 2003)]), I will use the term multicultural children's literature in the study.

Finally, I use the term Latina/o for those individuals and students who are immigrants and children of immigrants from a Latin American background. I follow Flor Ada's (2003) reasoning for choosing this term: a) it is a word in Spanish empowering a minoritized language in the U.S., b) it follows the gender norms in the Spanish language, and c) it shows the inclusivity of people from culturally and linguistically diverse Latin American backgrounds mirroring the changing population in our country (pp. 35-36). Next, I will address the notions of language and literacy framing the case study.

Theoretical Frameworks

The main focus in this research is on emergent bilinguals' (bi)literacy development. Thus, I first describe the literacy frameworks grounding the study. I start with sociocultural theory to understand the influence of individuals' collaborative processes in meaning making. Under this ideological framework, I focus on multiliteracies theory and a multiliteracies pedagogical approach considering different modes in texts grounded in classrooms' literacy practices. I also consider multimodal theory to understand how individuals interact and engage with multimodal texts. Accordingly, I summarize the social construction of intertextuality in literacy practices.

Finally, I draw from dynamic bi(multi)lingual theory, where linguistic practices happen in interaction, focusing in particular on translanguaging theory.

Sociocultural literacy theory. Scholars have redefined the definition of literacy over the years. Earlier models focused on formal school-based literacy development, or the technicality of acquiring writing and reading skills in decontextualized settings. This autonomous model introduced literacy to individuals mainly for cognitive benefits and economic and social advancement (Botelho & Rudman, 2010; Braslavsky, 2003; Perry, 2012; Street, 2006). In contrast, the ideological model of literacy considers the social, cultural, and political environment of the individual (Gee, 2001; Perry, 2012; Street, 2006).

Accordingly, ideological models of literacy fall under a sociocultural framework of literacy, where literacy is defined as a set of practices located in the differential power structures of society (Street, 2006). A sociocultural biliteracy framework considers young emergent bilinguals' interaction with and interpretation of the world. Additionally, emergent bilinguals use cultural and linguistic experiential knowledge to construct meaning with others (e.g., parents, teachers, peers) (Bauer & Gort, 2012). A sociocultural perspective of biliteracy is also framed under a multilingual view honoring students' home languages and cultures. This frame also takes into account "sociolinguistic, sociohistorical, and sociocultural factors" toward the development of emergent bilinguals' bilingual and bicultural development (Bauer & Gort, 2012). Moll et al. (2001) explain: "Literacy is not only related to children's histories, but to the dynamics of the

social, cultural, and institutional contexts that help define its context" (Moll et al., 2001, p. 447). In sum, a sociocultural approach to biliteracy development acknowledges emergent bilinguals' identities and home language and culture as well as home or family literacies.

Hornberger (2003) defines biliteracy as "instances in which communication occurs in two (or more) languages in or around writing" (p. 45). She suggests ways in which bi/multilinguals gained biliteracy skills through a set of interrelated continuum points characterized by the contexts, media, content, and the individual's development. Hornberger and Link (2012) explain:

> Multilingual learners develop biliteracy along reciprocally intersecting first language-second language, receptive-productive, and oral-written language skills continua; through the medium of two or more languages and literacies ranging along continua of similar to dissimilar linguistic structures, convergent to divergent scripts, and simultaneous to successive exposure; in contexts scaled from micro to macro levels and characterized by varying mixes of monolingual-bilingual and oral-literate language practices; and expressing content encompassing majority to minority perspectives and experiences, literary to vernacular styles and genres, and decontextualized to contextualized language texts. (p. 265)

I consider Hornberger's continua in particular in relation to media, emergent bilinguals' vernacular linguistic and literacy resources. In this study, I move beyond

writing as a resource for meaning making and communication and take a multiliteracies approach to literacy.

New Literacy Studies (multiliteracies) theory and multiliteracies pedagogical approach. New Literacy Studies (NLS) also emerges from the ideological model of literacy, challenging the neutrality of the autonomous model and describing literacy as a social practice instead of the acquisition of a set of skills. Similar to the sociocultural framework, NLS suggest a connection between home and school literacy practices (Street, 2003). Successful pedagogies and curricula are based on culturally sustaining practices that reflect these connections. The multiliteracies approach derives from NLS in relation to theories of social practice (Perry, 2012). Moreover, a multiliteracies approach creates a new type of framework theorized by the New London Group, which includes not only language but also ever-changing "modes of meaning" in meaning-making processes (New London Group, 1996). "Multiliteracies creates a different kind of pedagogy, one in which language and other modes of meaning are dynamic representational resources, constantly being remade by their users as they work to achieve their cultural purposes" (New London Group, 1996). According to the New London Group (1996), individuals take on six design elements in meaning-making processes: Linguistic Meaning, Visual Meaning (images, page layouts, screen formats), Audio Meaning (music, sound effects), Gestural Meaning (body language), Spatial Meaning (the meaning of environmental spaces, architectural spaces), and Multimodal Meaning, which represents the interrelationship of all these modes (New London Group,

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1996, p. 80). A multimodal approach to literacies affords new opportunities of authoring

texts through multiple modalities (e.g., visual, audio, spatial, and/or behavioral) for

meaning-making processes (Vasudevan, Schultz, & Bateman, 2010). Accordingly, a

multiliteracies pedagogical approach (Rowsell, Kosnik, & Beck, 2008) creates a

classroom where:

- A variety of texts are used (New London Group, 1996). Specifically, multiple

  modes are used as channels of representations for meaning making (see

  multimodal theory below for the definition of mode) (Kress & Van Leeuwen,

  2001b).

- Alternative forms of literacies support instead of replace traditional literacies.

  Multiple modes are used in collaboration with each other. Traditional literacies

  are those considered written or oral, in other words linguistic forms of literacies.

  Alternative refers to all the other modes of texts alternate to the linguistic texts the

  New London Group described above (visual, audio, gestural, spatial, etc.)

- Literacy is functional. In other words, literacy is seen as a practice, as something

  that we do.

- Minority and marginalized communities are recognized. Literacies are seen as a

  form of inclusion. In this case, literacies help the maintenance of the home

  language or are culturally sustaining and at the same time recognizing the power

  they have.

- A community of learners is created. Collaborative structures are included when engaging with texts in the classroom.

- Literacy is situated. Literacy practices are contextualized socially, culturally, and politically.

In Barton and Hamilton's (2000) words, "the study of literacy is partly a study of texts and how they are produced and used" (p. 9). This study contemplates the community's (in this case Ms. Braun's classroom) meaning-making processes around texts, thus in the next section I define text.

What counts as text? In Fairclough's words, texts "represent aspects of the world,…enact social relations between participants in social events and the attitudes, desires, and values of participants; and coherently and cohesively connect part of texts together, and connect texts with situational contexts" (Fairclough, 1999, pp. 86-87). Thus, the surrounding sociopolitical and historical context as well as students' cultural and linguistic background are key in negotiating what counts as texts in a particular community. As tattoos may be considered a form of text in certain groups (e.g., indigenous, soldiers, prisoners, etc.), they may take on different meanings or no meaning across the groups. So, for example, media may or may not be considered an important form of text in the literacy practices in Ms. Braun's classroom for meaning-making purposes in the content areas.

Text and what counts as text will depend on how this community in particular designs the meaning of any mode of literacy present in the classroom. Therefore, through

ethnographic methods, I explore the different multiliteracies that take on meaning in Ms. Braun's classroom by carefully observing the literacy practices in the language arts and science/social studies curricula and identifying the texts (e.g., book, poster, audio, mass media, technology, etc.) that travel across the content areas while the students acquire knowledge in different disciplines.

Echoing translanguaging and multiliteracies perspectives and for the purposes of this project, I will define a text broadly to be any mediating object that becomes relevant to content and language learning in this classroom. Texts may include (but are not limited to): books, posters, student-produced work, oral presentations, videos, visuals, and web pages. Finally, texts in Ms. Braun's classroom may (but do not always) contain written language. Furthermore, I consider the work of Bloome and Egan-Robertson (1993) describing ways in which:

- A text is not determined a-priori. An individual has to interact and engage with the text.

- A text is not determined outside a situation. It is contextualized.

- All texts are connected to each other. Individuals interact with each other and construct through intertextual relationships. Thus, individuals draw from past texts, experiences, or objects to make meaning and comprehend their surroundings. In other words, how individuals juxtapose texts and use earlier texts helps them understand what is happening now, and they will use these same texts for meaning making in the future.

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- A text is socially constructed.

Finally, multimodal theory expands my view of modes of texts being "strictly bounded." Instead, I consider how the principles of discourse, design, production, and distribution move within and across modes of texts—the a) discourse, being the knowledge or content; b) design, the point between content and the expression of the content; c) production, the material or articulation of the content; and d) distribution, the expression of the content traveling further from the text (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2001b).

In multimodal theory, a mode of text is the channel of representation for meaning-making purposes. The media is the material or the product used in the mode or for meaning-making processes (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2001b). For example, the mode of a text could be represented in the written form, and the media, in one case, could be the notebook where the discourse or knowledge is written. Thus, a discourse (or text) is represented in a mode and media. Also, individuals make sense of a text in a mode that could be represented through a particular media. Thus, a media could be a text, too. What is explained above illustrates how texts are fluid and dynamic in multimodal theory. In the next section, I will describe how the juxtaposition of texts is socially constructed.

The social construction of intertextuality. In this study, I focus on how texts are incorporated into literacy events by looking into how texts are represented (modes of texts), their functional action, the identification of texts (type of text), and how texts juxtapose within and across content areas (intertextual connections). I use intertextuality theory, or the "juxtaposition of texts," to show how students relate texts during literacy

events and practices in the content areas. I follow a social construction view of intertextuality, in which text connections have to be proposed by the participants, responded to and acknowledged through discourse in interaction, and finally have social significance for the classroom community (Bloome & Egan-Robertson, 1993). In other words, I explore how participants practice "texturing" through mediation, where meaning-making processes move "from one social practice to another, from one event to another, from one text to another" (Fairclough, 1999, p. 89). From this perspective, intertextual connections, or the juxtaposition of texts, in Ms. Braun's classroom happen in different spaces and points of time through literacy events and content areas.

Dynamic bilingualism. Under a dynamic and fluid language paradigm, language practices are created in interaction and produced by the actors in the social group (Erickson, 2004; García & Wei, 2013; Pennycook, 2010). Additionally, language is situated culturally and linguistically and is shaped by historical and institutional forces (Gutiérrez & Rogoff, 2003; Heath & Street, 2008). Thus, language and culture are intrinsically connected. Language is a cultural tool "for doing the work of speaking and of understanding what others are saying" (Erickson, 2004, p. 14). In Wolcott's (1999) words: "Culture and languages are ways of doing things, not something one can join" (Wolcott, 1999, "Great Expectations or Mission Impossible").

When studying language and literacy using ethnographic methods, it is imperative to discuss the relationship between language and culture (Heath & Street, 2008). "Ethnography is rooted in culture" (LeCompte & Schensul, 2010) as are individuals'

language and literacy development. Here, I draw from scholars that view "language as doing" (Pennycook, 2010), which frame language as a set of social and cultural practices. Following, I will extend on these notions of dynamism in language.

Language as a noun versus language as verb. Under the ideological model (Street, 2006), literacy and language are intrinsically linked. Gee (2001) posits that literacies (in written and oral form) are social languages that are contextually situated in cultural and social practices. Accordingly, literacy is described as forms of language use (Gee, 2001; Perry, 2012). Researchers of young learners' biliteracy development draw from a bilingual perspective to frame their studies (Bauer & Gort, 2012; Escamilla & Hopewell, 2010; Fránquiz, 2012; Hornberger, 2003; Moll et al., 2001). Therefore, it is important to address the ways that scholars approach language and bilingualism.

Over the past five decades, language studies have been moving away from the established modern linguist De Saussure's vision of formal structural systems for studying language as a set of common everyday language practices (Bucholtz & Hall, 2008; García & Wei, 2013; Gumperz & Cook- Gumperz, 2008; Pennycook, 2010). In lay terms, linguistic research evolved from a perspective of observing language as a noun through its grammatical functions to an understanding of language as a verb or action (Schatzki, 2001; Swain, 2009). García and Wei (2013) explore the shifts that the meaning of language has undertaken. In their review, they explain how Bakhtin challenged the Saussurian systemic vision mentioned earlier: "Bakhtin posited that language is inextricably bound to the context in which it exists and is incapable of neutrality because

it emerges from the actions of speakers with certain perspectives and ideological positioning" (García & Wei, 2013, "Reflecting on Language"). From this perspective, language draws meaning through cultural context. It is socially and culturally situated and locally produced in interaction (Erickson, 2004; Pennycook, 2010). Notions of "language as local" help scholars understand how social and cultural context becomes an essential part of language practices. Pennycook (2010) ponders, "once we…consider language to be a local practice, and therefore a central organizing activity of social life…the notion of language as a system is challenged in favour of a view of language as doing" (p. 10). As he explains, departing from a systemic view of languages allows for language to become an activity where researchers are capable of explaining and understanding how individuals draw from linguistic resources in different social contexts.

Another important factor to consider in dynamic bilingualism is the varied linguistic resources that individuals have, which Gumperz (1972) names linguistic repertoires. Gumperz and Cook- Gumperz (2008) define repertoires "as systems of functionally differentiated, partially overlapping speech varieties, such as social and geographical dialects, registers and styles, and trade and professional languages, each with its own grammatical characteristics" (p. 541). This idea of linguistic repertoires considers "units" or grammatical systems as subdivisions of a larger structural system. Palmer and Martínez (2013) note that Gutiérrez and Rogoff (2003) draw from Gumperz's notion of linguistic repertoires but introduce "repertoires of practice." In contrast to linguistic repertoires, repertoires of practice maintain the focus on the dynamic nature of

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language. Additionally, repertoires of practice go beyond language practices to take into account an individual's cultural background and experiences. Individuals choose from among their full repertoires to determine which communicative practices are appropriate in a given context (Gutiérrez & Rogoff, 2003). Accordingly, linguistic practices are related to an individual's biliteracy development.

Scholars, researchers, and educational experts studying classroom (bi)literacy practices illustrate an active view of bilingualism when studying how emergent bilinguals access linguistic resources from diverse social contexts, such as their home (González et al., 2005; Orellana & Reynolds, 2008), extracurricular activities (Ek, 2008; Yaden & Tsai, 2012), or the merging of both (Fránquiz, 2012). For example, Fránquiz (2012) shows how young emergent bilinguals in a rural community in a southern border town access their home language through a study unit of quilting during school time. Students were immersed in literature relevant to quilting as part of the historical Mexican American experience. They built quilt squares strategically using code switching and borrowing of Spanish words in their written productions. Most important, when studying and building the quilt, the students reflected about their community, their culture, and their home language. A particularity of this study is how teachers created a bridge between the official English-only curriculum and the community's language practices.

I mentioned earlier that some linguists have focused on the locality of language practices through individuals' interaction. Language is deliberately seen as a human practice. Erickson (2004) also asserts that macro institutional forces could enable or

constrain how individuals interact with language. A tension exists between larger social forces and local talk, with each in a sense shaping the other. However, this does not determine or hinder individuals' agency in shaping their own linguistic practices. A clear example is shown in Franquiz's study above. It illustrates ways that linguistically diverse students and teachers use language dynamically in response to an English-only curriculum by creating community history through the production of quilts.

Dynamic language practices are not only locally construed and contextually situated but are also shaped by socio and historical forces. Power relation issues are present and need to be addressed when bilingualism is seen as dynamic and flexible. The complexity of hybrid language practices manifests when individuals are able to shift between languages without privileging one or the other language and use languages "strategically and systematically" (Gutiérrez, Baquedano- López, & Tejeda, 1999).

Translanguaging. A growing body of scholarship is exploring the use of the term "translanguaging" to refer to dynamic language practices in classroom settings (Canagarajah, 2011; Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Gort & Sembiante, 2015; Hornberger & Link, 2012; Palmer & Martínez, 2013; Wei, 2011). Canagarajah (2011) uses translanguaging for the "general communicative competence of multilinguals" and "code meshing" for translanguaging in written texts. Creese and Blackledge (2010) describe translanguaging as the way multilinguals make sense of their world through discursive practices. Hornberger and Link (2012) frame multilingual practices through the sociolinguistics of globalization, where languages are mobile and not fixed. Wei (2011)

refers to dynamic language practices use at a "translanguaging space." In a translanguaging space, humans create multilingual social spaces through interaction. All these definitions share a focus on the individual's creative and critical use of socio-cultural resources for communicating and using language. In recent years, García's notion of translanguaging has gained momentum in the field of bilingual education.

García (2010) builds on the work of Cen Williams (1994), who coined the word "translanguaging" to describe pedagogical practices in more than one language happening in bilingual classrooms (García, 2011a; García & Kleifgen, 2010). García defines translanguaging as "the process by which students and teachers engage in complex discursive practices in order to 'make sense' of, and communicate in, multilingual classrooms. Translanguaging focuses on the complex languaging practices of bilinguals in actual communicative settings" (García & Kleifgen, 2010, p. 45). This term extends other notions of practicing language or languaging (Swain, 2009), the ongoing process of making meaning of our world by communicating, in interaction (García & Wei, 2013). For García and Wei (2013), translanguaging goes beyond an additive view of bilingualism, and interdependence or synthesis of language, or hybridity of languages. Rather, translanguaging is a new language practice or complex exchanges between individuals with different histories and backgrounds that are not constrained by fixed language systems defined by nation-states.

A novel metaphor García uses to differentiate translanguaging from code switching is in the relationship with the language switch when one is texting on a mobile

phone. At present, one has to select a conventional language and can only use one set of spell-checks and alphabets at a time while texting. This switch between languages (which García would relate to "code switching") limits the original, complex interrelated language practices when texting. It does not allow for bilingual individuals to use their entire linguistic repertoire, instead requiring them to choose only one code at a time. It also constrains the use of other linguistic modes such as visuals (i.e., emoticons and photographs) (García & Wei, 2013). Translanguaging would imply that in creating a text message, we could draw on all our language tools at once as needed and spontaneously, without the added effort of switching keyboards.

Summarizing, translanguaging is the "speaker's construction and use of original and complex interrelated discursive practices that cannot be easily assigned to one or another traditional definition of a language" (García & Wei, 2013, "Translanguaging and Code-switching"). Translanguaging focuses on an integrated system of languages (Canagarajah, 2011) but does not view language as an abstract system within the individual (García & Wei, 2013). Finally, translanguaging builds a space for resistance against the scripting powers of language.

A special issue of the International Multilingual Research Journal (2015) focuses on ways that Latina/o emergent bilinguals "enact translanguaging practices and pedagogies to expand language and literacy boundaries, to create multiple opportunities for language and literacy learning, and to perform identities using all available linguistic signs and resources" (Gort, 2015). This issue is composed of different studies exploring

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1) the possibilities and limitations of translanguaging in educational bilingual programs, 2) teachers' support of dynamic language practices (affordance of flexible language practices) in restricted dual-language programs with language boundaries, 3) ways that teachers and student teachers make sense of dynamic language practices, 4) ways in which teachers articulate and embody translanguaging in classrooms, and 5) forms of human capital that support complex and dynamic language practices in and out of school. A common theme among these articles is the way in which programs and individuals' language ideologies restrict translanguaging as a bilingual perspective in classroom settings. Yet, collectively the articles demonstrate the possibilities when teachers, teacher educators, researchers, and the community can support Latina/o flexible and dynamic language practices in classroom settings supporting culturally and linguistic sustaining pedagogies (Paris, 2012) and taking a social justice framework.

I have examined theoretical perspectives on bilingualism and biliteracy to begin to understand the language/power differential across content areas. Teacher and student bilingual perspectives and the way they enact or practice bilingualism is relevant for showing what kinds of texts are chosen and how the participants interact with these texts in different disciplines. Studies that begin with a bilingual perspective and explore translanguaging show more interest in students' maintenance of language and navigation of "in-between" spaces. I plan with this project to extend these studies by exploring how teacher and student language practices influence how they interact with texts across content areas.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

In this chapter, I situate my dissertation in previous research by reviewing the relevant literature in four different areas: 1) culturally relevant, responsive, and sustaining practices for emergent bilinguals' biliteracy development; 2) emergent bilinguals' engagement with multicultural texts for bilingual and biliteracy development in language arts; 3) the role of multicultural texts in the content areas; and 4) the affordances of multiliteracies pedagogy in the K–12 classroom. Thus, in this chapter, I synthesize past findings of empirical studies showing the preservation and maintenance of language and culture through the use of texts. Second, I explore the research on how emergent bilinguals have engaged with linguistic or traditional forms of multicultural texts and the benefits of these for biliteracy development. Third, I study the use of multicultural texts in the content areas. Finally, I examine the affordances multiliteracies pedagogy brings to students' learning. Taken together, these four areas informed the goals and design of this study. I follow with a discussion of the relationship of the empirical research reviewed with the present investigation.

Culturally Relevant, Responsive, and Sustaining Practices for Emergent Bilinguals' Biliteracy Development

Researchers who take a sociocultural approach when observing emergent bilinguals' biliteracy development value home language, family literacies, linguistic and cultural knowledge, and collaborative work—all common practices of culturally relevant, responsive, and/or sustaining pedagogies. When students engage in reading and/or

writing, they draw from their home language to develop English and academic literacy skills (Moll et al., 2001; Soltero-González & Reyes, 2012; Yaden & Tsai, 2012). For example, in Soltero-González and Reyes's (2012) study of literacy practices and language use among emergent bilingual preschool children, Spanish was used for meaning-making purposes and to explore sound–symbol relationships. In particular, children used Spanish to describe the setting, characters, actions, and events when creating a story and when exploring the sound–letter relationships of their names.

Other culturally sustaining practices involve home or family literacies as an important resource for emergent bilinguals' biliteracy development (Reyes & Azuara, 2008; Yaden & Tsai, 2012). Reyes and Azuara (2008) explore the relationship between a biliterate home environment and children's emergent biliteracy in preschool. In their study, they show how emergent bilinguals' families have a wide variety of communicative practices that involve two languages. They also found that parents support the maintenance of the home language for distinct and varied reasons. Overall, the authors show biliteracy practices at home that are "situated and transformed" through social interactions and are relevant to students' emergent biliteracy development in school. Culturally responsive pedagogy allows for situated and meaningful contexts in response to emergent bilingual students' biliteracy development. Similarly, Mercado's (2003) case study of three middle school Latino students' biliteracy development shows the value of literacy practices on the minority, vernacular, contextualized end of Hornberger's continua of biliteracy (see Chapter 1 for details on Hornberger's biliteracy

continua). Students were able to draw from local knowledge of social issues to redefine their social identities. When they attended an educational conference to present their written production, this allowed entry into a social network that valued bilingualism and biculturalism, giving them a sense of belonging and attending to their identity development. Some studies use multimodal forms of literacy for culturally sustaining purposes (Taylor, Bernhard, Garg, & Cummins, 2008; Vasudevan et al., 2010). For example, Vasudevan et al. (2010) use alternative digital modes in composing, allowing the use of home literacies. Through multimodal storytelling, students are able to connect to their home, community, and school and gain visibility in the classroom.

As mentioned earlier when framing this study, culturally relevant and responsive pedagogy allows for the dynamism and fluidity of knowledge, including the transfer of linguistic and cultural knowledge (Ladson-Billings, 1995). In their study of a recently arrived young Egyptian immigrant, Camlibel and Garcia (2012) discover the benefits of cross-linguistic transferring for academic development and building confidence in gaining literacy skills. Similarly, Sparrow, Butvilofsky, and Escamilla (2012) examined the cross-language transfer of writing behaviors. They found ways in which students use knowledge of the home language to learn English literacy skills. In another study, Gort (2012) observed the writing and revising processes of emergent bilinguals. In these processes, students' bidirectional cross-linguistic interactions (e.g., translation methods, linguistic/literacy scaffolding, and negotiations between two languages) helped them

think critically about their peers' and their own written productions, proving to be a critical resource for students' academic writing development.

Culturally relevant and responsive pedagogies also support a collaborative approach in learning environments (Gort, 2008, 2012; Moll et al., 2001). In Gort's (2008) earlier study, peer collaboration allows for guidance and support in the writing/editing process. Students also serve as cultural and language brokers.

Culturally sustaining pedagogy (Paris, 2012) includes the conception of a third space. Gutiérrez, Baquedano-López, and Tejada (1999) conceptualize this third space as a place where "competing discourses and positionings transform conflict and difference into rich zones of collaboration and learning" (p. 286). As these researchers found, the tensions between the hybridity of language practices and diversity (race, ethnic, socioeconomic, and classroom resources) created new teaching and learning spaces in a first-grade classroom. The students were able to navigate between official and unofficial spaces, for instance between a formal academic register of Spanish and vernacular forms of Spanish. Teachers also create a "third space" (Gutiérrez, Baquedano- López, & Tejeda, 1999) when an "opportunity of working in an in-between space between the official English only curriculum and unofficial biliterate curriculum" (Fránquiz, 2012, p. 147) exists. For example, in Franquiz (2012), students incorporated linguistic (e.g., code switching and Spanglish) and cultural background in a literary product they built themselves—a quilt. Medina (2010) also shows ways that students navigate a "third space." Students make sense of their identities through the multiple locations they

navigate. Through the discussion of literature, emergent bilinguals reflect on their transnational lived experiences to project and build new transnational identities. Given this actuality in the dual-language classroom, where this study takes place, a third space is characterized with the creation of hybrid practices in which the students and teacher collaborate with competing linguistic and cultural resources to create teachable moments with multimodal forms of texts.

The studies above are examples of ways that culturally relevant, responsive, and/or sustaining pedagogies are practiced in preschool through middle school bilingual classrooms in relation to biliteracy development. The authors show how emergent bilinguals benefit academically by making connections between their home language, culture, and school. They explicitly highlight the importance of including family literacies in the classroom for developing students' (bi)literacy skills. Yet, intertextual connections within and across content areas and ways in which individuals draw from language and culture in these connections still remain unexplored. There is little research as of yet that explores the use of culturally sustaining pedagogies across content areas in the bilingual/bicultural classroom—a possible creation of a "third space" through the collaboration of teacher and students (Paris, 2012) in different content areas.

Emergent Bilinguals' Engagement with Multicultural Children's Literature in Language Arts

In a multiliteracies framework, "all meaning making is multimodal…[and] texts are designed using the range of historically available choices among different modes of

meaning" (New London Group, 1996, p. 81). Children's literature is an important type of text that allows for the inclusion or exclusion of students' linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Researchers have extensively studied children's interaction with literature, thus although my definition of "text" goes beyond the traditional children's picture book, it is essential to outline work that describes the ways that children interact with and interpret multicultural children's books and how it brings emergent bilinguals' home language and culture into the classroom.

In elementary classrooms, multicultural literature acknowledges the importance of representing cultures other than the "mainstream" group in texts (Clark, Flores, Smith, & Gonzalez, 2016; DeNicolo & Fránquiz, 2006; Fránquiz et al., 2013; Ghiso, Campano, & Hall, 2012; Medina, 2001; Medina & Enciso, 2002; Palmer, Martínez, Mateus, & Henderson, 2014). In respect to globalization trends calling for individuals to interact and adapt to diverse cultures, multicultural literature can help make connections with, understand, and appreciate individual selves and others (Dudley-Marling, 2003). A critical approach to multicultural texts includes discussing issues of power. Some studies exemplify this notion of traveling beyond the multiple representations of cultures and undertaking a social justice orientation when interacting with multicultural books used in the classroom. For instance, in their study of fourth-graders' literature discussion groups, DeNicolo and Fránquiz (2006) use multicultural literature for students to engage critically with events in the story that caused uncertainty or disruption of their common experiences. The authors suggest that these texts open up opportunities for individuals to

discuss and find ways to create positive social change. In a study by Palmer et al. (2014), two dual-language teachers draw from bilingual-language practices for innovative pedagogy. The teachers in this study expose students to multicultural literature and acknowledge and honor students' hybrid discourse when responding and making connections to the story. In this way, the teacher values home language and models the inclusion of diversity in the classroom. In addition, children's literature in the bilingual elementary classroom should honor plurality and positively represent differing cultural experiences (Pérez & Torres-Guzmán, 2002). It also should problematize the presence of dominant group views that has a tendency to "other" diversity in cultures (Bishop, 1997). Studying student engagement with multicultural texts in the classroom is an opportunity to understand ways that Latina/o students draw from their linguistic and cultural background to make meaning of the world that surrounds them (Medina, 2010; Norton, Smith, Kander, & Short, 2005). Teachers in bilingual settings should encourage students to draw on their total linguistic and cultural repertoires and help students through identity negotiation at multiple levels when interacting with multicultural texts (Torres-Guzmán, 2011).

The literature outlines the benefits of exposing emergent bilinguals to multicultural texts (Escamilla & Hopewell, 2010; Fránquiz, 2012; Moll et al., 2001; Reyes & Azuara, 2008; Worthy et al., 2013). Multicultural texts are important cultural artifacts serving as tools for emergent bilinguals' bilingualism and (bi)literacy development. For example, culturally relevant texts used in the classroom 1) support the

development of academic content, 2) assist scaffolding to obtain English literacy skills, and 3) increase students' cultural expertise and 4) provide opportunities for the development of cross-cultural understanding (Fránquiz, 2012; Moll et al., 2001; Reyes & Azuara, 2008; Soltero-González, Escamilla, & Hopewell, 2012). Culturally relevant children's literature has also been proven to give voice and identity to emergent bilinguals and helped students make connections between home and school (Fránquiz, 2012; Hornberger & Skilton-Sylvester, 2003; Medina, 2010; Norton et al., 2005). As shown, when culturally relevant texts are used for culturally sustaining purposes, they create important venues for emergent bilinguals' bilingual and biliteracy development.

Emergent Bilinguals' Engagement with Texts in the Content Areas

Disciplinary literacies are skills, cognitive strategies, habits of the mind, and language and literacy practices specific to the different academic disciplines (Fang & Coatoam, 2013). Scholars have studied the advantages of learning disciplinary literacies for content-area teaching in middle and secondary instructional settings (Fang, 2012, 2014; Moje, 2007; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008). According to Fang and Coatoam (2013), few studies have been conducted on the effectiveness of disciplinary literacies, but they hold promise for students' positive learning outcomes.

Disciplinary literacies and texts in content areas. As noted by Shanahan and Shanahan (2008), there exist highly specialized skills and literacy practices unique to content-area teaching and learning. In their study on effective practices for teaching adolescent literacy, the researchers identified disciplinary literacies particular to three

different subject areas: chemistry, history, and mathematics. These disciplinary literacies go beyond the traditional reading skills in the language arts classroom. Shanahan and Shanahan (2008) make the case for secondary teachers to be aware of and understand the value of teaching and learning specific disciplinary literacies for the different content areas. Similar to this line of work, Fang (2014) calls for literacy teachers to collaborate with content-area teachers and restructure literacy courses for content-area teachers, with the main emphasis of these courses being on a deep understanding of what discipline literacy comprises in each of the content areas. One of Fang's (2014) main arguments, and in alignment to this study, is that we need "broadening conceptions of text and literacy." An earlier article by the same author states, "To truly demonstrate disciplinary literacy, students need to be given tasks and experiences that provide opportunities for them to read, write, think, reason, and inquire with substantive content presented through texts of multiple genres, modalities, registers, and sources" (Fang & Coatoam, 2013, p. 230). Fang then describes the different texts and literacies that students engage and create in the different content areas. For example, in history, students interact with written linguistic primary resources as well as photographs, maps, oral recordings, and architecture, among others. In music, students generally are involved in the design and production of texts such as compositions and interact with instruments, programs, theoretical texts, and others. Overall, he puts forward the central role of language and literacy disciplinary practices particular to the content areas and their reconceptualization.

Disciplinary literacies and texts for emergent bilinguals in content areas.

Studies approaching the development of disciplinary literacies for emergent bilinguals are also very limited (Bunch, Walqui, & Pearson, 2014; Flores & Schissel, 2014; Maldonado, 2013). Bunch et al. (2014) highlight the complexity of expository texts in the content areas as part of English learners' disciplinary literacy development in the content areas. They argue for how the interactional processes with the text—such as the relationship between the text and the reader, the task, the language, pedagogical strategies, and the context—are important features to consider in regard to what makes the complexity of the text. In fact, Flores and Schissel (2014) make the case for translanguaging practices when approaching the complexity of texts in academic disciplines as a positive pedagogical strategy in classroom practices driven by rigid standard-based assessments.

In the discipline of history, Park (2016) found that open discussion of historical graphic novels supports English learners' development of historical literacy. Graphic novels are an important genre to consider, since they supplement written language with visual elements and pose a possible interpretation of a historical account. In this same line of work, Schleppegrell and de Oliveira (2006) report the challenges that English language learners (ELLs) encounter when developing historical disciplinary literacies. In their project, they prepare teachers of ELLs by introducing systemic functional linguistics to the study of historical texts. Through this approach, teachers and students understand language as part of historical disciplinary knowledge. They report better student engagement for ELLs. Equally important is the work of Ciechanowski (2014) in the

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development of science disciplinary literacies for ELLs. Similar to Park (2016), Ciechanowski observes the language function in science texts as a skill necessary for disciplinary literacy development.

As shown above, there is a great deal of literature that examines language arts and content area instruction for emergent bilingual learners in U.S. classrooms (Bunch, 2013; Chamot, 2009; Echevarrìa, Vogt, & Short, 2017; Genesee, Lindholm-Leary, & Saunders, 2006; Lucas, Villegas, & Freedson-Gonzalez, 2008; Schleppegrell & de Oliveira, 2006; Walqui, 2006). However, nearly all of it addresses emergent bilinguals' English literacies development, paying little attention to their native languages, and even fewer studies draw on a culturally responsive/funds of knowledge framework.

Disciplinary literacies and culturally relevant practices. Some researchers attend to the advantages of incorporating funds of knowledge or language and cultural practices for the development of language and literacy practices specific for academic disciplines (A. C. Barton & Tan, 2009; Buxton, 2006; Fránquiz & Salinas, 2011, 2013; Moje et al., 2004; Varelas et al., 2008). In the following, I will review influential works that focus on language and culture as pedagogical strategies for developing disciplinary literacies in the content areas specifically for emergent bilinguals (see the role language plays when engaging with academic texts for ELLs in history and science above).

Earlier research in mathematics instruction considers the inclusion of ELLs' linguistic and cultural background as important aspects for students' mathematical understandings (Secada & De La Cruz, 1996). More recent studies have explored the

ways that children use their linguistic and cultural knowledge in mathematics instruction. For instance, Domínguez (2011) set out to answer the following question: *How are bilingualism and everyday experiences cognitive resources for learning mathematics?* His results explore ways in which emergent bilinguals' linguistic resources (exploratory talk in Spanish) and their experiential knowledge were cognitive resources for gaining mathematical knowledge. Similar to this work, in my study I focus on emergent bilinguals' linguistic and experiential knowledge when engaging with texts, but within and between the language arts, science, and social studies disciplines.

In science, Barton and Tan's (2009) study observed which funds of knowledge sixth-grade students brought into the science classroom and how cultural knowledge supported deeper engagement in the class. Through design-based research, Barton and Tan studied ways in which a sixth-grade teacher's pedagogical practices incorporated funds of knowledge in the science classroom. They wanted to explore how the inclusion of funds of knowledge transformed their learning community. By designing lessons around the theme of food and nutrition, they first discovered how funds of knowledge were defined by family life, the shared responsibility of childcare, and material capital brought from home. Funds of knowledge were also characterized by habits and priorities in their community, including the role of fast food. Peer funds of knowledge materialized through "studenting" or scaffolding strategies between peers and solidarity in discussions and assignments as well as students' talents or interests in relation to their learning. Popular culture funds of knowledge were key in student learning in science. Second, the

authors discuss how the introduction of funds of knowledge and discourses created new kinds of student participation in class, taking a scientific stance, and understanding the role of audience and purpose in their assignments. The researchers stress the importance of creating hybrid spaces through merging the academic with individuals' funds of knowledge. In these spaces, teachers are capable of becoming facilitators for learning. One of the limitations of the study was the tendency to "do school" traditionally. A. C. Barton and Tan (2009) state, "We need to continue to explore factors that help mitigate the creation of hybrid spaces in science class with other science topics that are not as explicitly universal as food and nutrition was" (p. 71). My study finds ways of creating hybrid spaces not only within but also across disciplines. There exists a great potential in identifying these biliteracy practices in the language arts, science, and social studies classrooms.

Research by Varelas et al. (2008) also pointed to the importance of instructional practices that promote the participation and argumentation of young learners in science. They explore how second- and third-grade students theorize in science through the concept of matter. The teacher contextualizes the lesson by introducing everyday objects and experiences and through children's literature. Through design study and ethnographic methods, they uncovered how everyday objects became semiotic tools for students' engagement with science and, most importantly, they introduce new ways of negotiating meaning through interaction. Students challenged each other's ideas and mediated

interactions with each other. The study emphasized the importance of introducing students' community experiences, but it failed to address their linguistic background.

In spite of the benefits of developing disciplinary literacies and engaging students by drawing on their cultural and linguistic resources in academic areas, researchers rarely address students' engagement with multicultural texts and their biliteracy development in content areas of study. I am studying the connection between the language arts and science/social studies curricula, thus I turn to discuss the few empirical studies that examine and include the use of cultural and linguistic resources for emergent bilinguals in science and social studies when engaging with multicultural texts.

Disciplinary literacies and multicultural texts. Moje et al. (2004) emphasize the challenge of incorporating texts that draw on out-of-school knowledge where power discourses dominate the field. The authors argue for the relationship that exists between "content learning and content literacy learning." They explain that literacy practices are immersed in discourse, and for students to gain content area literacy, they need to create a new discourse identity. Moreover, they instill the need for teachers to understand how funds of knowledge inform literary practices in content areas. For this reason, they draw data from a larger ethnographic school-based study to examine the funds of knowledge and discourses that shape adolescent students' reading, writing, and talking about texts in the secondary science classroom. Moje et al. (2004) found that discourses are shaped by a) parents' work environment, b) home-based knowledge, and c) transnational movements but that these are not necessarily connected to the science curriculum. The

role of peers in informal and formal interactions also played an important role in negotiating content-area texts. Moreover, community action-oriented approaches in relation to environmental and health concerns opened up possibilities for students to incorporate science content and literacy learning by using community knowledge to challenge scientific findings in the science curriculum. Finally, the authors reported that Latina/o students drew on popular culture in different text modes (music, magazine, television, movies, and news) for making sense of content-area knowledge. They conclude by highlighting how students lack the initiative to incorporate these funds into their content area learning. The main challenge for educators, curriculum developers, and teachers is to identify and bring this community knowledge into their pedagogical practices. In this study, I documented ways in which community knowledge may be transferred from the language arts classroom to the science classroom through multimodal texts.

In the field of social studies, researchers Fránquiz and Salinas have made significant contributions to the study of the integration of literacies into the social studies curriculum (Fránquiz & Salinas, 2011, 2013). In their case study on the integration of language and content by a high school social studies teacher, they identify key strategies for newcomer students' academic literacy development: the use of primary documents, the use of internet technologies, and building students' vocabulary. However, due to the emphasis on studying potential topics for standardized testing, students' language target for written responses was in English, and the students produced only short answers. The

authors point toward the use of students' native or home language for the production of longer responses.

Some studies discussed above point to disciplinary literacy development in content areas at the middle or high school level (e.g. A. C. Barton & Tan, 2009; Fang, 2012; Fránquiz & Salinas, 2013; Moje et al., 2004; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008) as opposed to traditional classrooms (e.g. A. C. Barton & Tan, 2009; Moje et al., 2004; Park, 2016; Varelas et al., 2008). The research evidences the importance of developing disciplinary literacies for positive learning outcomes in the content areas, and the challenges of ELLs in gaining these highly skilled literacies. Research also points to the importance of including linguistic and cultural background and a variety of literacy modes for student engagement and success in developing disciplinary literacies. In fact, Avila (2013) and Fránquiz et al. (2013) state that students are able to learn science content while developing biliteracies at the same time. The two last studies show the importance of the role of multicultural and multimodal texts when engaging in disciplinary literacy practices. This study aims to extend the body of knowledge above by identifying engagement with multimodal texts, in the same way as Moje (2007) and Fang (2012) propose, in a bilingual third-grade classroom during the instruction of language arts, science, and social studies and observe the potential or opportunities multimodal texts may have for emergent bilinguals' biliteracy development.

It is clear that more research is needed to understand how students interact dynamically with different modes of texts and the effect on emergent bilinguals'

meaning-making processes. Additionally, The New London Group (New London Group, 1996) calls for a broader view of literacy in an increasing culturally and linguistically diverse world. In this study, I explore beyond multicultural texts, drawing from a wider range of texts that the students and teacher engage within and across disciplines. The question that remains after reviewing the studies above is: *How does emergent bilinguals' engagement with multimodal texts that have culturally sustaining purposes support learning and biliteracy development in distinct content areas?*

The Affordances of Multiliteracies Pedagogy in the K–12 Classroom

Earlier, I introduced the term multiliteracies (see Chapter 1), drawing from the New London Group (1996) as a framework for studying emergent bilinguals' biliteracy development. In accord with this framework, I also describe Rowsell et al.'s (2008) multiliteracies pedagogy considering the multiplicity of texts, functional literacy practices, contextualized settings, and culturally sustaining practices. Following, I will introduce empirical research and discuss the opportunities this framework brings into the classroom for students' learning experiences, focusing on the advantages for culturally and linguistically diverse students.

In his review of multiliteracies and multimodality in literacy education, Jewitt (2008) posits the following:

> The transformative agenda of multiple literacies sets out to redesign the social futures of young people across boundaries of difference. With this explicit agenda for social change, the pedagogic aim of multiliteracies is to attend to the

multiple and multimodal texts and wide range of literacy practices that students

are engaged with. It therefore questions the traditional monologic relationship

between teacher and student, setting out to make the classroom walls more porous

and to take the students' experiences, interests, and existing technological and

discourse resources as a starting point. (p. 245)

In the quote above, Jewitt describes the importance of including in the classroom

multimodal texts similar to those that students engage outside the classroom. In other

words, she encourages educators to include students' experiential knowledge, skills, and

discourses and the multimodal texts they use in everyday life and in their communities.

That said, I specifically review research centering on multiliteracies pedagogy as those

classroom practices that introduce a range of modes into their pedagogical classrooms. In

particular, I review studies that show the affordances multimodal texts bring to students'

learning and literacy development.

An important body of work has been conducted in educational systems outside the

United States where there exists official recognition of multiliteracies theory as a

pedagogical approach in their curricula (Jewitt, 2008). Recent empirical studies in

Canada and Australia implement multiliteracies pedagogy following Cope and Kalantzis

(2000) components for teaching and learning with multiliteracies (Angay-Crowder, Choi,

& Yi, 2013; Giampapa, 2010; Hepple, Sockhill, Tan, & Alford, 2014; Mills, 2006;

Ntelioglou, 2011; Taylor, 2008). These components include, first, situated practice.

Situated practice is based on the learners' experiences and is embedded in a community

of practice. Second, overt instruction is where students learn and use the metalanguage of the discourses of practice. Third, critical practice encompasses a connection to the sociohistorical context. Fourth and last, transformed practice is how the learners' are able to recreate meaning making across contents.

Of particular importance from these components is that the pedagogic work in multiliteracies is realized within diverse cultural and linguistic contexts. For example, at a mainstream high school classroom in Australia, Hepple et al. (2014) show how a multiliteracies pedagogy is enacted when emergent bilinguals design and produce "claymations," or use clay figures to narrate a story. Through descriptive literary sketches, the researchers show the possibilities for collaboration between the students and students' English language development opportunities. Some of the opportunities and possibilities this pedagogy offered were vocabulary development, use of prior knowledge, the development of reading strategies, pair work, the expression and voicing of ideas in different modes, the opportunity for discussion and critical thinking, an awareness of dialogue structure, attending to pronunciation, and developing reading and speaking skills. They concluded that multiliteracies pedagogy promoted learner agency, collaboration, and use of multiple modes of literacies in the mainstream classroom, giving access to and empowering students who are culturally and linguistically diverse.

Along the same line of work, Giampapa (2010) explores how a fourth-grade teacher in Canada creates learning opportunities for culturally and linguistically diverse students to access the English mainstream curriculum through an ethnographic case

study. Central to her findings is how the teacher brought in her and the students' identities thorough multimodal literacies in the form of "identity texts." Through this project, the teacher affirmed students' linguistic and cultural backgrounds and promoted the use of funds of knowledge in the English classroom.

Ntelioglou (2011) explored the use of drama in a high school English as a second language classroom in Canada. The study suggests that, through the performance, students were able to learn the elements of the story and improve their writing. Other drama experiences with identity texts brought students' cultural and language knowledge into this same classroom.

Additionally, significant research focuses on the role of technology or digital literacies in the implementation of multiliteracies pedagogy (Angay-Crowder et al., 2013; Burke & Hardware, 2015). At a community summer program in Canada, Angay-Crowder et al. (2013) found that digital storytelling could be a significant factor in middle school second language learners' learning processes. Students drew from their cultural and linguistic repertoires to design their own digital stories. They concluded that through this approach students expanded ways of meaning making or literacy repertoires. Students also had the opportunity to work in collaboration and to portray their stories as important and powerful in the community. In a related study, Burke and Hardware (2015) examined the role played by multiliteracies pedagogy in an eighth-grade classroom in particular to the relation of English learners and their lived experiences. In digital photostory projects, students responded to their cultural understandings of a novel. The use of digital

photostories gave English learners access to a novel in the dominant language and with dominant themes and supported them to become active learners by engaging and interacting with multimodal texts.

In the context of the U.S., fewer studies were found in relation to the implementation of multiliteracies pedagogy with a particular focus on culturally and linguistically diverse students' learning experiences (Macy, 2016; Skerrett, 2015; Vinogradova, 2011). Skerrett (2015) draws from multiliteracies pedagogy for her approach to literacy teaching and learning of transnational students. Her articles and book (Skerrett, 2012, 2015) propose a framework for teaching transnational students; however, she focused on multiliteracies as theory and did not much focus upon literacy practices built from the framework that will be explored here.

Similar to the studies above, the few researchers in the U.S. who have studied multiliteracies pedagogy did so in the form of drama representations and digital literacies (Macy, 2016; Vinogradova, 2011). Only Vinogradova (2011) focuses on the affordances multiliteracies pedagogy brings to culturally and linguistically diverse students in an English as a second language setting. She suggests similar findings to those of the Canadian and Australian studies above, including the introduction of collaborative processes and recognition of diverse linguistic and cultural resources. The body of research above appears, as of yet, not to have explored multiliteracies pedagogy in bilingual and elementary settings and with a culturally sustaining approach for the maintenance of the home language in diverse populations. All of the studies reviewed

observe the enactment of multiliteracies pedagogy in language arts classes or in community-based out-of-school programs. This study centers multiliteracies pedagogy in the content areas in a bilingual classroom space. Jewitt (2008) posits:

> A multimodal approach to shapes of knowledge helps to highlight the particular affordances and resistances of learning resources. This brings to the fore the questions of what curriculum resources can be designed to do (and not do) and what teachers and students actually do with multimodal texts in the classroom. (p. 262)

This research project considers the affordances of multiliteracies pedagogy for emergent bilinguals by defining multimodal texts; describing how teachers and students interact with them across language arts, science, and social studies; and analyzing the opportunities these texts bring to emergent bilinguals' bilingual and biliteracy development.

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

This chapter provides an overview of the methodology for the case study I carried out to understand emergent bilinguals' engagement with texts across and within content areas. I first describe the context for this research, including a description of the bilingual program in the school and the participants. Second, I narrate my positionality as a researcher. Third, I discuss the methodology chosen and the methods I used. Finally, I include some of the limitations of the case.

Context of Research

This classroom study occurred in Ms. Larissa Braun's (all names are pseudonyms) third-grade class at Sunny Hillcrest Elementary. I met Ms. Braun during the spring of 2012 in a university setting. At the time, Ms. Braun was enrolled in a specialized master's degree program. This program specialized in curriculum and instruction: bilingual/bicultural education for teachers who have had five or more years of experience as bilingual educators in local area schools. The purpose was for them to serve as leaders and mentor teachers in their schools, providing professional development to their peers after finishing the program. I contacted Ms. Braun two years after she graduated to conduct a possible pilot study during the 2014–2015 school year.

By "casing the joint" during the 2014–2015 school year, I was able to collect information that helped me make informed decisions about the appropriate design for this study (Dyson & Genishi, 2005). I decided to address the research questions through a case study design mainly due to my initial interest in studying this unique space

(Mertens, 2010; Stake, 1995). Ms. Braun's 15 years' teaching experience, combined with major learning opportunities offered by her participation in the master's program, presented a promising research site for the proposed study. During the school year, I observed the class, I gathered information by exploring the site and studying its participants, which also helped me decide the particular questions suited for the proposed study (Dyson & Genishi, 2005; Wolcott, 1999). Most importantly, I was able to situate the participants and site by understanding their space, schedule, and individual characteristics. Below, I provide a "thick description" (Geertz, 1973), or a rich, detailed description—about the setting and participants of the study (Emerson, Fretz, & Shaw, 1995).

Although it is situated within the borders of a large metropolis in Texas, Sunny Hillcrest has its own City Council and police force. Historically, Sunny Hillcrest City began as a residential area in the 1950s. It was incorporated in the mid-50s, establishing a mayor/council form of government. During the 1970s, the city built and opened a new elementary school, Sunny Hillcrest Elementary. The school had fewer than 250 students servicing all of the southwest area from a central city in Texas. As the city grew and the neighborhood became populated, the student population at the elementary school increased beyond its capacity.

At the end of the 1970s, the state Supreme Court ruled that the Coronado Independent School District (CISD), which was the large urban school district for the larger metro-region of which Sunny Hillcrest was a part, intentionally segregated schools

and mandated desegregation to promote integration in the schools. Historically a suburban and predominantly White school, Sunny Hillcrest Elementary began plans to exchange children (through busing) with a nearby mostly all African American school. This became a reality at the beginning of the 1980s. Teachers from Sunny Hillcrest were also transferred between schools. Busing continued throughout the 1980s.

As the larger city expanded, Sunny Hillcrest City continued to grow. Suburban White families continued to move further south, and a major shift in student population occurred: the school began serving mainly Latina/o students. Currently, Sunny Hillcrest Elementary is still overcrowded with students as it has been throughout the years. The school received "exemplary" status (the highest rating) in the state accountability system in 2010.

Approximately 500 students are enrolled in grades Pre-K to 5. Students attending Sunny Hillcrest Elementary are predominantly Latina/o (71.6%) and economically disadvantaged (68.3%); the other students include 8% African American, 24.3% White, and the rest American Indian, Asian, or other races. Forty-five percent of the student population is classified as ELLs; most are dominant speakers of Spanish. With these demographics, the school provides an ideal space for studying Latinas/os' (bi)literacy development.

Intriguingly, the school's demographics are not a reflection of the population of the surrounding neighborhood area as it had been in its origins. While exploring the area, I noticed new housing developments. On streets nearby, I also observed small and large

shopping centers. The neighborhood holds a mixture of wealthy gated communities surrounded by low-income housing areas. According to Ms. Braun, most Latinas/os live mainly on two streets of the neighborhood, while most White students enrolled in her classroom are driven in from different surrounding neighborhoods—few live in the area. Sunny Hillcrest Elementary is one of the schools in the district accepting transfers from students outside the school's attendance zones as part of a district-wide dual-language program initiative.

About dual-language programs. According to the Texas Education Code (TEC §29.051–29.064), when a school district has an enrollment of 20 or more ELLs, it should provide a bilingual education program in the elementary grades in the form of one of the following models: transitional bilingual/early exit, transitional bilingual/late exit, dual-language immersion/two-way, or dual-language immersion/one-way (TEA, 2007–2015). In 2010, CISD began implementing dual-language programs (Gomez, Freeman, & Freeman, 2005) at elementary schools across the district; Sunny Hillcrest Elementary offers a dual-language immersion/two-way program up to fifth grade.

Dual-language programs provide instruction in both Spanish and English, with an enrichment/additive perspective toward bilingualism and biliteracy. The "two-way" program integrates English-dominant students and Spanish-dominant students to study content area knowledge. Ms. Braun reports another dual-language classroom and a mainstream English classroom at her grade level. Students who opt out of dual-language programs attend the mainstream classroom. Still, dual-language programs are increasing

in number, mainly due to grassroots efforts from elite classes tending their interest for their children's bilingual development (Palmer, 2010; Palmer, Zuñiga, & Henderson, 2015). Sunny Hillcrest Elementary is one of these successful schools. Their dual-language program attracts middle-class parents from neighborhoods around the city. Students in dual-language programs learn language alongside academic subjects. Sunny Hillcrest Elementary's dual-language classrooms are departmentalized; Ms. Braun teaches language arts and science/social studies in Spanish to two groups of linguistically diverse/integrated third-grade students, while her team partner teaches language arts and mathematics in English to the same two groups.

Generally, Spanish used by Latina/o students in U.S. classrooms has been undervalued (Martínez, Hikida, & Durán, 2014; McCollum, 1999). As de la Luz Reyes (2011) points out, when any type of bilingual program lacks full support, it conveys the following message to Latina/o students: "Your native language and culture are not only irrelevant, but a detriment to academic success" (p. 4)—thus, creating a negative social construction of literacy development in the minority language at bilingual schools. This power differential between languages truncates the possibility of students fully developing high academic levels of bilingualism/biliteracy (Callahan & Gándara, 2014).

In contrast to this ideology, I found during my initial observations in the study's pilot phase that Ms. Braun offers a space where Spanish is valued, as evidenced by her language use, the books and posters that fill her classroom, and how the students discuss language characteristics. For example, they talked about the different nuances in the

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Spanish language according to where the Spanish is spoken (Spanish from different countries), among others. For this reason, this classroom proved to be an interesting site to look into ways in which all students are involved in gaining academic skills in Spanish. Similarly, the organization of the content-area classes leads to opportunities to look at meaning-making processes as students negotiate texts across subject areas.

Participants. When selecting a case to study, it is important to choose a site that helps maximize the phenomena we want to study, to look at its particularities in depth, and to observe the multiple and complex ways in which individuals engage in meaning-making processes (Stake, 1995). Ms. Braun and I had worked together successfully in the past when she was a master's student at Central University. Our mutual interest in multicultural children's books led us to put together a conference presentation for the Texas Association for Bilingual Education annual teacher conference. Our presentation consisted of honoring students' life experiences through writing. In addition to being a graduate of the bilingual/bicultural education master's degree program that focused on centering and affirming students' cultural/linguistic heritage, Ms. Braun attends a biliteracy professional development program offered by the district (Beeman & Urow, 2013). Literacy events lead to the collaborative construction of "shared practices" that help students develop a sense of identity and belonging in Ms. Braun's classroom (Dyson & Genishi, 2005). Key in qualitative research and also my major aim is to "uncover and interpret" the meanings behind these shared practices (Merriam, 2014).

Ms. Braun was born and raised in Connecticut. Her mother is a native of Saltillo, Mexico, where she spent every summer as a child. Her abuela (grandmother), a very religious Catholic woman, nurtured her Spanish language development. Ms. Braun considers Spanish to be her first language. She struggled in reading in English when she was younger, but through this challenge she found her main motivation to improve over the years. Larissa lived in Spain for three years after she finished her teacher preparation program. Spanish culture has also been an important influence in her language and culture.

Ms. Braun has been a teacher for 15 years. She has taught fourth and fifth grades in a nearby school district and second and third grades at CISD. Ms. Braun started teaching at Sunny Hillcrest Elementary three years ago. Last school year was her second year teaching a dual-language classroom. During the pilot study, Ms. Braun reported feeling a major constraint due to the lack of flexibility in the curriculum. Fidelity to the dual-language program also causes constraints in language use; for example, mathematics is expected to be taught only in English, while science and social studies are expected to be taught entirely in Spanish. Ms. Braun, being bilingual, found this restriction on her use of language to be constraining as she worked to teach her emergent bilingual students. Students use both of their linguistic resources when learning in the content areas. Furthermore, it was very difficult for Ms. Braun to attend to the individual and collective benefit of the emergent bilinguals under such harsh accountability. Accountability pressures and restrictive language policies threaten bilingual programs (Henderson &

Palmer, 2015a; Hornberger & Link, 2012; Palmer, Henderson, Wall, Zúñiga, & Berthelsen, 2016; Palmer & Lynch, 2008) where Latinas/os have the opportunity to maintain Spanish as part of their educational process. My initial observations showed that most of her pedagogical practices during the spring semester were geared explicitly toward test preparation. Her schedule was modified from an hour and half to only 30 minutes a day of language arts, with an hour per day reserved for test practice. She also had to spend time during her science instructional block to prepare those students who were planning to take the exam in Spanish as part of the test accommodation processes.

Placing value on the Spanish language is a priority for Ms. Braun. She discussed the many advantages of teaching in dual-language programs, such as the way it created support and community between the students. Talking to each other in pairs became a routine, a classroom practice, and a space to practice Spanish. During the time of the study, I observed 20 students (8 Spanish-dominant speakers and 12 English-dominant speakers). The majority of the Spanish-dominant speakers in most of the nation's emergent bilingual student population is U.S.-born (Batalova & McHugh, 2010), as was the case of all of the Spanish-dominant speakers in Ms. Braun's classroom. All were second-generation immigrant students except for one, who is third-generation; his mother was also born in the U.S. One student's parent out of the eight Spanish-dominant speakers came from Argentina. Seven of the Spanish-dominant speakers were identified as ELLs by the school. The school district identified students as ELLs, in accordance with state policy, from a home language survey parents turn in at the beginning of the

school year, followed by a score below fluent on a test of English proficiency administered within the first 30 days of school. The rest of the students were of Mexican background. Five of the Spanish-dominant speakers were boys and three are girls. Five of the English-dominant speakers were boys and seven were girls. All English speakers except for one, who is of African American background, were White.

I spent the month of September and the beginning of October collecting baseline information about the teacher, students, and classroom as a whole. At this time, I also identified the five Latina/o focal students I would be following for the rest of the study. To select these students, I drew from the eight Spanish-dominant speakers in the classroom. Six students' parents consented to their children participating in the study. One girl had difficulty engaging with me; after a few weeks, it was evident she was not likely to interact with me. I therefore had five remaining focal students: two girls and three boys. According to the teacher and their Diagnostic Assessment Reading (DAR), this group represented a range of reading levels. As described on Houghton Mifflin Harcourt's (the assessment publisher) website, the DAR is a test that helps teachers and specialists diagnose and identify students who need help with reading. It assesses nine key areas of reading: print awareness, phonological awareness, letters and sounds, word recognition, word analysis, oral reading accuracy and fluency, silent reading comprehension, spelling, and word meaning. One boy and one girl of my five focal students had the same low score, another boy and girl had middle scores, and the last boy had a relatively high score. The focal students selected therefore had a spread of reading

scores reflective of the class as a whole. The reading specialist pulled out of the classroom for extra reading support two of my focal students, the boy and the girl I identified with the lowest DAR scores in my focal student group. All of the focal students I chose were of Mexican background and were identified as ELLs by the school. Finally, for the remainder of the data collection period, I randomly rotated tables to observe each one of the focal students in their small group interactions. I visited each focal student's small group table approximately five times.

Classroom Description

The third two-way dual language program at Ms. Braun's school is departmentalized. For the class year 2015-2016, she taught language arts, science, and social studies to two groups of emergent bilingual students. The first group had 18 students (seven Spanish-dominant speakers and twelve English-dominant speakers). She named this group *grupo dorado* (gold group) for identification purposes. The second group, *grupo morado* (purple group), is the group that I focused on for this study due to scheduling accessibility. Grupo morado consisted of 20 students in total (as described above in the participants section).

After the school's morning assembly, grupo dorado came into Ms. Braun's classroom for Spanish language arts. She divided her first block of an hour and five minutes into the following main activities: whole group instruction, bilingual pair activities, and guided reading. This same structure followed next for grupo morado. Then grupo morado continued with 45 minutes of science and social studies instructions, which

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she divided again into whole group instruction and partner work. Then, both groups attended specials (art, music, and physical education), there were approximately15 minutes of "language of the day instruction" (an open-ended block of time that Ms. Braun often used to enhance content lessons or to introduce a new topic, provided it was proffered in the alternating "language of the day"), followed by lunch and recess. When the children came back inside, grupo morado would finish their science and social studies block for 25 more minutes. The schedule of the day ended with grupo dorado's science and social studies time block. Meanwhile, whichever group was not with Ms Braun received math and English language arts instruction in her partner teacher's classroom, which was next door. I observed grupo morado in their language arts class that occurred during mid-morning, and the science/social studies block that immediately followed, straddling lunch and recess (during which time I would often talk with Ms. Braun or shadow/help her as she prepared for her afternoon).

Ms. Braun's classroom was set up for small group interaction. At the beginning of my observations, she had five table groups named after New York's five boroughs: Manhattan, Brooklyn, Staten Island, Queens, and Bronx. She set up the projector in the middle of the classroom with tables all around her, and projected on one of the classroom's blank wall. Two groups were placed on the right and left in front of the projector; the other three were placed strategically at the back of the projector. On the right hand wall, a long rectangular white board always contained a few notes and was partly covered by anchor charts. In the corner at the back of the room was Ms. Braun's

teacher desk. To its left, she set up a kidney table for one-on-one or small group instruction. On the last wall, the classroom had a "peace corner" where students could go to resolve conflicts independently. A library full of fiction and non-fiction books English and Spanish was set up on the wall opposite to the whiteboard wall. Students would sit on a rectangular carpet in front of the library for read-alouds, whole group instruction, and classroom activities. She also had 3 computers on the back wall. As I will explain further in chapter 4, two of the main literacy practices in the classroom were modeling and collaboration between students; this was reflected in the classroom's set-up, with specific spaces for each of these purposes.

When grupo morado entered the room for their Spanish language arts instruction, they immediately sat down in their assigned desks and opened their agendas. While they read independently a book of their choice from the library (English or Spanish), Ms. Braun walked around to check that parents signed their homework assignments in the students' agenda. After 15 minutes, she either started with whole group instruction by modeling at the projector or asked them to join her in the carpet for literacy activities. Much of the time independent work happened in collaboration with students in small groups. Literacy events in the content areas happened with a variety of texts, as I will develop in the following chapters. See Appendix B for a complete list, in chronological order, of the classroom literacy events that are mentioned in this study.

Researcher's Positionality

        This research involves studying a classroom that is complex and dynamic. When a researcher chooses the classroom as a case, she "adopts a position that highlights certain elements of the classroom life and lets other elements become the backdrop-the context, as it were—for the characters and events starring in the unfolding case" (Dyson & Genishi, 2005, p. 18). It is important to situate myself in this classroom and discuss my positionality in relation to my participants. My past experience as a teacher, educator, immigrant, and researcher influences the values, research questions, and knowledge that I pursue in this study (Banks, 1998; Heath & Street, 2008), potentially leading me to highlight certain elements of Ms. Braun's classroom and perhaps to de-emphasize other elements.

        However, these experiences are not simplistic notions that can be easily described in separate sections, as they are interrelated. Being that this classroom study is of a naturalistic nature, it assumes the interrelationship within the multiplicity of realities and the influence between researcher and participants (Erlandson, 1993). Thus, as the researcher and participants construct and interpret a reality together, it becomes a collaborative project.

        In the following, I narrate and make explicit my biographical journey and ways it shapes the purpose, data collection, and data analysis of this research (Banks, 1998; Creswell, 2012; Emerson et al., 1995; Galman, 2007). Most importantly, I expose what Banks (1998) describes as the "heart" of the researcher: the beliefs, commitments, and

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generalized principles. While I narrate, I make connections to the teacher and students who are collaborating in this project. I consider an interactive role, where my experiences are closely related (or in opposition) to those of the participants in the process of constructing knowledge together (Banks, 1998).

I was raised in Monterrey and San Pedro Garza García, México. Monterrey is one of the main industrial cities in the country. When I was 15 years old, my family moved to San Pedro, one of the richest suburbs in Mexico in relation to per capita income. My bilingual education and living conditions gave me privilege in my country and opened up professional opportunities. I studied in private bilingual elementary, middle, and high schools. I also worked as an enrichment specialist at a private bilingual school. Twelve years ago, my husband and I migrated to the U.S. looking for new educational and professional opportunities. He attended business school in the northeast, but as a member of a minority group, my language and experiential knowledge were devalued, making it difficult to find a professional job. After graduation, he worked at a business consulting firm, and I pursued graduate school in New York City. In 2010, we decided to move to Austin, Texas and start a family. Our daughter, Ana Lucía, Analu "de cariño," is now four years old. Her father and I are raising her bilingually in her native country. As a researcher and educator, I am committed to investing in her educational experiences and fighting for equality in education for all Mexican Americans and Latinas/os in the country.

I was privileged in my country of origin. I witnessed poverty and injustice around me, and I acted upon and volunteered by helping disabled persons from low-income families. I never dealt personally with issues of injustices until I migrated to this country. It was upon arrival to the United States that I first experienced seeing myself as "the other." It is not until you remove yourself from a place that is secure and comfortable that you start clearly observing these issues. Issues of identity were the first challenges I encountered in my new setting, a new country. I share this experience with many immigrant parents and some children in the study. These issues were the start of a series of reflections helping me understand who I am as a person. As Greene (1995) states: "cultural background surely plays a part in shaping identity; but it does not determine identity" (p. 163). Identity is fluid and dynamic. It evolves depending on the place and time in which you live. As I confronted challenges familiar to most immigrants, I realized that White, Anglo European-origin cultural identities maintain power in the U.S. These experiences help me relate to my participants' struggles and in how I conduct research.

In our educational system there exists a great disparity, as measured by the standardized test scores of White students and those who come from disadvantaged communities ("Issues A–Z: Achievement Gap ", July 11, 2011; Kozol, 2012). Ms. Braun reports a significant difference in reading achievement in her students' groups based on linguistic background. The bilingual program established at Sunny Hillcrest Elementary labels and consequently divides "Spanish-dominant" speakers from "English-dominant" speakers. In my preliminary observations, most Spanish-dominant speakers are

Latinas/os and children of immigrants. These students are socioeconomically disadvantaged. I feel a responsibility toward the Latina/o students in providing possibilities for pedagogies that advance their achievement. Banks (1998) sustains that researchers' "most important responsibility is to conduct research that empowers marginalized communities, and that incorporates the views, concepts, visions, of the communities they study" (p. 15). This is my aim for the present study.

During informal interviews, Ms. Braun voiced the same concern. She shared with me a blog post discussing the anti-racism agenda in bilingual education (See Flores, 2014). In this post, Dr. Flores advocates for bilingual programs that make the challenges of minority children the priority. The maintenance of the home language and culture empowering Latina/o students becomes our major priority. Taking on a role of "researcher as an advocate," through my research, my goal is to inform and convince readers about the value of culturally sustaining pedagogies, "liberating" the reader from pre-conceived deficit notions of Latina/o students' education (Stake, 1995).

Living in two countries has also given me different perspectives about addressing culture, the impact of the economy, demographics, and social issues that affect an educational system. Contrary to urban centers in the U.S., in Mexico public education flourishes in the city. The areas in which there is concern are those rural or suburban schools lacking major resources for teachers to practice and students to learn (For an example see García & Velasco, 2012). During the beginning of my graduate studies in New York, I began to understand the inequalities in schooling in urban areas of the

United States and embraced multicultural education to provide better learning opportunities for diverse cultures. It was easy for me to address the needs of Latina/o students. We shared the same customs and values. Even with my privileged background, my struggles in this country opened up an awareness of the issues my community faced.

Then, I began teaching Spanish at a Jewish school in New York. It was an excellent opportunity to take hold of my own cultural heritage as well as its interpretation in the United States. I was in a position to share Latina/o culture with my students. Yet, the differences in cultural and religious backgrounds between myself and my students became a major challenge. There were customs as well as vocabulary I had to learn. As I mentioned, I believed in multicultural education, but this personal experience showed me alternate ways to practice as a teacher. Furthermore, I began a process of "understanding other cultures with respect" (Appiah, 2010). This experience cautioned me as a researcher. As my participants and I constructed new knowledge together, there was the possibility of new notions, ideas, or values that could trouble my philosophy of education. I had difficulty in taking part in this process, but I approached with caution and "understood with respect" in other ways. For example, Ms. Braun grew up in this country as did her Spanish-dominant speaking students in the class. It is somewhat of a challenge for me to understand their personal experiences in this country, as I immigrated as an adult. Yet, the many courses I took in the graduate program (e.g., sociocultural foundations, Mexican American studies, a policy seminar on Latina/o issues, immigration theory, etc.), my teaching assistant experiences in public elementary schools and research

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in bilingual classrooms provided learning opportunities about past and current issues of Latinas/os in education.

Central to this understanding is also how language shapes emergent bilinguals' experiences. Erlandson (1993) explains the role language plays in human lives. He writes:

Language is a precious possession; it affords a repository of the concepts that we use to organize our worlds and provides the tools with which we structure our experience. Because language is also a cultural phenomenon, it provides links with people in the same culture and with people across cultures. (p. 27)

Language has also been a central part of my personal identity and my journey as an educator. Bilingualism was essential in my elementary and secondary schooling experience in Mexico. Most of my textbooks were in English. Through them I learned everything I could about the American culture. I grew up reading and writing in English. I frequently saw signs and advertisements, watched television, and heard music in English. However, when I attended my undergraduate studies, I had much difficulty studying in academic Spanish. My vocabulary in Spanish was very limited. Over the years, I grew accustomed to it, and I could easily transfer between the two languages. Until then, I experienced knowing two languages as a cultural advantage. This is not always the case in the United States nor the experience my participants had.

During Ms. Braun's and my preliminary communication exchanges, I noticed one of the Latino students refusing to speak in Spanish when working individually with Ms.

Braun. She shared with me how his mother had doubts about the dual-language program

and that these thoughts had influenced the student throughout in Spanish language arts

and science classes. As a researcher, I needed to reflect on ideologies and notions of

language in the case. I needed to "understand with respect" other ideologies ingrained not

only in my participants but also the students' parents' ideologies. Yet, taking on a role of

"researcher interpreter" through the production of knowledge, I want to instill in the

reader new ways of understanding emergent bilinguals' language and literacy

development and "[to liberate] the reader from [former] simplistic views" (Stake, 1995,

p. 96). The parents are not part of my study, but through my follow-up questions with the

students and teachers I was able to begin to understand their beliefs and values about

language. As Hudelson (1994) states: "Literacy is language and language is literacy" (As

cited in García, 2011b, p. 193). Thus, to understand biliteracy, it is important to address

the ways that the participants and researcher understand language and the bilingual

development of emergent bilinguals

Lastly, as a participant observer, I was able to immerse myself in Ms. Braun's

school routines during the pilot study (Emerson et al., 1995; Wolcott, 1999). Emerson et

al. (1995) explain: "A fieldworker should not attempt to be a fly on the wall; no field

researcher can be a completely neutral, detached observer who is outside an independent

of the observed phenomena" (p. 289). I built a relationship with the teacher and students

as I was becoming familiar with the literacy events and practices in the classroom

(Creswell, 2012; Emerson et al., 1995; Heath & Street, 2008). Yet, it was impossible to

record everything that was happening in the setting. It is impossible to have eyes and ears in all situations. So, I prioritized and selected events to attend to when collecting the data, "ignoring and marginalizing" other events. The selection of these events and my research questions are driven by my philosophy and ideologies described in the paragraphs above—that is, the researcher's subjectivity becomes involved in the process of data selection recording and analyzing.

As I narrate my biographical journey, I show how race, gender, and language matter in the negotiation of roles through a collaborative process between the participants and researcher (Dyson & Genishi, 2005). During the research process, I need to be involved in a constant process of self-reflexivity (Johnson-Bailey, 2004) to acknowledge my positionality narrated above and how it influenced my decisions as a researcher throughout the study. In sum, the researcher is the primary instrument of qualitative research, and the major multiple, complex roles she plays in society are essential in any research process (Creswell, 2012; Dyson & Genishi, 2005; Galman, 2007).

Methodology and Methods

This study is built under a naturalistic paradigm, an alternative paradigm to the conventional positivistic approach. In experimental or quasi-experimental studies, the researcher looks for causality and generalizability. Through relationships between variables, the positivist researcher is looking for "the truth." In contrast, a naturalistic paradigm considers multiple realities with differences among them, observing their interrelationship to understand and construct new knowledge. Naturalistic research also

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values the relationship between the researcher and the participants, showing the mutual influence between them. The researcher aims to construct interpretations between participants and herself. As the name implies, this research situates in a naturalistic setting or real-life situation and is dependent on its context. Each study is unique, yet it allows looking for similarities and differences between comparable settings. Lastly, naturalistic research is pragmatic in ways that elicit meaning-making processes during social interactions (Creswell, 2012; Dyson & Genishi, 2005; Erlandson, 1993; Galman, 2007; Marshall & Rossman, 2010).   Within the naturalistic paradigm, case study methodology also observes social interactions.

Case study design. A case focuses on the "local particulars" (Dyson & Genishi, 2005). It does not abandon the complexity of the human experience but rather identifies a social working unit—that is, a bounded functioning system (such as a person or group of persons, a program, or an activity) and interprets the meaning of this phenomenon contextually (Dyson & Genishi, 2005; Stake, 1995). In the proposed instrumental study (Stake, 1995), the social unit of study is Ms. Braun's classroom. As I mentioned above, I was "casing the joint" over the previous school year to decide the type of work I would be doing and the kinds of questions that I wanted to answer (Wolcott, 1999). The strongest kinds of questions in case studies are those that ask about processes or questions of understandings. Good case study questions allow the researcher to observe the phenomenon holistically or in its completeness, situating it contextually to provide a rich

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and thick description of it (Thomas, 2010). Below is a description of the interaction of the particular and the contextual that led me to the case.

I explored Ms. Braun's classroom adopting an "ethnographic perspective," taking a more focused approach by studying the particularities of the cultural practices in the social group (Heath & Street, 2008). I was able to start mapping out general language and literacy events in Ms. Braun's classroom. Literacy events are "social activities structured around ways of using (and talking about) text" (Dyson & Genishi, 2005, p. 7) constructed together by the students and the teacher (e.g., vocabulary instruction, genre identification, read-alouds, and independent reading, among others). As I spent more time in her classroom, the literacy events became meaningful according to the ways the children and teacher interacted with each other every day. These recurrent events become "shared practices" in which the values and experiences of the members are key to their sense of identity and belonging to the group (Dyson & Genishi, 2005, p. 8). Many of these shared literacy practices in this classroom emerged during content-area lessons.

Dyson and Genishi (2005) highlight how identity development and language ideologies within the construction of shared practices are influenced by an "extrasituational context"—in other words, the larger economic, social, historical, and cultural processes. When looking at the particular case, it is necessary to analyze the major contextual factors that form part of the interactions between the participants (Erickson, 2004). In Ms. Braun's classroom, the socio-historical and economic factors play an important role in understanding the student demographics and the program in

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place at Sunny Hillcrest Elementary. The students have diverse ways of making connections with the community, informing the ways they engage with multimodal texts.

Research questions. The research questions pursued in this study are as follows:

- How does a third-grade bilingual teacher interact with students around (multimodal) texts within and across a language arts and science/social studies curricula?

- How do emergent bilingual/biliterate students engage with (multimodal) texts within and across a language arts and science/social studies curricula?

- What linguistic and cultural practices become relevant as a teacher and students interact and engage with (multimodal) texts across content areas?

Data collection methods. In qualitative studies, the researcher is the main instrument for data collection. For this reason, I was involved in all data collection processes as an observer/participant (Erlandson, 1993; Marshall & Rossman, 2010; Merriam, 2014; Mertens, 2010). I mainly observed during class time. Sometimes, I participated when I answered students' questions related to concepts and definitions and offered guidance in the writing-editing process when the instruction time was over. I triangulated data or pulled from multiple sources to increase credibility. Thus, I used ethnographic tools to collect data in the form of observations, interviews, and artifacts (Heath & Street, 2008).

I audio- and video-recorded observations during Spanish language arts and science/social studies classes for one group of students, for approximately three hours,

three to five days a week, during fall 2015 in the months of October, November, and December, to systematically note and record the ways the students and teacher interacted with/around texts. Following a culturally sustaining approach (Paris, 2012), I purposefully planned to observe during the classes where the language of instruction was Spanish. I relied on "field notes to construct the case," developing them organically (Dyson & Genishi, 2005, p. 63). Field notes are detailed descriptions of what is happening in the field (Marshall & Rossman, 2010). First, I wrote down "jottings" or "scratch notes" during all observations at the site. I mainly took notes on my laptop. When I moved around to watch bilingual pair interaction or make short follow-up questions, I followed up with pen and paper. These notes were brief and descriptive of events and impressions.

I also audio- and video-recorded during the observations. I captured the whole class with a wide-angle lens. This recording process provided valuable direct information about the participants' verbal and nonverbal actions. I listened and viewed within 24 hours after the observation to support me in writing up detailed narrative field notes after I left the site. I collected data three to five times a week; if listening and viewing within 24 hours after an observation was not a possibility because of teaching or home responsibilities, I set up a time on Fridays (I rarely visited the site and did not teach on Fridays) to elaborate by writing rich and extensive field notes based on the jottings of that day (Emerson et al., 1995). In these notes, I wrote 1) the sensory details of each scene, 2)

the participants' direct dialogue and their actions and relationships toward others, and 3) my personal observations and/or reflections (Emerson et al., 1995; Merriam, 2014).

To that end, during the entry phase of the study, I wrote down detailed physical descriptions of the classroom to develop "vicarious experiences" for the readers (Stake, 1995). I also developed maps of ways that students use spaces within their language and literacy experiences in the classroom. I recorded their small group interactions and bilingual pair interactions with a zoom audio-recorder.

I recorded and captured all literacy events and practices in Ms. Braun's classroom during the time I was present. These are essential to be able to understand the participants' engagement with texts. I observed how Ms. Braun and her students established daily routines and patterns related to literacy development in the content areas. Based on D. Barton et al. (2000) and Dyson and Genishi (2005), I first mapped out general literacy events in the classroom. Literacy events in which the teacher and students mainly participated include genre study, shared reading, paired reading, disciplinary vocabulary development, independent reading, read-alouds, genre independent and group writing, vocabulary translation, vocabulary definition, and drawing for comprehension. After doing that, I conceptualized patterns of how these events were contextualized by the participants to make meaning within and across language arts and science/social studies.

During the initial stage, I engaged in a process of "internal sampling," where I selected key students to focus on after initial classroom observations (Dyson & Genishi,

2005, p. 50). As mentioned above, these students were selected in consultation with the teacher and in relation to different reading levels according to the DAR test. I included five Spanish-dominant Latina/o students, two girls and three boys. One of the boys was labeled as a "high" reading level student, one girl and one boy at the "middle" reading level, and one girl and one boy at the "low" reading level. During observations, I sat down and audio-recorded each of the focal students' small groups consecutively.

Fieldwork (i.e., observations) is a "major means of collecting data" and, coupled with interviews, can provide a complete picture of complex dynamic cultural processes happening in a particular setting (Dyson & Genishi, 2005; Merriam, 2014). Through the form of a dialogue between the researcher and participants, interviews capture the participants' points of view or multiple realities (Dyson & Genishi, 2005; Stake, 1995). I conducted informal interviews or quick conversations with Ms. Braun during my daily observations using general open-ended questions to explore the phenomena of study. These were audio-recorded whenever possible and in any case were recorded in my field notes. I also met with her for two 60-minute semi-structured interviews (Erlandson, 1993; Merriam, 2014; Mertens, 2010). First, I interviewed her at the beginning of the school year, to start students' language and cultural background profiles, to learn about her perspectives on culturally sustaining pedagogies and her own language and cultural background, and to learn general information about the plan for the school year (see Table 3.1). The second interview was conducted after data collection was complete, at the first stage in the data analysis, to member check for preliminary analysis. "Member

checks" are other ways to affirm that researchers' preliminary findings match with the participants' worldview or meaning-making processes (Galman, 2007; Marshall & Rossman, 2010). To deepen my understanding of how the children were making meaning of texts, I asked the students brief follow-up questions shortly after their activities in the class in English or Spanish (see Table 3.2).

Table 3.1 Teacher's Semi-structured First Interview Questions

Describe your students (number of students, where they come from, what language they speak most in school, how old they are, what their socioeconomic background is, what their interests are, general characteristics of their parents, etc.).
What are your students' language backgrounds?
Are your students' first-, second-, third-generation immigrants? Do you have recently arrived immigrant students?
Which neighborhoods do your students come from?
Tell me about a typical day in language arts/science class.
Tell me about the kinds of texts you and your students engage with while in language arts/science class.

Table 3.2 Example of Students' Follow-up Questions

What are you doing?
Why did you choose to do the activity in this particular way?
Why did you choose to answer in this way?
What did you write in your class journal and/or assignment?
What kind of questions do you still have (after finishing activity/assignment)?

Lastly, I took photographs of participants' artifacts. These were mainly student-generated assignment samples (posters, drawings, writing, etc.) produced during classes (Marshall & Rossman, 2010). The samples were useful for understanding students' meaning-making processes surrounding multimodal texts and/or literacy development across content areas.

Data analysis methods. A qualitative researcher is in a constant dynamic process of interpreting the data in and outside the field during all phases of the study (Merriam, 2014). As noted by Stake (1995), "There is no particular moment when data analysis begins" (p. 71), thus the researcher is trying to find coherence and familiarity from the moment she first starts collecting data. The interpretation processes of field notes, interview notes, and student-produced texts started immediately after the data were

organized through qualitative analysis software. Table 3.3 below presents the timeline of

the study's different phases of the data collection process and analysis.

Table 3.3 Overview of Research: Data Collection and Data Analysis

Date	Phase of the Study	Activities	Data Sources

08/2015 to 09/2015	Phase 1: Site entry	-Obtaining consent from teacher and students
		-Establishing familiarity with the students
		-Identifying unit of study to collect data
		-Collecting baseline qualitative data
			-Field notes
			-Audio and video recordings
			-Map of classroom
			-Map of language and literacy events
			-Map of students' bilingual pairs and small group interactions
			    -Classroom artifacts:
			    -Poster outlining students' bilingual pairs
			    -Photographs of wall posters in the classroom
			    -Photographs of pair interactions and small group interactions.
			    -Teacher's curriculum for the school year
			    -Teacher's semi-structured interview notes

10/2015 to 12/2015	Phase 2: Main data collection process	-Mapping out literacy events across content areas -Identifying literacy patterns across content areas -Collecting qualitative data from students' and teacher's interaction with texts -Identifying focal students for further detailed analysis	-Field notes -Audio and video recordings -Classroom artifacts: -Students' produced assignments
11/2015	Phase 3: 1st stage of analytical process	-Member checking for preliminary analysis	-Teacher's semi-structured interview
01/2016 to 06/2016	Phase 4: 2nd stage of analytical process	-Microanalysis of data	-Field notes -Audio and video recordings

Table 3.3 Overview of Research: Data Collection and Data Analysis, cont.			
06/2016	Phase 5: Exiting the site	-Sharing preliminary findings with the class and the principal	-Field notes -Analytic memos
06/2016 to 12/2016	Phase 6: Formal analysis	-Data reduction, transcription, and analysis	-Analytic memos
01/2017 to 05/2017	Phase 7: Writing	-Writing, revising, and defending dissertation	-Analytic memos

Phase 1 of the data analysis followed an inductive process, where the research questions shaped the data and the data suggested ways of analyzing (Dyson & Genishi, 2005, p. 87). I also used a constant comparative method, based on the work of Glaser and Strauss (1967). I broke the data into small units of analysis (lines, sentences, paragraphs), reading them carefully to then generate a list of codes emerging from the data. I started identifying patterns and correspondence in the data for the initial open coding (Dyson & Genishi, 2005; Erlandson, 1993; Stake, 1995). I used my own experiential knowledge and theoretical framework to review the data and guide the data categories, and I wrote regular weekly analytic memos, or "reflective memos, thoughts, and insights" (Marshall & Rossman, 2010). One of the main codes emerging from the data was the variety of texts used during literacy events by Ms. Braun in her classroom during the timeframe I observed. By refining patterns emerging from the data, I began to realize that particular language practices were present when multimodal texts were used in collaboration and when texts were produced and designed instead of only used for distributive purposes

(i.e., the transmission of knowledge) (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2001b). I also noticed the juxtaposition of texts across content areas.

Thus, during Phase 2 of the data analysis, I chose to use discourse analytic tools on two instances that followed these patterns 1) in relation to language practices when designing and producing texts and 2) when intertextual connections were socially constructed. I looked closely at the transcriptions of these interactions and used verbal (pausing, stress patterns, intonation patterns, changes in volume, speed, style) and nonverbal contextualization cues (Bloome, Carter, Christian, Otto, & Shuart-Faris, 2004; Schiffrin, 1994).

It is impossible to focus only on practicing the triangulation of data without considering the multiplicity of truths. Therefore, I looked for pieces of evidence that disconfirmed my initial analysis, called "negative case analysis"(Creswell, 2012). I analyzed those cases where only traditional (linguistic) texts were used in literacy events and practices. I situated the data contextually with a "holistic" understanding of the situation and general background knowledge. To be able to understand experiential knowledge, I considered socio-historical and -economic factors in the case. Finally, I performed "peer debriefing" every other week with field experts (members of the dissertation committee and selected "critical friends" in the doctoral program) (Erlandson, 1993; Marshall & Rossman, 2010).

Limitations of case study design. Stake (1995) argues that case study is a matter of choice and not a methodological practice. For this study, I consider it both a choice

and methodology. It is a choice as a result of my selection of a unique exceptional case to answer the research questions proposed. It is a methodology, because it studies a carefully bounded system in depth. Overall, case study is a popular methodology within the positivistic and alternative naturalistic paradigms of research.

Under a naturalistic paradigm, when describing a case, the case is often held accountable for generalization in order to contribute to knowledge construction in scientific research. For example, Dyson and Genishi (2005) maintain that at times a case may be mistakenly understood as the phenomenon of study. They offer an example where the study of a child's early literacy learning becomes developmental literacy stages for other children and, in their words, "detracts from…the analytic comparative construction of knowledge" (p. 118). At other times, the authors contend that case studies are misunderstood when readers make their own interpretations in relation to social discourses and knowledge. Yet, case studies offer a detailed construction and richness in understanding of the complexity within human interactions. To avoid generalizations, I constructed assertions by offering the reader a vicarious experience, or what Stake (1995) refers to as "naturalistic generalizations." I situated the case historically and according to similar studies to be able to compare to other cases. This way, knowledge construction can be "extended, modified, or complicated" (Dyson & Genishi, 2005, p. 116).

Furthermore, one of my main arguments for collecting data in the classes taught in Spanish is the culturally sustaining goals and purposes of the teacher. Nevertheless, because of the nature of the study, restrictions from the Institutional Review Board for

human subject research, and lack of time and resources, I did not collect data from their

English-dominant speaking teacher. To truly observe biliteracy development, it would

have been important to have built a multi-case study and observe these same students

interact and engage in a class that is conducted mainly in the English language. This

would have provided a richer understanding and interpretation of the phenomena and data

as well as the ability to be transferred to other settings (Merriam, 2014).

Chapter 4: The Classroom Ecology: A Multiliteracies Approach to Teaching and Learning in the Bilingual Classroom

This chapter provides an overall description of Ms. Braun's classroom ecology (Creese & Martin, 2003; Hornberger, 2002) according to the range of ways in which the teacher and students interact and engage with texts in the language arts, science, and social studies curricula. Thus, it examines a classroom ecology where the teacher and students' language interactions are considered within an environment through their (bi)literacy practices. In chapter 5, I will return to many of the literacy events and practices I outline here, examining the interactions that occur in more detail; and in Chapter 6, I will provide an up-close examination of one of these events. The purpose of this chapter is to provide an overall, broad-brush inventory of the literacy events and practices- with illustrating definitions- that engage texts across content areas. My intention is to better understand the language and literacy ecology of this dual language classroom. I guide these sections by addressing the following research question in the study: *How do emergent bilingual/biliterate students engage with texts within and across a language arts and science/social studies curricula?* First, I outline some examples of literacy events and practices in Ms. Braun's bilingual classroom. I elaborate by describing 1) linguistic modes of texts (written or oral) and the particular media in which the discourse or mode is represented (materials) (see Chapter 1), and 2) literacy practices familiar in their bilingual classroom. I end the chapter by framing literacy events and

practices through a multiliteracies approach and showing how Ms. Braun builds academic understanding through a variety of texts.

Literacy Events and Practices within Linguistic Modes of Texts

I first mapped out literacy events where the teacher and students interacted with written texts over the three subject areas. As defined in Chapter 3, during the data collection process and first phase of data analysis, I noted down literacy events, for example, in the forms of independent reading, read-alouds, guided reading, shared reading, vocabulary instruction, and teacher-supported and independent writing. Table 4.1 (see below) describes some examples of literacy events. Included for each event is its main description, the subject area(s) where it happened, and the type(s) of text(s) used.

Table 4.1 Examples of Literacy Events in the Content Areas

Literacy Event(s)	Description	Date	Subject Area	Type (Mode) of Text	Specific Text
Disciplinary vocabulary development, paired reading	*Students read the different definition for map perspectives.*	*October 5, 2016*	*Social studies*	*Written text*	*Textbook*
Disciplinary vocabulary development	Students write down a list of main events to celebrate the Day of the Dead.	October 27, 2016	Social studies	Written text	Notebook
Disciplinary vocabulary development	Students identify the different types of mechanical energy by looking at diagrams.	November 2, 2016	Science	Written text	Worksheet
Genre study	*Students list characteristics of expository texts.*	*November 13, 2016*	*Language arts*	*Written text*	*Paper bookmark, Notebook*
Shared reading	The students and teacher read aloud an expository text about mars and identify the main idea of the text.	December 2, 2016	Science	Written and oral	Expository text
Genre study, paired reading	*Students identify the characteristics of biographies from picture books.*	*November 19, 2016*	*Language arts*	*Written text*	*Children's picture books*
Disciplinary vocabulary development	*Students write down definitions of weather instruments.*	*November 10, 2019*	*Science*	*Written text*	*Notebook*
* The literacy events in bold and italics are described in detail below.					

These literacy events are primarily in a linguistic mode. Linguistic modes are oral

and written resources used for the individuals' construction of knowledge (Kress & Van

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Leeuwen, 2001b), such as Ms. Braun's practiced shared reading with purposeful thinking when reading with the class to teach reading comprehension strategies surrounding the different genres of texts. In this particular event, the media used during the event was that of a paper bookmark. With this paper bookmark, the teacher highlights in writing some of the pre-reading strategies, such as reading the title, looking into particular genre characteristics (e.g., facts, details, main ideas, author's purpose), thinking about the genre of the article, and predicting from the information the text provides.

Some literacy events outlined in Table 4.1 include the description of the media or materials used when the teacher and students communicate through the support of the text. Kress and Van Leeuwen (2001b) define media as "the material resources used in the production of semiotic products and events, including both the tools and the materials used" (p. 22). Ms. Braun used different media or materials as main texts for traditional literacy events. The paper bookmark is one form of media supporting students' meaning-making processes for reading comprehension by outlining the different characteristics of a particular writing genre—informational texts through a linguistic mode (written). The teacher, with the help of the projector, used the paper bookmark to highlight each of these components in different informational texts. Ms. Braun modeled to the students how to locate each one of them, and the students copied her by highlighting a photocopy of the informative text, and cut and pasted it in their notebooks.

On another occasion, biography books were involved in literacy events among students' small group interactions. In one activity, the teacher required the students to

investigate and identify in small groups particular characteristics of autobiographical children's books. When reading with a partner, the students noted down in their language arts notebook the patterns they began to identify in biographical books. Biographical books then became a form of media with mainly a linguistic mode for understanding a text genre. Ms. Braun appeared to draw on primarily linguistic modes when focusing on vocabulary development. The teacher and students looked at the form of the word and relied on translation methods or the repetition of words to understand the meaning of the word. Take, for example, the case of a literacy event where the students were answering riddles. When the students encountered an unknown word in Spanish, other students who were knowledgeable about the word's meaning translated it into English, supporting the vocabulary development of the class. In addition, the teacher usually asked the students to repeat the word two or three times so they could get accustomed to the correct pronunciation. Within science and social studies, the teacher and students defined and wrote in their notebooks the definitions of key academic terms, such as the different types of energy, the states of matter, weather instruments, and map perspectives. Most of the academic vocabulary definitions were copied or consulted from the content area textbooks. As has been noted, Ms. Braun and her students primarily used linguist modes of texts (with or without the support of other texts such as images) for writing the characteristics of different genres and scientific terms, and words in written texts were translated and repeated to acquire academic vocabulary.

During these events, certain literacy practices became socially significant and were constructed within this particular community (Street, 2006). Table 4.2 identifies the literacy practices in Ms. Braun's third-grade classroom. In these situations, the teacher and students are familiar with the ways in which they interact with written texts. Noteworthy literary practices in the bilingual classroom include modeling, the use of collaborative strategies, posing critical questions, the use of experiential knowledge, and the use of a variety of vocabulary development strategies.

Table 4.2 Examples of Literacy Practices in the Content Areas

Literacy Practice(s)	Description	Date	Subject Area	Type (Mode) of Text	Specific Text
Experiential knowledge	Students write a procedural text about a regular routine at home (ex. making a sandwich).	November 2, 2016	Language arts	Written	Notebook
Vocabulary development strategies	The teacher asks them to repeat the word "herramientas" (instruments) when studying the different types of weather instruments.	November 10, 2016	Science	Written	Textbook and notebook
Collaborative strategies	Discussing content area knowledge. The students discuss the different meanings of map symbols in small groups.	December 2, 2016	Social studies	Written	Textbook
Modeling	Projection of informative texts. The teacher highlights the title and subtitle of a text, modeling for the students where to find these key elements of informative texts.	December 10, 2016	Language arts	Written	Article
Posing critical questions	Students discuss the similarities and differences of the main ideas in informative texts.	December 16, 2016	Language arts	Written	Expository texts

Based on my analysis, the literacy practice of modeling was built socially through literacy events such as studying content area information in language arts/science/social studies, genre writing, and vocabulary development; posing critical questions when studying new content area knowledge or vocabulary; and experiential knowledge in literacy events such as shared reading and read-alouds and writing. Collaborative events and vocabulary development happened in all literacy events. Below is a brief description of each literacy practice that became relevant in Ms. Braun's classroom.

Modeling. When teaching and learning about written texts, Ms. Braun modeled literacy strategies by projecting the image of a written text on a screen. Students usually followed her direction and wrote on their personal written texts while she modeled. They were able to practice how to

- answer a worksheet about science topics (e.g., weather forecast, mechanical energy, matter)

- write in a particular genre (e.g., narrative, expository, procedural text, poem, biography, calaveras (literary narratives)

- read different genres (e.g., narrative, expository, procedural text, poem, biography, calaveras)

- identify the main characteristics of different genres

- find the main idea of the text

- write definitions and notes about subject knowledge

- note down observations of experiments

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- follow instructions to build weather instruments

- read maps

- read newspapers with geographic information

- recognize vocabulary in songs and poems

- write basic facts in informational texts

- write facts about a cultural event (Día de Muertos [Day of the Dead])

- show scientific experiments

For instance, Ms. Braun modeled how to write a ` for the Day of the Dead holiday (November 1–2, a traditional Mexican holiday) as part of their social studies and language arts classes. Calaveras are humorously written verses speaking about individuals as if they have passed away. Ms. Braun modified a version of a calavera to align with the language arts curriculum. She assigned students to write a narrative text about an individual who was important to them and had passed away (see Figure 4.1). Ms. Braun first shared with students how she builds an altar for her aunt every year. She projected her own notebook and then wrote the following sentence stem in Spanish: Yo quiero celebrar a (nombre del ser querido) (I want to celebrate [name of relative or close person]). Then, drawing from her own personal experiences, she shared some details about the life of her deceased aunt by writing it in the notebook and modeling through the projector.

Figure 4.1 Student Literary Calavera
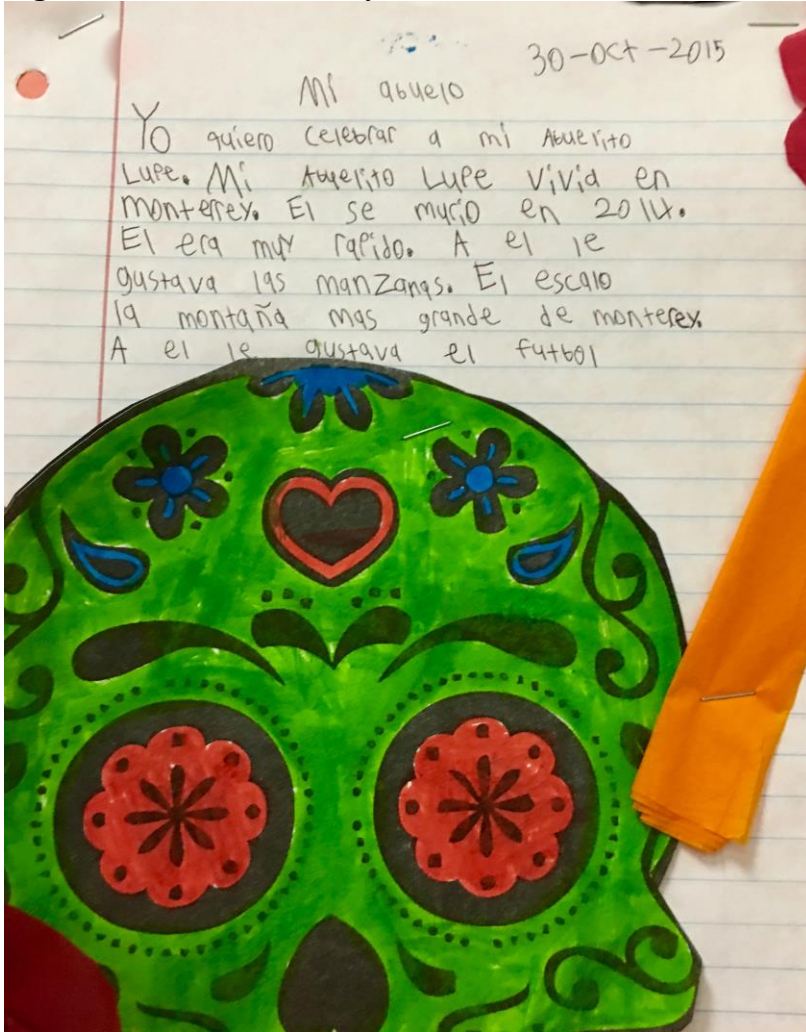
Mi abuelo. Yo quiero celebrar a mi abuelito Lupe. Mi abuelito Lupe vivia en Monterrey. El se murio en 2014. El era muy rapido. A el le gustava las manzanas. El escalo la montaña mas grande de monterey. A el le gustava el futbol. (My grandfather. I want to celebrate my grandfather Lupe. My grandfather Lupe lived in Monterrey. He died in 2014. He was very fast. He liked apples. He climbed the biggest mountain in Monterey. He liked soccer.)

Similarly, during science class, Ms. Braun asked the students to identify the types

of mechanical energy shown in different images on a worksheet (see Figure 4.2). After

the students worked in small groups for 20 to 30 minutes, she projected the worksheet

and modeled the correct answer for each image.

Figure 4.2 Example of Mechanical Energy Worksheet
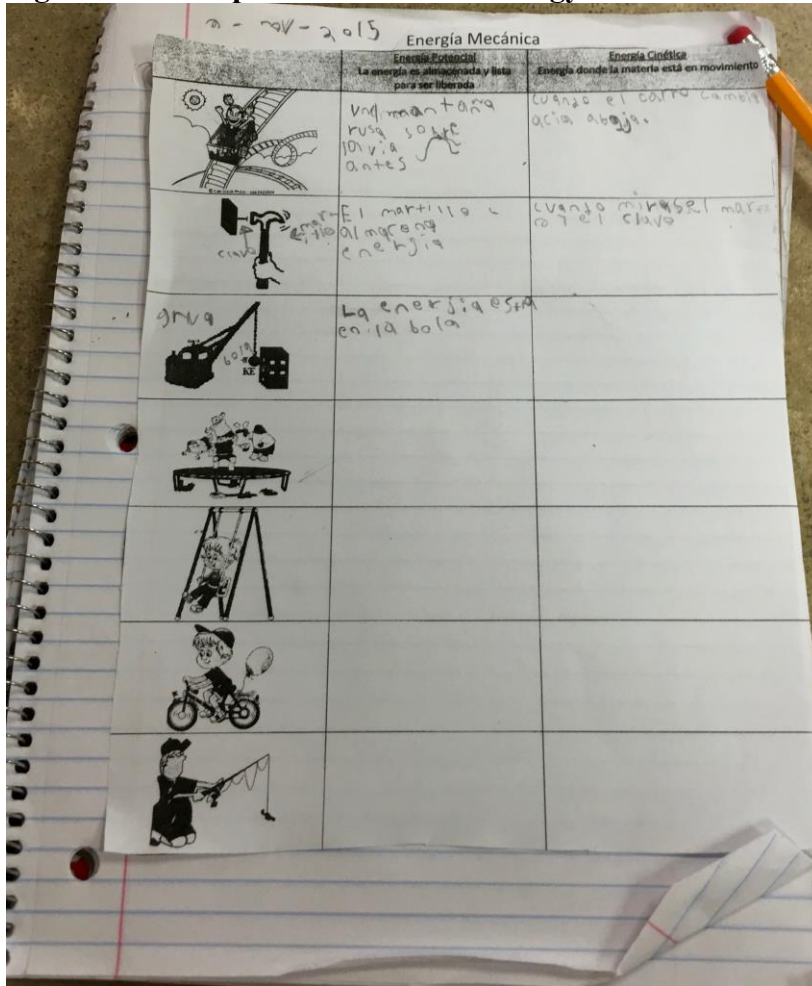
1a) Una montaña rusa sobre (unreadable) antes. 1b) Cuando el carro cambia acia abajo.
2a) El martillo almacena energia. 2b) Cuando miras el martillo y el clavo. 3a) La energia
esta en la bola. (1a) A roller coaster [unreadable] before. 1b) When the car changes and
goes down. 2a) The hammer stores energy. 2b) When you look at the hammer and the
nail. 3a) The energy is in the ball.)

Collaborative strategies. The use of collaborative strategies for meaning making

was evident in Ms. Braun's classroom. As part of the requirement of the dual-language

program in the school, students identified as Spanish-dominant speakers were paired together with English-dominant speakers (see Chapter 3). Ms. Braun continuously used this learning strategy when engaging with written texts. The students worked together in pairs to

- discuss answers posed by the teacher about the characteristics of texts in different genres
- discuss the definitions of words
- discuss content area knowledge
- support and monitor each other's learning (ex. creating a comic strip)
- answer critical questions of content area knowledge
- answer worksheets
- generate knowledge (map symbols, gestures to represent energy, states of matter)
- predict content area knowledge
- deepen cultural knowledge
- plan and conduct scientific experiments and projects

Specifically in language arts, to study expository texts as a genre, Ms. Braun asked students to work in pairs to define an expository text. She prompted the question by reminding students to compare expository texts with the written narrative texts they had produced earlier. The students were to find the differences between narratives and expository texts. The emergent bilinguals also worked in pairs to label the different

components of an expository text they had pasted onto a poster. After the students did a walkthrough of other groups' posters (in the form of a carousel report strategy—small groups rotate around the classroom, stopping at each group's poster), they identified similarities and differences between their peers' and their own work, giving them an opportunity to repair and expand their knowledge.

In science, the students worked in small groups building ramps by piling books on top of each other and releasing cars from these ramps to look at how potential energy works (see Figure 4.3). They recorded their findings in their notebooks.

Figure 4.3 Studying Potential Energy in Small Groups

Another instance where students supported their (bi)literacy development through collaboration was when they were creating a comic strip about magnetic energy. After they drafted their idea, the students conferred with their small group about the storyboard and the written text in Spanish and English that surrounded each of their images in the storyline.

Collaborative structures were present continuously in Ms. Braun's classroom when engaging with written texts for students to build knowledge in different content areas. Emergent bilinguals benefit from collaborative structures by supporting each other's learning processes (Bauer & Gort, 2012; Gomez et al., 2005; Gort, 2008; Henderson & Palmer, 2015b; Soltero, 2004).

Posing critical questions. Also salient in this bilingual classroom was the way the teacher posed critical questions for teaching and as a learning strategy. Most of these critical questions are discussed in small groups before practicing group discussions. Critical questions are presented to deepen knowledge, make predictions, elicit general discussion, and create new knowledge and texts in all content areas.

During a lesson about genres, Ms. Braun began class by prompting the following display question: ¿Qué es ficción?" "What is fiction?" and asked them to discuss in small groups. After the students conferred together, the teacher selected a student from a small group. He answered: "Ficción es algo que no puede pasar." "Fiction is something that cannot happen." The teacher then asked all students to knock on the table if they agreed with him. Most students started knocking on their tables. Immediately after, she asked the

students if there was someone who was not in agreement with him. Two students raised their hands. Ms. Braun then added that she was not in agreement and asked them for some possible reasons. Next, she posed a counter problem, asserting that "realistic fiction" is something that may occur, and then asked them to find a better description for fiction in small groups. When they regrouped, she added a number of literary genres that are fiction: realistic fiction, historical fiction, and fantasy. Ms. Braun continued by asking the students about the commonalities between these fiction subgenres. One student answered that they may present the reader with a problem. Finally, they concluded that fiction has a problem and a solution and it is written in a narrative form.

Summarizing, Ms. Braun's questioning techniques encouraged students to participate in small group discussion, focused on key content, taught them thinking and study skills, and at the same time provided the students with frequent comprehension checks (Levine & McCloskey, 2012, pp. 93-94). This is one example of how critical questioning techniques led the learners to deepen their knowledge about the subject of genres in language arts.

Using experiential knowledge for learning. As mentioned in Chapter 2, the teacher and students make connections with past life experiences when reading multicultural children's literature and are able to have a voice about, learn about, and celebrate their cultural identities (DeNicolo & Fránquiz, 2006; Fránquiz, 2012). These experiences also provide for opportunities of cross-cultural understanding (Escamilla & Hopewell, 2010). In this dual-language classroom, experiential knowledge was used

when interacting with written texts in all content areas studied. Students drew from experiential knowledge by making text-to-text connections (Bloome & Egan-Robertson, 1993), home and school intertextual connections (González et al., 2005), and when creating and producing new texts (as explained later in the design and production of texts) (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2001b). The relationship between the students and the text is relevant when individuals draw from previous experiences, including their background, feelings, memories, and associations (Probst, 1987).

For example, in language arts, when students wrote procedural texts in their notebooks, Ms. Braun asked them to connect these with a personal experience or special talent. One student wrote a text describing how to play a ukulele. Another student wrote a procedural text on how to make lemonade. He stated to his classmate, "But real lemonade, the Mexican one, not the mixed powder." In science, when providing examples of condensation and evaporation, students connect to their real-life experiences. One student noticed el rocío de la mañana (morning dew) in his front yard when walking to school. When discussing evaporation in class, a student made a connection with a book he had read in the library called El Ciclo de la Vida (The Life Cycle) and found how plants absorb and transpire water. Lastly, after watching a text in form of a video during social studies and writing down the major components of a Day of the Dead altar, the students shared about experiences with building Day of the Dead altars. Most Mexicans, a major cultural group in the central city in Texas where the school is located, affiliate with the Catholic religion (Lipka, 2016) and often build altars in their homes . One

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student explained to the rest of the class how sometimes agua bendita (holy water) is placed on the altars as an ofrenda (offerings). This was an opportunity for other students to learn about a cultural artifact with special significance in the Catholic religion. Artifacts used in the classroom play a role in students' and teachers' cultural and literary identity development (López, Ynostroza, Fránquiz, & Cárdenas Curiel, 2015). In this example, the mentioning of a special artifact with cultural significance in the classroom offered opportunities for cross-cultural understandings. Indeed, a literacy practice in this classroom in the form of experiential knowledge use in the content areas deepened the building of knowledge in the classroom. As shown, intertextual connections and the production of new texts by the teacher and students prompted the use of Ms. Braun's and the students' experiential knowledge.

Vocabulary development strategies. Building vocabulary in Spanish is key to participating in literacy events in this bilingual classroom. The use of Spanish is crucial for creating and understanding knowledge in Ms. Braun's Spanish language arts, science, and social studies classroom. Literacy practices involving Spanish vocabulary development in this bilingual classroom occurred when students a) translated words when doing pair work; b) defined words in small group discussions; c) created anchor charts with cognates, synonyms and antonyms, and prefixes and suffixes; e) repeated words to identify the pronunciation of words; f) drew the meaning of words; g) used the dictionary; and h) used gestures to be able to understand vocabulary and comprehend written texts.

Vocabulary development did not happen in isolation; literacy practices worked in synchronization. Pair work and critical questioning were used together to build vocabulary. Additionally, during pair work the students answered critical questions posed. When Ms. Braun modeled reading and writing strategies in literacy events, both the teacher and students developed new vocabulary, the teacher posed questions, and students worked together while or immediately after she modeled using the projector. In sum, engaging with written texts in (bi)literacy practices happened dynamically. The teacher and students' engagement when interacting with texts were co-constructed socially, as a classroom community, in this way becoming significant literacy practices within Ms. Braun's classroom.

The Multiplicity of Texts in the Bilingual Classroom

Conventionally and aligned with earlier autonomous literacy models established in schools, texts drawn in the classroom for literacy events and practices throughout the content areas are those in a linguistic mode (Fishman, 1980). As elaborated, Ms. Braun and her students interact with written texts and use an assortment of media to comprehend and build knowledge in the classroom. Perhaps more significant is the way Ms. Braun uses a variety of resources for additional meaning making by supplementing linguistic modes of texts with alternative texts. The data showed how Ms. Braun and her students used a multiplicity of resources to be able to comprehend disciplinary knowledge in language arts, science, and social studies. These literacy events and practices take on a variety of modes and forms of representation (Vasudevan et al., 2010).

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In this bilingual classroom, the teacher and students interact with texts in multimodal ways (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2001b).

As mentioned in Chapter 2, a text comes in the form of a mediating experience (e.g., words, signs, or representations) and/or an object (e.g., realia) that becomes relevant for language and content area learning. For example, Ms. Braun and her students interacted around comic strips, videos, maps, photographs, drawings, images, and others as alternative texts. Table 4.3 first lists some of the traditional linguistic forms of texts I identified in Ms. Braun's classroom and then alternative modes of texts she introduced during language arts and science/social studies instruction.

Table 4.3 Modes and Media of Texts in Ms. Braun's Classroom

Texts in Linguistic Form	Texts in Alternative Forms
Textbook	Comic strips
Notebook	Videos
Bookmark	Maps
Essay	Photographs
Whiteboard	Drawings
Lyrics	Images
Newspaper	Realia*
Informative texts	Gestures
	Songs and rhymes
* Realia: Objects and materials from everyday life.	

To illustrate, during language arts class, drawings are used to build a Spanish alphabet book. Students also make a classroom pet book with a drawing and a narrative

description in Spanish about each one of the different animals brought into the classroom. Songs and rhymes in Spanish are used during class to improve vocabulary development. Specifically, the teacher selects a song, writes down the lyrics with blanks, and asks students to fill in the word after listening to the song two or three times. This activity encourages listening skills in addition to reading and writing skills. Photographs and images are identified in Spanish expository texts to understand the meaning of the text. In particular, the teacher models how to find the main idea of a text through photographs or looks into the details of images to understand the written text surrounding them. Ms. Braun also refers to a globe to answer an activity about experimental designs in a Spanish expository text handout. In this text, the children randomly spin the globe, point to the globe after it stops, and record the frequency with which it lands on land or water. The purpose is to understand the percentage of the earth's surface that is covered by water. In science, the students create comic strips to describe magnetic energy by using their full linguistic resources. They also identify different types of energy and states of matter through drawings and images. Additionally, students draw their predictions and use realia to represent different disciplinary knowledge, such as the states of matter (see Figure 4.4). In addition, Ms. Braun and the emergent bilinguals use gestures to represent different scientific terms, including energy, states of matter, space and areas, and specific vocabulary words (see Figure 4.5). Finally, they watch, design, and produce videos to learn about the planets and weather or to engage in deeper understanding of energy forms.

Equally important in social studies, the teacher and students also interact and engage with alternative texts in addition to linguistic texts. To understand the role and function of a map symbol, students create and draw together an original map symbol in small groups. When learning about map perspectives, the teacher and students walk outside to recreate a drawing of the bird's eye view. Also, the teacher projects images of geographical landmarks to identify and define each of them. Finally, the teacher screens a video discussing the Day of the Dead describing the main components for building an altar.

Figure 4.4 Student's Comic Strip on Magnetic Energy
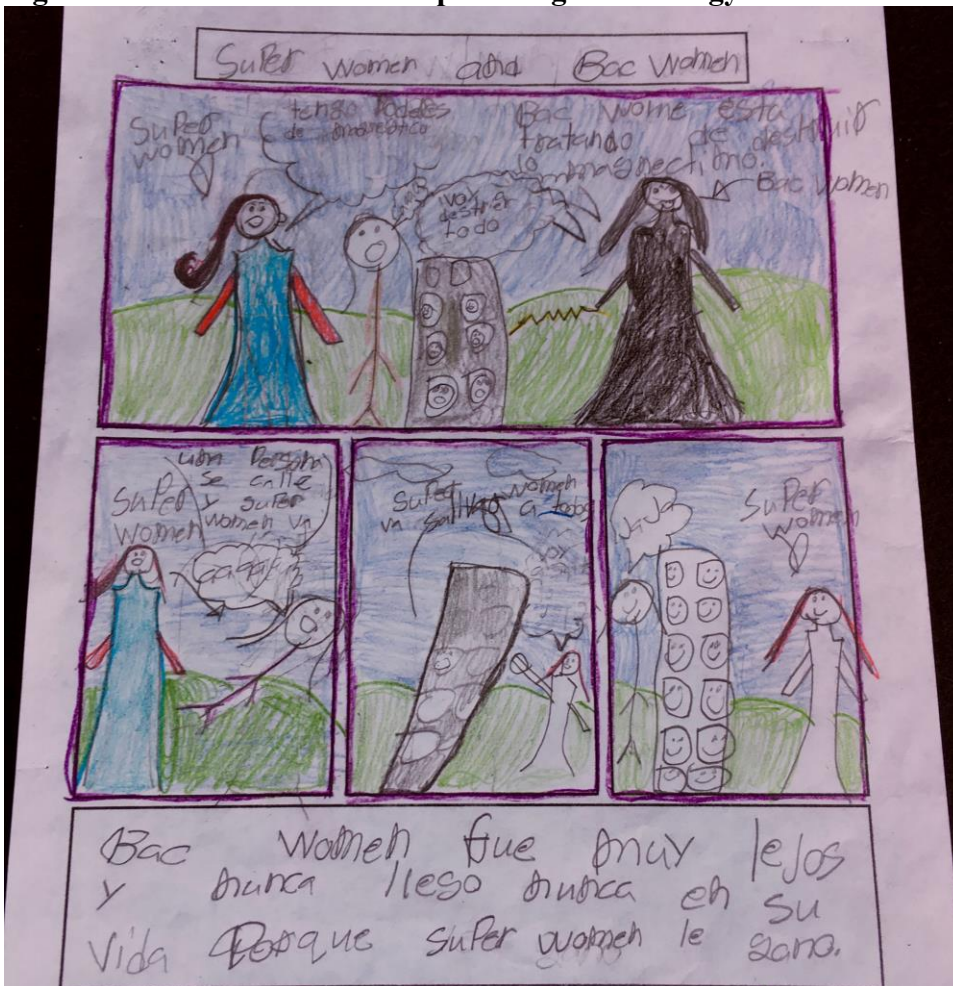
Super women and bac woman. Super women: Tengo poderes de magnético. Bac Wome: Voy a destruir todo. Esta tratando de destruir lo magentictino. Una persona se cae y super woman va. Super woman va a salvar a todos. Bac women fue muy lejos y nunca llego, nunca, en su vida porque super women le gano. (Super women and bac woman. Super women: I have magnetic powers. Bac Wome: I am going to destroy everything. She is trying to destroy the magnetism. A person falls and super woman comes. Super woman comes to save everyone. Bac women went really far away, and never came, never, in her life because super women won.

Figure 4.5 Gestures for Scientific Terms
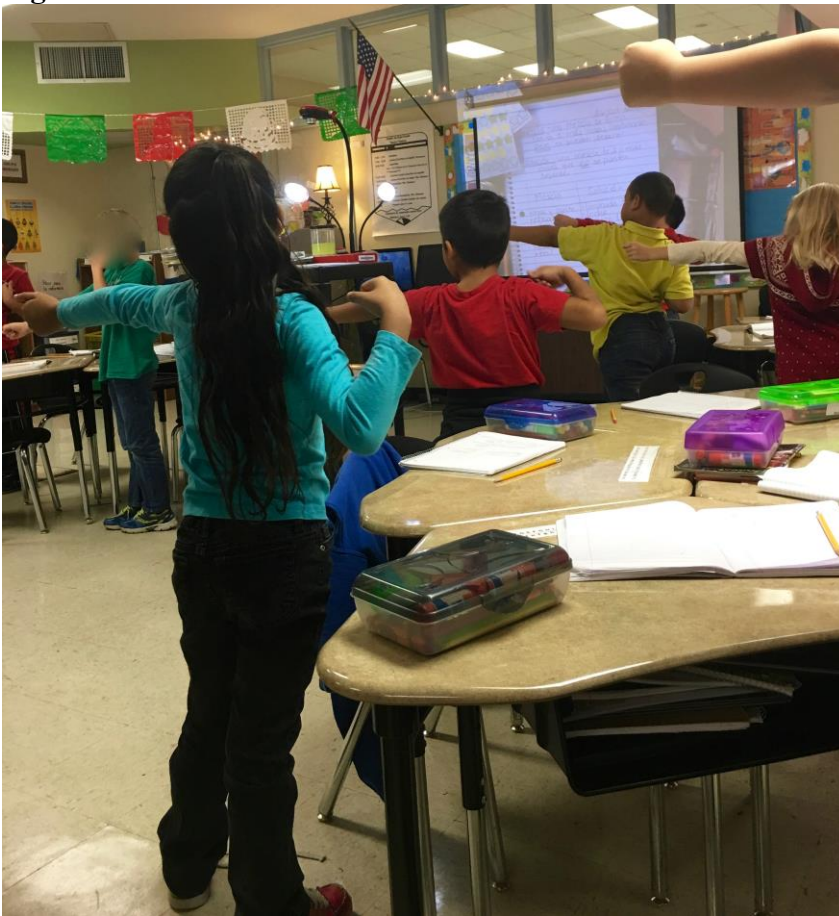
Summarizing, Ms. Braun and her students supplement linguistic texts with multiple alternative texts to understand and make meaning in language arts, science, and social studies. A translanguaging multiliteracies pedagogy highlights a classroom where a variety of texts are appropriated during literacy events and practices in the content areas (New London Group, 1996; Rowsell et al., 2008). Perhaps most important is the function of these multiple texts in students' and teachers' meaning-making processes.

Conclusion

This chapter outlines the main literacy events surrounding written texts in this bilingual classroom. When the teacher and emergent bilinguals engage with written texts, they do it through media or materials such as books, textbooks, handouts, and notebooks. It also displays the common literacy practices that emerge in the classroom and are particular to this social context, such as modeling, the use of collaborative strategies, posing critical questions, the use of experiential knowledge, and the use of a variety of vocabulary development strategies. Literacy practices in this classroom community worked in synchronization with each other, meaning that during instructional events several literacy practices were used for language and content-area learning. It also provides documentation of how a bilingual teacher supplemented linguistic modes of texts with alternative modes of texts during the literacy events and practices occurring in the language arts, science, and social studies classes.

Chapter 5: The Design, Production, and Distribution of Texts in Translanguaging Multiliteracies Pedagogy

In this chapter, I begin to address my third question: *What linguistic and cultural practices become relevant as a teacher and students interact and engage with (multimodal) texts across content areas?* I present the findings according to how the teacher and students in this bilingual classroom describe, use, produce, and design texts. As I have noted, in the multimodal theory of communication, Kress and Van Leeuwen (2001b) pose the existence of some commonalities or characteristic principles of semiotic modes that individuals practice for articulation and interpretation: discourse, design, production, and distribution (p. 4). These four skills are used in sync to make meaning in the classroom.

Yet to be able to understand the purposes and roles of texts in (bi)literacy events in this classroom, I chose to make distinctions between Kress and Van Leewuen's principles. Following, I outline how most linguistic texts in this classroom have merely a pragmatic distributive purpose. But then, I demonstrate ways in which the teacher and students were involved in the design and production of alternative texts and how this opened up space for flexible and dynamic language practices.

Texts with Distributive Purposes

Clearly, the teacher and emergent bilinguals are engaging with texts in their everyday interactions, as these multiple forms of texts become meaning-making resources or modes for language and content-area knowledge. Pending questions are in

relation to the categorization of texts and/or ways in which the teacher and students interact with texts and how the texts' function in relation to these interactions. In the instructional communication practice, the teacher distributes a text. A possible role is the preservation or transmission of discourse represented within the text. In other words, a text with a distributive purpose facilitates a pragmatic function, such as the preservation or distribution (transmission) of content-area knowledge.

I found that texts in linguistic modes were used in Ms. Braun's classroom for distributive purposes. Most texts with distributive purposes are media (materials), and their representation form is written or linguistic. There may be some images present in the text, but the teacher's and students' interaction mainly falls within the linguistic representation of the texts. When interacting with linguistic forms of texts, the teacher and students transmitted or preserved knowledge about the different content areas.

An example is the literacy event shared above in which Ms. Braun used a paper bookmark to share with students the different literary genres (see Figure 5.1). There are some prescriptive measures for the production and distribution of this particular text. This paper bookmark was designed, produced, and distributed by the teacher following the content of the STAAR test; the state-mandated standardized examination.

Figure 5.1 STAAR Paper Bookmark

Front   Back

The front of the paper bookmark shows the main components of a literary text and suggested reading strategies for biographies, autobiographies, and poems. On the back are listed pre-reading strategies to identify the genre of text and the main characteristics of an informative and persuasive text. When the teacher distributed the bookmark to her students, she emphasized the importance of learning this information for the standardized test (or rote learning), since the students are not able to use the bookmark during testing. As she continued to distribute the content-area knowledge, she first explained the content on each of the sides and emphasized to the students the importance of learning these reading strategies to answer the questions on the exam. Accountability pressures influence the way teachers distribute knowledge—in this case, for the purpose of the transmission and preservation of literary genres.

Linguistic modes of texts also show many characteristics of planned discourses. These discourses have been thought through and organized before they are distributed (Ochs, 1979; Tannen, 1980). They also have complex morphological and syntactic structures learned later in life, such as the scarcity of repair mechanisms, less repetition, and more complex and dense writing (Johnstone, 2002; Ochs, 1979; Tannen, 1980). In the example noted above, the decontextualization of the words used in the bookmark is an example of a planned discourse, which was a challenge for the emergent bilinguals learning content-area knowledge. The accountability pressures led to an organization of the text that did not allow for repetition or repairing meaning. Yet, the distribution of this text allowed for a new reproduction of the text. While distributing the bookmark, other

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literacy practices were used to make meaning of this text, such as collaborative strategies by working in small groups to define the different genres. Images were also introduced in the text to support the written text.

In another instance, the students interacted with biographical and autobiographical children's literature. While the larger assignment required students to read the books and identify the main characteristics of this particular genre, the teacher spent considerable time introducing this task by using a biographical text in a more transmission-oriented way. For example, the children had difficulty comprehending the syntax and semantics of this particular planned discourse. When reading *José! Born to Dance: The Story of José Limón* by Susana Reich, the teacher asked them the reasons for José becoming famous. The students struggled to find the answer as they read the text. She reminded them to read the first line. Immediately after a student read the sentence, the teacher provided them with a sentence stem as follows: "he became world famous for…" and asked the students: "What did he became famous for?" By scaffolding with this sentence stem, the students are able to find that José was known for being a choreographer. The teacher provided immediate context, producing a new text through the distribution of the biographical picture book. Even though most of the books the students interacted with are multicultural because the subjects are Latina/o figures, it is still being presented as a static text and used for purposes of transmission (see Figure 5.2). As has been noted, this is another example of a text in linguistic form that served for the transmission of content area knowledge.

Figure 5.2 Examples of Biographical Books
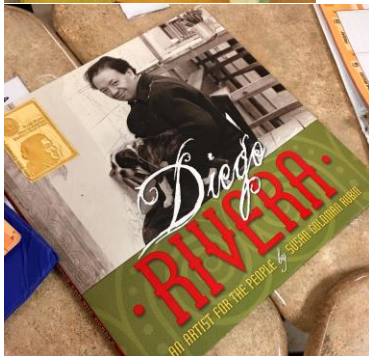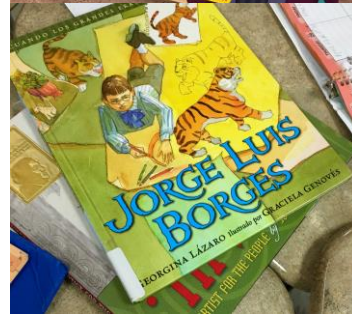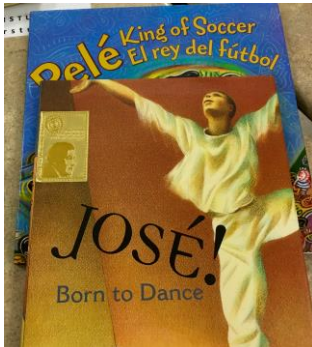
As I have said, during science and social studies instruction, when the emergent

bilinguals learned about a concept in Spanish, such as the types of energy or map

perspectives, the teacher and students first read the textbook and wrote definitions of the

meaning of kinetic and potential energy or of bird's eye view, aerial view, and overhead

view in their science or social studies notebooks. In addition, the bilingual students were

involved in answering handouts with word problems about energy and textbook exercises identifying the different perspectives by definition. Finally, in social studies, when encountering complex words, such as bird's eye view, aerial view, and overhead view, the students relied heavily on translating words into Spanish. Complex syntactical structures in textbooks and handouts are one characteristic of planned discourses in expository texts.

I found that when communicating around linguistic forms of written texts, 1) the teacher modeled by demonstrating new concepts or ideas, 2) the teacher and students learned basic academic facts, and/or 3) the students focused on the form of the word using translation. Thus, when texts take a distributive function, they are used primarily for the transmission of knowledge (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2001b).

Kress and Van Leeuwen (2001b) suggest that individuals, when taking part in a communicative process, are able to make meaning beyond the distribution of texts. Then, when the distribution is interpreted it allows for producing new texts. As shown above, new texts are designed and produced when the teacher uses a planned discourse like that of literary genres in collaboration with images on the bookmark or when the emergent bilinguals interacted in small groups to comprehend literary genres. Collaborative strategies, a particular literacy practice in this classroom, allowed the teacher and students to design and produce new texts. In the next section, I show how alternative modes of texts used in collaboration led to the design and production of new texts.

Designing and Producing Texts

Multimodal texts prompted new ways of teaching and learning in the bilingual classroom. In the section above, I showed the distributive function of texts throughout literacy events in the bilingual classroom. More significantly, the teacher and students in this bilingual classroom constantly designed and produced texts. Based on multimodal theory (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2001b), design is the midpoint between the content (knowledge) and the expression of the text or the means to realize discourses (p. 5). The production of texts is the actual articulation of the event or the material production (p. 6). When students are involved in the design, production, and distribution of a new text, they are more able to understand important concepts studied.

In Ms. Braun's class, the teacher and students engaged in extra linguistic or para-linguistic literacy events, meaning that they engaged in varied forms or modes of texts in the design and production of new texts. For instance, when the class interacted with words in several expository texts, together they produced anchor charts to build up vocabulary in Spanish (see Figure 5.3). When the students merely took the distributive function of the words, they translated words for vocabulary development. In contrast, when the students were designing and producing texts, they noted the function of words and designed and produced anchor charts around the room to express the functions and relationships of words (i.e., synonyms, antonyms, and cognates).

Figure 5.3 Vocabulary Anchor Charts
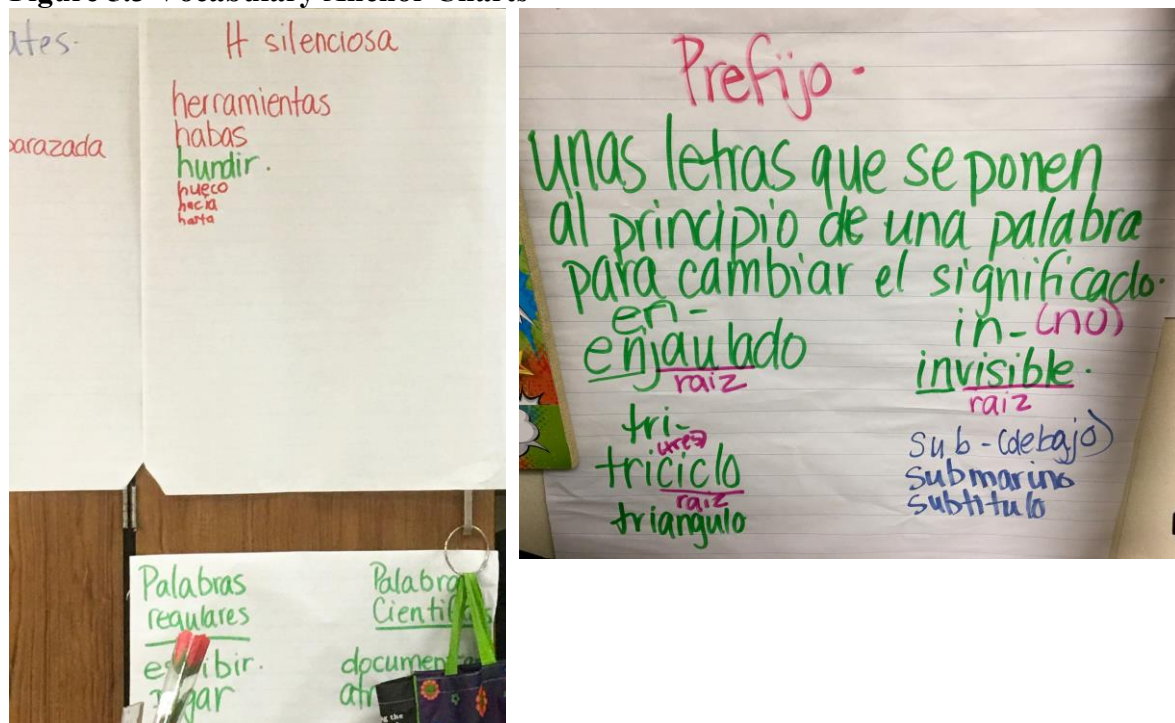
In another example, through the distributive function of texts, the teacher and

students could use primarily planned discourses to identify the main idea in the written

text during language arts class. However, alternatively, the teacher used photographs to

teach this same concept. When the teacher distributed an alternative form of text—

photographs—the emergent bilinguals learned the concept of identifying the main idea in

an expository text. For example in one lesson, she showed on the projector images of a

car, an airplane, a train, and a boat. Then she asked the students under what topic would

they classify the photographs. The students answered transportation. Another group of

photographs included a cow, bluebonnets, a boot, and an armadillo for the topic of Texas.

After practicing this as a whole group and in small groups, the teacher made the text

connection of the similarity with looking for the main idea in an expository text.

Gestures, as an alternative form of text, were also used as the students interacted with expository texts. For example, when the teacher and students referred to different types of energy (potential, kinetic, etc.), they created hand signals for them. Another example occurred one day in science class when the teacher and students represented with their bodies the word apiñar (pack) found in a text they were reading together about Antarctica and how penguins pack together to keep warm (see Figure 5.4).

Figure 5.4 Students Acting Apiñar (to pack)
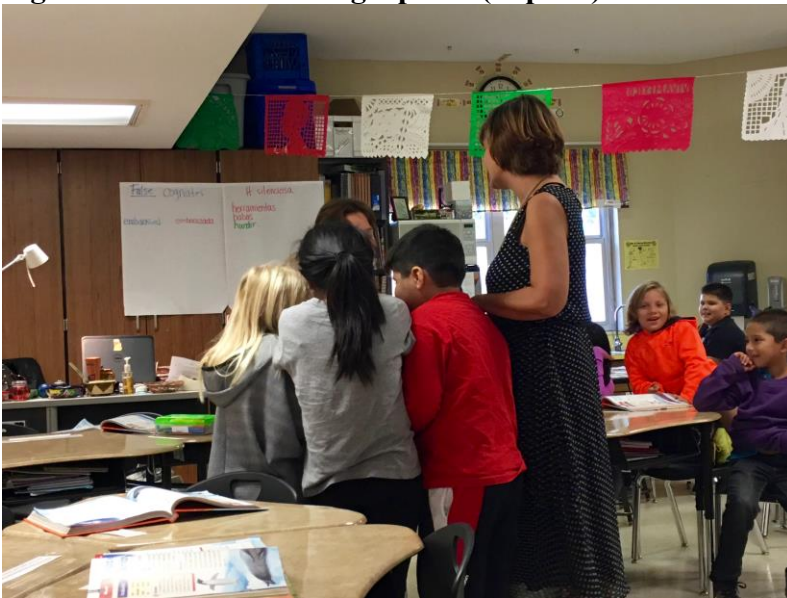
In science and social studies, they also designed and produced many texts. As has been noted, using the distributive function of texts, both the teacher and students list, define, and write the definitions of different concepts. However, I found the following projects (i.e., texts) designed and produced by the students served the purpose of content meaning making:

a) A movie trailer representing the different types of energy

b) A comic strip about a hero representing magnetic energy

c) An anemometer (measures the velocity of wind)

d) Drawings of map perspectives

e) A representation of states of matter with realia (confetti) (see Figure 5.5)

Figure 5.5 Representations of States of Matter with Realia
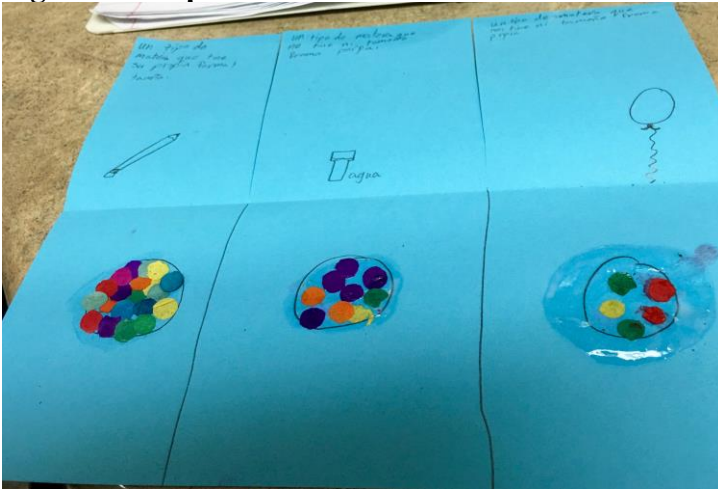
Creating Spaces for Alternate Instructional Practices through the Design of Texts in Biliteracy Events. Next, I focus on microanalyzing two literacy events during the design and production of texts in science: 1) the use of images and photographs in a movie trailer in Spanish and 2) the distribution of the movie trailer to the teacher and bilingual students as a form of repairing its design, including language use. In these two examples, the teacher and students collaborated together and supported each other's learning in a small project that involved the use of videos, photographs, images, realia, and gestures. Most importantly, the students drew from all of their linguistic resources to make meaning of a science concept.

As mentioned, Ms. Braun introduced the concept of energy during the month of October by having students write definitions of different types of energy from their textbook into their notebook in Spanish. The texts in these literacy events took a distributive function, in which the texts were mainly used as transmitters of knowledge. Soon after, throughout November, Ms. Braun initiated other types of activities with alternative modes of texts. When engaging and interacting with a variety of modes of texts, students are able to develop vocabulary by learning the function of words and/or using real-life experiential knowledge.

As described, by introducing gesturing, the students were able to understand the function of the types of energy, not merely the form of the word. For instance, the students illustrated sound waves by waving their arms and hands up and down. When they wanted to gesture potential energy, they moved their arms in the form of a vertical arc, while kinetic energy was gestured as a horizontal half a circle. Students also observed different drawings of real-life situations to determine where the kinetic and potential energies were distributed. In this way, the emergent bilinguals used experiential knowledge to record the answers in their notebooks. Finally, the students experimented with realia such as ramps, books, and small objects (e.g., balls) to also understand the consequences of the energy produced and locate sources of energy through experimentation. By the end of the month, the students had interacted and engaged with and created a multiplicity of texts in the science classroom to be able to comprehend the

concept of energy. In the following, I show the analysis of a literacy event involving the design and production of texts to underscore teacher and student language practices.

Learning about energy by designing movie trailers. During a follow-up interview, Ms. Braun mentioned that she had recently acquired some iPads for classroom use through a small grant. She took advantage of this opportunity and initiated a small project with the students at the end of November hoping to reinforce the concept of energy they had been learning about in science over the past months. The students' assignment was to create a movie trailer—a multimodal informational text—representing the different forms of energy. The objective was for the students to represent these forms of energy with different images found in their classroom context. The following excerpt shows how one small group of emergent bilinguals negotiated the ways that energy should be represented through images and words in their movie trailer. In the following moment, the teacher handed the iPad to the person in the small group who took charge of the device: in this case Gaby. The students at first argued about who was in charge the last time they worked together on the movie trailer. Finally, Gaby took control for a few minutes; she then handed the device to Daisy. The conversation here starts when Gaby is rewriting a word on the storyboard of the movie trailer. Eugenio notices and assures her this is how they wanted the word written. The conversation follows:

1. **Eugenio**: That's what we wanted.

    (Eugenio talking about the text written in the line of the movie trailer)

2. **Daisy**: What are you doing?

(When Gaby started correcting the linguistic text.)

3. **Gaby**: I was writing it.

4. **Daisy**: That was correct.

5. **Gaby**: (***)

6. **Daisy**: Yes, it was Gaby.

7. **Gaby**: (continues working at the storyboard)

8. **Eugenio**: It was right. I found the word right here.

(Showing the anchor chart with the types of energy written in Spanish.)

(Loud background noise.)

9. **Daisy**: Gaby!

(***)

10. **Daisy**: We are not fixing it.

As shown, Eugenio (Spanish-dominant speaker and high-level reader) and Daisy and Gaby (English-dominant speakers) mainly spoke in English when working in small groups to design and produce their movie trailer, which illustrates the power of the English language in dual-language settings (Palmer, 2009). When I followed up with Ms. Braun, she confirmed that students, when working together, indeed mainly spoke in English, which is aligned with what I observed during my time in the classroom.

Thus, it appears that an asymmetrical relationship of the function of languages happens when the students are working together on a project, in which Spanish takes a secondary role. Yet, when using content-area words, the students refer to them in

Spanish. In line 8, Eugenio pointed out how the types of energy are written in an anchor chart the teacher had produced earlier, which was written in Spanish. In the process, he reassured Gaby it was written correctly in their movie trailer. Eugenio and his peers were able to juxtapose earlier texts in the form of an anchor chart to assure Gaby that they have correctly written the form of the Spanish word in the movie trailer. The final product or material used to distribute the trailer is purposefully planned to be in Spanish. When students are able to support each other, monitoring by helping each other write the words in Spanish correctly, it creates new learning opportunities for disciplinary vocabulary development.

A little later in the process, the same group keeps working on the design process of the movie trailer. The group needed to collect more images for the different types of energy. Beyond vocabulary development, this task with its flexibility appears to also enable students to engage in translanguaging practices as they draw and develop texts. Equally important is the way in which the flexibility of creating a movie trailer also enables translanguaging practices and the use of multimodal texts for comprehending the types of energy. In this interaction translations are bracketed:

11. **Tyler**: Take a picture of the lamp.

(Students keep talking around the tablet.)

(Boys continue arguing about whose turn it is.)

12. **Daisy**: Luminosa, it was luminosa when scrolling through the images.

[Light, it was light.]

(Sound of many students and the teacher discussing and working together.)

13. **Daisy**: Then we are all done.

14. **Eugenio**: Es la potencial.

   [It's the potential.]

15. **Eugenio**: Energía sonora y térmica.

   [Sound energy and thermal.]

16. **Daisy**: Térmica, that one is good.

   [Thermal, that one is good.]

17. **Eugenio**: Sí, energía térmica is the one of heat.

   [Yes, thermal energy is the one of heat.]

18. **Eugenio**: We can take a picture of the sun.

19. **Tyler**: No, we can do that later.

(Noise starts picking up, students discussing and working on their videos.)

20. **Gaby**: Video.

21. **Daisy**: I know.

22. **Gaby**: This video (small pause),

23. **Gaby**: is very boring.

24. **Tyler**: Why don't we move outside and take a photo of mine.

(They had assigned each student in the small group to represent each type of energy.)

(Inaudible speaking over each other.)

25. **Eugenio**: We should.

26. **Gaby**: Maybe. We should. We need to go outside anyway.

27. **Tyler**: O.K.

(They take a picture of a lamp for now to show luminosa [light] before they go outside.)

Through this assignment, Ms. Braun introduced a space where there was flexibility of language use when designing and producing a new form of text. In lines 14, 15, 16, and 17, the students used the disciplinary vocabulary in Spanish when designing the movie trailer. As the students ran their movie trailer, they checked the images representing each type of energy. Translanguaging not only involves different linguistic registers but also the use of a multiplicity of modes for understanding content (García & Wei, 2013). Eugenio expanded on the use of the disciplinary content word on line 17 and added the definition of it, offering a new possibility for representing light energy. In lines 18 and 24 the students together planned to show a picture or image of the sun to represent light energy. They introduced experiential knowledge and visual images for deeper meaning-making processes. Finally, Eugenio asked the teacher if they could go outside to take a picture of the sun:

1. **Eugenio**: ¿Podemos hacer el sol ahorita?

   [Can we do the sun one right now?]

2. **Ms. Braun**: Si lo puedes ver. ¿Crees que lo puedes ver ahorita?

   [If you can see it. Do you think you can see it right now?]

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3. **Ms. Braun**: Vamos, ve a ver.

   [Go on and see.]

4. **Ms. Braun**: Solo una persona para que agarre la puerta para que no se te

   cierre por favor.

   [Please don't forget one person to hold the door, so it doesn't close.]

5. **Lucía**: ¿Qué pasó? ¿Estaba el sol o no?

   [What happened? Where you able to see the sun?]

6. **Eugenio**: No.

(The group keeps the picture of the lamp for now.)

In this exchange, Ms. Braun and Eugenio had a conversation entirely in Spanish
to discuss the possibility of repairing their movie trailer by introducing a new image.
Since many interactions between the students were in English, the teacher's intention to
use all Spanish is purposefully planned in most interactions with students during science
instruction. This way, if the English language dominates in peer interactions, she was
able to introduce Spanish when she directed her feedback to them. In this interaction, she
expected the students to produce the design all in Spanish. Immediately after the students
went back to their small group and began repairing their messages in English to Spanish
in their movie trailer. In this way, she promotes biliteracy development through the
maintenance and development of Spanish.

Repairing messages through the distribution of texts. The audience and ways
that individuals choose to distribute texts have an effect on past, present, and future

interactions with other texts (Durán, 2016; Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2001b). When this interaction occurs, a new perspective is introduced and new ways of altering and improving texts are designed and produced. The distribution of any text allows for it to be repaired through the interaction between the producers and the receivers of the text, such as the one cited earlier where Eugenio offered a new way of representing light energy that would be more visible and understandable for his audience. Also, alternative material such as the iPad and the interactive mode of the linguistic text in the movie trailer introduced new ways of repairing texts.

The next section introduces Cristian, Cora, Joshua, and Cheryl's small group interaction when working together on their movie trailer. Cristian and Cheryl were identified as Spanish-dominant speakers in the small group, and Joshua and Cora as English-dominant speakers. The following interaction occurred when they were distributing one of their first productions of the movie trailer to me (the researcher). Joshua started by sounding out loud the first line of the movie trailer, "Manhattan films." In their movie trailer, this line signals the name of the production company. Ms. Braun assigned New York's five boroughs as names for the small groups. In a semi-structured interview, Ms. Braun shared with me that she wanted the students to expand their knowledge of places around the nation that they had not visited nor had knowledge of. The students named their production company using this same name. In the following transcript, words in quotes indicate the narrative the group had planned for their movie trailer:

1. **Joshua**: "Manhattan films."//

2. **Researcher**: O.K.

3. **Joshua**: "Carlos travels to find energía."

[energy]

(giggles)

4. **Joshua**: It's so funny how energía [energy] is Spanish and everything else is English (giggles continue in the background).

5. **Researcher**: "…wanted energía [energy]."

6. **Researcher**: You think so Joshua?

7. **Cora**: "Joshua was looking for less than an ordinary life."

8. **Cora**: "outside his small town."//

When the students were sounding out loud the lines in the movie trailer, Joshua noticed that the word energía (energy) was repeated in Spanish. He commented, "It's so funny how energía (energy) is Spanish and everything else is English." This was a Spanish academic term they had frequently used during science class. During classroom interactions, the word "energía" had been used orally in mini lessons when writing out answers in handouts and copied and defined in their science notebooks. The students inside the text of the movie trailer also used the word "energía." The word energía seemed to travel from literacy events that involved linguistic modes of text to the production of the movie trailer, a multimodal visual and linguistic text. In the lines of the movie trailer, the minority language is valued and noticeable. Even when most of their

interaction at the moment of designing and producing the movie trailer was in English, a science content word in their lines was projected in Spanish. Similar to the design and production of the movie trailer, when distributing the movie trailer, the function of the word "energía" became a tool for introducing more Spanish into asymmetrical conversations in which students drew primarily from their English linguistic resources.

Another example where the students used all of their linguistic resources is when a Latina student in the small group, Cheryl, finished up the conversation above by answering my question about the types of energy missing in their movie trailer. Cheryl told me that the only energy missing was "la última," or the last type of energy on the list Ms. Braun had provided to them. She changed the noun to a relative pronoun and still voiced it in Spanish. In other words, the students were able to translanguage when distributing a multimodal text.

After distributing the text to me, this small group distributed it to the teacher. The following excerpt shows Ms. Braun giving immediate feedback to her students and proposing an alternative way of writing their lines while she watched their movie trailer production.

1. **Ms. Braun**: ¿Cómo vamos? ¿Puedo verlo desde el principio? ¿Vamos a ver como nos va desde el principio?

   [How are we doing? Can I watch it from the start? Let's see how it goes from the start?]

   (…)

(Students talking in the background working on their videos.)

2. **Ms. Braun**: Pero yo no sé qué tipo de energía estoy viendo.

   [But I don't know what type of energy I am watching.]

3. **Ms. Braun**: Tienes que decirme cuál es el tipo de energía, ¿verdad?

   [You need to tell me what type of energy, right?]

4. **Ms. Braun**: ¿De acuerdo?

   [Do you agree?]

(Students nod in agreement.)

5. **Ms. Braun**: Pero vas muy bien.

   [But, you are doing very well.]

(researcher and students giggle)

6. **Ms. Braun**: Aunque pongas una…algo que dice energía térmica ¿verdad? Para que vean. Eso también podría ayudarles.

   [Even if you put (pause) something that says thermal energy, right? You see. That could be of help.]

7. **Ms. Braun**: Pero tienen que estar viendo qué es el tipo de energía que estamos viendo, ¿de acuerdo?

   [But you need to see what type of energy we are watching, do you agree?]

8. **Ms. Braun**: Vamos arreglando eso. Asegurando que tienen eso.

   [Let's keep working on that. Making sure that you have that.]

The distribution of the movie trailer influenced the final product. When the students distributed their movie trailer production to the teacher, she spoke all in Spanish. In lines 2, 3, 5, and 6 the teacher repeated in different ways how the students should add meaning behind the images through the movie trailer's lines when she stated she could not see clearly the different types of energy, asked students to state the type of energy, suggested an example of how to state the type of energy, and declared the importance of stating the type of energy. Through repetition and expansion, she enhanced the need to structure the linguistic text in the movie trailer and deepen the understanding of the concept of energy. When giving feedback after the distribution of the text, the teacher was able to use the Spanish language, which the children seem not to select for most interactions in the classroom, for their biliteracy development. Most importantly, she made sure the students comprehended the science content behind the production of the movie trailer.

In sum, the Spanish language used by the teacher when assessing the students' assignment and giving instructions showed one way the teacher focused on maintaining the minority language. When she addressed the students in Spanish, she gave priority to this register and emphasized how it can be used as a linguistic resource. This was a personal and institutional intention (e.g., dual-language program requirements where science is taught in Spanish). It also highlighted the agency of the teacher (Yip & García, 2015) and the function of her Spanish language use with the students.

Conclusion

The teacher's and students' discourse in Spanish and English, as well as their actions and reactions, act as a resource when interacting around multimodal texts. Designing and producing texts across content areas facilitated the navigation of biliteracy practices, an important skill for emergent bilingual children. The distribution of texts shows us that new texts can be designed and produced, diminishing prescriptive linguistic and instructional practices. When students distributed the text to me, they noticed their disciplinary vocabulary development in Spanish. Moreover, it shows us that through distribution, new texts can also be designed and produced, diminishing prescriptive linguistic practices due to accountability pressures. So, even if the students must be tested in English, most of their peer interactions are in English, and their design process is mainly in English, at the moment they distribute it to the teacher, she highlighted the importance of designing a product in Spanish. Also, the students resourced multimodal texts for using Spanish.

In sum, Ms. Braun's multiliteracies approach in a bilingual classroom enhanced the emergent bilinguals' learning process. Ms. Braun drew from multimodal texts to provide a flexible bilingual pedagogy (Blackledge & Creese, 2010), offering possibilities for emergent bilinguals to access language and academic content in the language practices of their choice while also considering the importance of highlighting Spanish language practices. These language practices are enhanced through the use of multimodal texts. It gave the students the possibility to be creative and draw from all their linguistic

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resources in the creation of multimodal texts. Multimodal texts are not only designed and

produced within one content area. In Ms. Braun's classroom, multimodal texts traveled

across content areas, creating opportunities for flexible and dynamic linguistic and

instructional practices. I will now turn to ways in which multimodal texts were

juxtaposed within and across content areas in this bilingual classroom.

Chapter 6: "Texturing" with Multimodal Texts Across the Language Arts, Science,

and Social Studies Curricula

In the following chapter, I build from my analysis of a multiliteracies pedagogical approach and address the juxtaposition of multimodal texts across language arts, science, and social studies' literacy events and practices in the classroom. This chapter will address the following question: *How does a third-grade bilingual teacher interact with emergent bilinguals around texts within and across a language arts and science/social studies curricula?* To begin, I provide a thick description of the juxtaposition of texts happening within and across content areas. In what follows, I focus on the bidirectionality of intertextuality and the engagement of the multiplicity of texts in intertextual connections. I also present a microanalysis on the social construction of intertextuality. This microanalysis is based on the design, production, and distribution of texts from the literacy events and practices analyzed in the previous chapter. Finally, I present my findings on the linguistic and literacy practices happening during the juxtaposition of texts.

"Texturing" Within and Across Content Areas

I use intertextuality theory or the "juxtaposition of texts" (Bloome & Egan-Robertson, 1993) to analyze how students relate multimodal texts during literacy events and practices in the content areas—in other words, how they practice "texturing" (Fairclough, 1999), where meaning-making processes move within or across content areas. Ms. Braun's third-grade dual-language classroom is departmentalized. She teaches

one period of Spanish language arts and divides her science/social studies time between two periods during the day according to the objectives of the grade level team. During informal conversations, she reported the influence of standardized testing in regard to the greater amount of time science is taught over social studies (Menken, 2008; Ovando, Combs, & Collier, 2011). Nevertheless, there are instances where Ms. Braun takes advantage of the conversation and discusses social studies themes and topics during a language arts lesson. In one instance, when reading an informational text about Christopher Columbus in a language arts class, the students became interested in Columbus's place of birth. The class continued and talked in-depth about Italy's geographical and cultural characteristics, a social studies topic. In Ms. Braun's classroom, it is common for classroom discussions surrounding texts to cross over the subject area lessons—in other words, for "texturing" to happen (Fairclough, 1999). When communicating around written texts, examples of ideas, discussions, and the construction of knowledge traveling within and across different disciplines such as the one just described occurred unintentionally in her classroom. In Ms. Braun's classroom, the teacher and students acted and reacted discursively within traditional (bi)literacy events happening during the teaching and learning processes of all content areas.

To be able to identify the "juxtaposition of texts," I first mapped out the multimodal texts used in the literacy events in each of the disciplines: language arts, science, and social studies. Then, I identified when a text juxtaposed across time and space within and across disciplines. The following is an analysis of the multiple texts

used, the bidirectionality of intertextuality, and the main instructional and learning functions for the social construction of intertextuality within and across disciplines.

Multiliteracies and intertextuality. Intertextuality theories in relation to autonomous models of literacy show how texts mainly juxtapose in linguistic modes. Literary written texts reference words, phrases, content, or text structure from other linguistic texts (Bloome & Egan-Robertson, 1993, p. 306). For example, Winifred Conkling, author of the children's book *Sylvia and Aki*, begins each chapter with a Japanese or Mexican proverb (Conkling, 2014). This book juxtaposes proverbs familiar to individuals with Japanese and Latina/o background (López et al., 2015) . In this bilingual classroom, the social construction of texts happened in interaction during instruction and learning processes. Furthermore, a variety of modes were used for the social construction of meaning.

The juxtaposition of texts within and across content areas in this case study involved multiple texts such as articles, notebooks, children's picture books, anchor charts, gestures, photographs, realia, drawings, and other written texts in the forms of poems and song lyrics. One example of an intertextuality construction with linguistic and visual modes of texts happened during a science lesson. To build on this social construction of intertextuality, it is imperative to know that during an earlier class instruction in language arts, Ms. Braun taught the concept of the main idea of an expository text by categorizing photographs (see Chapter 5). Two days after, while reading a passage about seals and whales in their science textbook, Ms. Braun initiated

the construction of intertextuality by referring to the previous activity of classifying

photographs and asking students to recall the purpose or reason behind it:

Ms. Braun: El otro día yo les enseñé una variedad de fotografias.

[I showed you a variety of photographs a few days ago.]

¿Qué estabamos hablando cuando vimos esas fotografías?

[What were we discussing when we saw those photographs?]

Vimos unas diferentes y luego tuvimos que decidir algo, ¿Qué era lo que

estabamos decidiendo?

[We saw a few different ones and we had to decide something. What is it

that we needed to decide?]

Habla con tu grupo por favor. ¿Qué recuerdas de esa lección?

[Talk to your group. What do you remember from that lesson?]

(Students discuss in small groups.)

Ms. Braun: So, vimos algunas fotografías, diferentes fotografías y tuvimos que

determinar ¿Qué? A base de las fotografías.

[So, we saw some photographs, different photographs, and what did we

need to determine?]

(Students keep discussing in small groups.)

(…)

Ms. Braun: ¿Qué era lo que estabamos determinando?¿Gaby?

[What did we want to determine? Gaby?]

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Gaby: El tema.

[The theme.]

Ms. Braun: Mmmmm, tema no. No es tema, porque tema, cariño…tema es lo que hablamos de narrativas, una lección. Esto es más sobre información. Me lo dan de otra manera. ¿Cristian?

[Mmmmm, not the theme. It is not the theme, because theme, sweetheart…theme is what we talk about in narratives, a lesson. This is more about information. Can you describe it in a different way? Cristian?]

Cristian: La idea principal.

[The main idea.]

Ms. Braun: Exacto. Estabamos buscando…la idea principal. ¿Verdad?

[Exactly. We were looking, Joshua, for the main idea. Right?]

In this example, the teacher and students juxtapose texts through their interactions with and use of various modes of texts: visual, oral, and written. Previously, photographs were used to understand the concept of the main idea in language arts class, and now they are revisited again as a resource for understanding and deepening disciplinary knowledge by identifying the main idea of a science text. Accordingly, when emergent bilinguals and teachers make intertextuality connections, they practice it through a variety of texts.

Bidirectionality of intertextuality. In the literacy events analyzed, intertextuality across disciplines happens bidirectionally. Bidirectionality theory in bilingualism and biliteracy development has been documented by a number of established scholars in the

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field (Dworin, 2003; Reyes, 2006; Reyes & Moll, 2008) highlighting the exchanges of linguistic and literacy practices between home, school, and community for meaning-making processes (Fránquiz, Leija, & Garza, 2015, p. 153). While traditionally linguistic, cultural, and literacy practices consider only one direction when traveling (from home to school), bidirectional theory has documented and theorized that the exchange occurs in both directions, with home exchanges being influenced by school experiences and vice versa (Escamilla & Hopewell, 2010; Fránquiz, 2012; Fránquiz et al., 2015; Gort, 2006; Reyes & Azuara, 2008).

Similar to bidirectionality in bilingual language and biliteracy practices, there exists a flexible bidirectionality in how texts travel in Ms. Braun's classroom for language and content learning. The "juxtaposition of texts" appears to occur in many directions. In this way, multimodal texts travel from language arts to science but also from science to language arts, and the same text may be juxtaposed within language arts or science. The use of anchor charts is a type of multimodal text constantly used as a resource in the classroom to build up vocabulary within and across the different disciplines observed. Take the case of Ms. Braun referring to a rollercoaster to introduce the concept of mechanical energy. In the classroom, there is an anchor chart of a narrative plot with the same form of a rollercoaster in which the narrative goes up to a climax and then down to the solution of the problem in the narrative (see Figure 6.1).

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Figure 6.1 Narrative Plot Anchor Chart
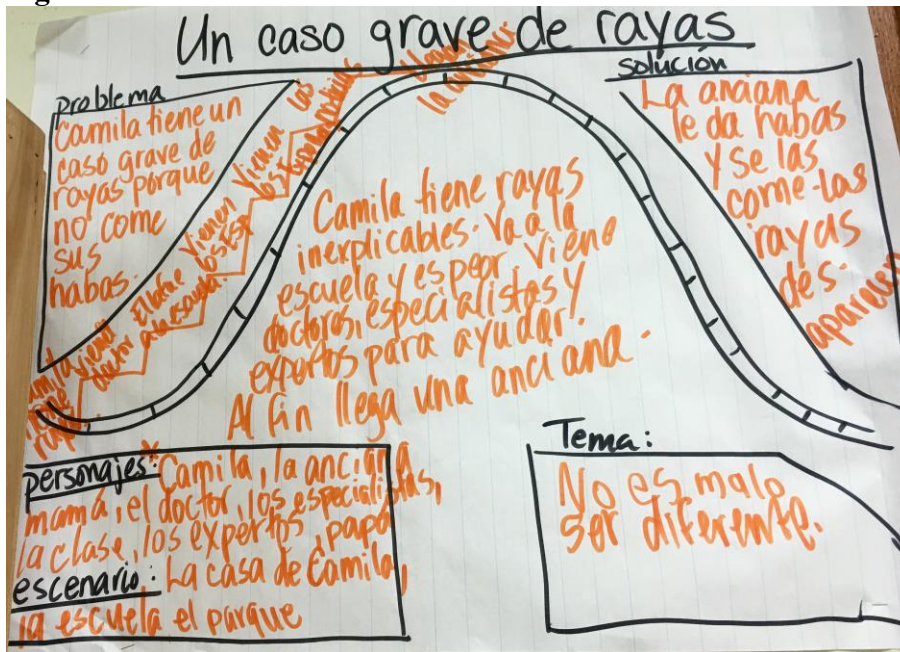
In the below passage, Ms. Braun juxtaposes the narrative plot anchor chart text above to scaffold disciplinary scientific knowledge. The teacher is the one who initiates the juxtaposition of texts; however, soon after, the bilingual students in the classroom follow her example to support their comprehension of a science word problem. One student is struggling to understand the word montaña rusa in the mechanical energy word problem worksheet (see Figure 4.2):

> **Ms. Braun**: So, en este papel vamos a estar hablando de la energía potencial y la
> energía cinética.
>
> > [So, in this handout we are going to be talking about potential and kinetic
> > energy.]

Ms. Braun: So, el primer dibujo ahí. ¿Qué tenemos en el primer dibujo? Cheryl ¿Qué hay en ese primer dibujo? ¿Qué tenemos aqui?

[So, this first picture here. What do we have in this first picture? Cheryl, what do you find in the first picture? What do we have here?]

Cheryl: Una niña subiendose (small pause)…

[A small girl getting on (small pause)….]

Ms. Braun: Perdon, una niña y ¿Qué esta haciendo la niña?

[Excuse me, a little girl. And, what is she doing?]

Cheryl: Se, se está subiendo, está subiendo, se está subiendo en un (small pause)…

[She, she is going up, going up, she is going up the (small pause)…]

Ms. Braun: ¿Esta qué perdon?

[Excuse me, what is she doing?]

(The students are whispering in their small groups.)

In the interaction above, Cheryl is describing what the girl is doing on the rollercoaster and making meaning of mechanical energy through the drawing in the handout.

Student 1: (A student from her small group helps Cheryl) Está arriba de un carrosel.

[She is on top of the carosel.]

Ms. Braun: ¿Qué esta haciendo la niña?

[What is the girl doing?]

Cheryl: Se está subiendo en (small pause)….

[She is going up the…(small pause…)]

Student 1: Un corrusel.

[A carosel.]

Cheryl: ¿Un corrusel? (Directing question to student 1.)

[A corosel?]

Ms. Braun: ¿En qué?

[Into what?]

Cheryl: Un corrusel.

[A corusel.]

Student 2: Carrusel.

[A carousel.]

Cheryl: Un carrusel.

[A carousel.]

In the passage above, students work together to help Cheryl make sense of the drawing in the handout. They support each other's vocabulary development by connecting to a cultural experience (a carousel) and translanguaging.

Ms. Braun: ¿Carrusel? No, ¿Qué es esto? Esto lo tenemos por ejemplo (refers to plot anchor chart in the room) aquí.

[Carousel? No, what is this? This is one example of it?]

Student 2: Oh ahí, yeah!

    [Oh right there, yeah!]

Ms. Braun: Este es un ejemplo aquí. En estás tambien tenemos esto…(again referring to the plot) ¿Cómo se llama esta cosa?

    [Here is an example. We have it here, too…(again referring to the plot)

    What do you call this thing?]

Student 2's instant enthusiasm for comprehending the relationship between the two texts (a carousel in the anchor chart and worksheet) is how he acknowledges Ms. Braun's intertextuality initiation. This intertextuality connection supports the students' understanding of movement and energy.

(Students continued their discussion in their small group.)

Student 1: Rollercoaster, but what was in Spanish? How do you say rollercoaster in Spanish? (directing the question to me [the researcher])

Ms. Braun: ¿Qué es eso? Habla con todos. Habla con tu grupo. ¿Qué es eso de esa primera fotografía.

    [What is that? Talk to all the students. Talk to your group. What is that in

    the first picture?]

(Soon after, I answered Student 1, giving him the word: montaña rusa. Student 2 heard my answer and helped the rest of the students build a sentence to answer in the whole group discussion: La niña está subida en una montaña rusa. [The girl is on top of the rollercoaster.] (They practice the answer together.)

As seen above, in their small group interaction, a student pointed to the plot anchor chart and informed the small group what it was: a rollercoaster. They discussed in the small group and used me, the researcher, as a resource to find the correct word, montaña rusa. When the students and teacher discussed as a whole group, this particular small group answered out loud: La niña anda subida en una montaña rusa (The girl is on top of the rollercoaster). Immediately after, the teacher asked the whole group to repeat montaña rusa and affirmed that they have talked about montaña rusa in the plot anchor chart. She adds: La acción va subiendo y luego baja la acción. Como en una montaña rusa (The action plot goes up and then down. Like a rollercoaster). She continued the science lesson and followed up with the class to find the potential energy in the image of the rollercoaster. "Is it on top or bottom of the rollercoaster?" she asked. This is one example of a juxtaposition of texts traveling from language arts to science in a bidirectional way.

Fránquiz et al. (2015) argue how Dworin's bidirectionality theory lacks the conditions to promote bidirectional language and literacy practices. In response, the authors suggest how a group of bilingual teachers, graduates from a master's program at a university located in central Texas, created the conditions for bidirectionality to happen fluidly and dynamically in their classrooms, thus promoting emergent bilinguals' use of cultural and linguistic resources in their instructional practices. Accordingly, multimodal texts in the classroom of Ms. Braun, a graduate from this same master's program, traveled in-between content areas fluidly and dynamically. In sum, Ms. Braun and her students connected multimodal texts within and across content areas bidirectionally.

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Intertextuality within the disciplines. When analyzing the interrelationship of texts within the same content area, the findings suggest how Ms. Braun and her students socially construct and juxtapose texts a) to review a concept or topic students have learned in earlier classes, b) for Spanish vocabulary development, and/or to c) reaffirm an earlier learned concept or skill.

Language arts. In language arts class, an example of the juxtaposition of texts happened while designing and producing a new text in the form of a poster. Students worked in small groups to identify the main characteristics of an expository text. Together, the students highlighted, circled, and noted each of the components in the expository text attached to their poster (see Figure 6.2).

Figure 6.2 Expository Text Poster

To follow the teacher's instructions and requirements, one of the students asked for a list of all the necessary characteristics that should be included in the poster. Another

student referred to the anchor chart created a day earlier outlining all the components of an expository text—including title, subtitle, images, captions, etc.—reviewing the concepts learned about the characteristics of expository texts (see Figure 6.3).

Figure 6.3 Anchor Chart of Expository Text

Additionally, the students utilized cognate and synonym–antonym anchor charts for identifying challenging words in expository texts. For example, when studying the characteristics of expository texts, the class discussed the meaning of the prefix "sub" in subtítulo (subtitle) to be able to understand where the subtitle is positioned in the text. First, the teachers asked the students to relate the word subtítulo to the word submarino

(submarine). She connected it to previous or experiential knowledge the students may have had with the word submarine. After the students discussed in small groups, Ms. Braun asked them to share with the class. One student answered that it meant underneath. The conversation follows:

Ms. Braun: Debajo del título. Excellent.

[Underneath the title. Excellent.]

So, el prefijo "sub" significa ¿Qué?

[So, the prefix "sub" means, what?]

Students: Abajo, debajo.

[Below, underneath]

Ms. Braun: Debajo de algo. De acuerdo.

[Yes. Underneath the title.]

So, vamos a poner esto debajo de algo. (as she points to the prefix "sub" in the anchor chart and the word submarino (submarine)) (see Figure 5.3)

[So, let's add this to underneath something.]

Ms. Braun: "Sub" como submarino.

["Sub", like submarine.]

Juxtaposing anchor charts with expository texts supported the emergent bilinguals' Spanish vocabulary development. When encountering new words in texts, the teacher pointed out the prefixes and suffixes in words and referred to anchor charts with the same prefixes and suffixes.

Finally, in the class the students acted out words to understand their meaning. On one occasion when reading a text about planets, the students gestured cerca and lejos (near and far-away) to underscore how close or far way Mars is from planet Earth.

Science. The use of models is one way that the emergent bilinguals make sense of science concepts in Ms. Braun's classroom. Models are socially constructed in the class as representations of discourse (knowledge). Scientists refer to and represent objects and/or abstract concepts to understand and construct new knowledge. In the science class, the emergent bilinguals have been studying about the water cycle through a representational image of a model and juxtaposing the discourse with the model. After they learned about the water cycle model, the teacher initiated a new juxtaposition of texts when she asked about the process of the water cycle. She referred to this earlier learned concept represented and asked the students to represent the water cycle by using gestures (a third text). The students motioned a big circle with their hands.

The students also made intertextual connections to the function of models and the reasons scientists use them. In this lesson, the students are looking at the drawings on a handout to identify possible points of kinetic and potential energy. The students have difficulty findings points of energy in a drawing of a towing truck. So, the teacher wanted to introduce a model to explain.

Before she introduced the model, Ms. Braun asked the students for the meaning of this concept. In small groups, the students discussed the meaning of models. Ms. Braun hinted to the students to find it in their notebooks. In this moment, the students

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juxtaposed a text learned earlier in science class. While the students were finding the definition of models, she built one with string and a small ball.

When regrouping and discussing as a class, the students answered that models are used for representations of small and really large things. Ms. Braun added some examples of scientific models, such as cell and volcano models. Then she went on to demonstrate mechanical energy through the small model she had made in class (see figures 6.4 and 6.5):

> **Ms. Braun**: Aquí, si uso este modelo aquí. ¿La bola tiene energía potencial?
>
> > [Here, if I use this model here. The ball has potential energy?]
>
> **Students**: No.
>
> **Ms. Braun**: Pero necesita la grua levantar la pelota y aquí es donde está la energía potencial. (showing using the model) (see Figure 6.4)
>
> > [But the towing truck needs to pull up the ball, and then this is where the
> >
> > potential energy is.]
>
> Pero aquí (leaving the ball hanging) no tiene energía potencial hasta que la grua lo levanta y luego lo suelta…
>
> > [But here (leaves the ball hanging) it doesn't have energy until the truck
> >
> > pulls it up and then drops it.] (see Figure 6.5)

Figure 6.4 Model of Mechanical Energy 1   **Figure 6.5 Model of Mechanical Energy 2**

In this intertextual connection, the students juxtaposed the text of the model and the text in form of a handout to understand the concept of potential energy.

Other science concepts are represented through gestures in intertextual connections. When referring to earlier concepts learned about the phases of matter, the emergent bilinguals signaled gas and water through hand signals (see Figure 4.5). The teacher also made intertextual connections using photographs to reaffirm the different phases of matter (see Chapter 5).

Last, intertextual connections also happen when the students are designing and producing texts. When the bilingual students were designing their science movie trailer representing the different types of energy, they referred to an anchor chart listing the types of energy and used gestures to reaffirm the disciplinary knowledge learned (see Chapter 5).

Social Studies. Intertextual connections in social studies also occurred, reinforcing concepts learned. After studying the landforms in their textbooks, the teacher projected a map, and different students identified a plateau, a canyon, caves, and others

by pointing them out on the map. The students also explored new geographical landforms when reading an expository text about Christopher Columbus. The students read that Christopher Columbus was born in Italy. Then the teacher mentioned that Italy looks like a boot and took out an atlas to show them Columbus's place of birth. They first discussed the shape of the country like a bota (boot) and not bote (boat), leading into Spanish vocabulary development. The teacher and the emergent bilinguals discussed Italy's geography juxtaposing the text about landforms they had studied earlier in social studies.

The teacher also initiated an intertextual connection with a city near Genova, Verona, the setting for the famous play "Romeo and Juliet." The students then diverted into a rich classroom conversation about Italy as the residence place of the Pope, the worldwide leader of the Catholic religion as follows:

Ms. Braun: La capital de Italia es Roma y está aquí por el mar. Aquí también está Vatican City y este es un lugar donde está el Papa. El Papa, ¿Sabes quién es el papa?

[Italy's capital is Rome and it's near the ocean. In here you can also found Vatican City where the Pope lives. The Pope, do you know who is the pope?]

Carlos: Yo sí sé.

[I know who he is.]

Ms. Braun: No es una papa (refiriendose a la comida) sino es un hombre de verdad de la Iglesia Católica. En la Ciudad Vaticano hay unos guardias que les dicen guardias suizos. Quería que vieras como son ellos porque es muy interesante en mi opinion (Ms. Braun va por su iPad para mostrarles imágenes de guardias suizos).

[It's not a potato (a cognate word in Spanish) instead he is a real man from the Catholic Church. In Vatican City there are some guards called swiss guards. (Ms. Braun gets her iPad to project images of the swiss guards)]

(She continues) So, Vatican City es el país mas pequeño del mundo. Solo es, ¿Cómo qué te diré? Como Sunset Valley. Todo lo que es Sunset Valley. Así de chiquito es Vatican City y es donde está el papa y los hombres que sirven de guardias ahí. Son hombres que se visten de esta manera (mostrando las imágenes en el proyector). Estos son los guardias.

[So, Vatican City is the smallest country in the world. It's like, how can I explain? Like Sunset Valley. All Sunset Valley. That small is Vatican City and its where you find the pope and the men that guard him. They are men that look like this (showing images on the projector). Those are the guards.]

Carlos raises his hand and says: Es un lugar chiquito como Sunset Valley que está adentro de Austin.

[It's a small place like Sunset Valley that is inside Austin.]

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Ms. Braun: Yeah, ¿verdad? Y es igual que Vatican City. Es una parte, un pedacito que esta adentro de Roma. Estos son los guardias que cuidan a esta Ciudad Vaticana, ¿O.K.?

> [**Yeah, right**? It's the same as Vatican City. It's only a part, a piece inside Rome. These are the guards that take care of Vatican City, O.K.?]

Carlos recognizes and acknowledges the relationship between Vatican City and Sunset Valley. Through this relationship, he understands and makes meaning of a new geographical space that he is not familiar with it. The teacher expands and discusses geography through juxtaposition of an expository text and geographical landmarks.

Intertextuality across disciplines. This study also demonstrates intertextuality connections across content areas. Its main functions in the classroom are a) to understand new concepts or deepen knowledge, b) to introduce concepts and skills, and/or c) to relate a concept to experiential knowledge. Examples of intertextual connections are as follows. There were at least 34 examples of texturing across the content areas; they occurred in a wide range of content lessons and moved in bidirectional ways across the different content areas and between home and school. Below I will share a few examples, each in turn with a brief description and some examples of the kinds of discourse and evidence of engagement with deep content knowledge that emerged from these opportunities to co-construct meaning through intertextual connections.

On one occasion, the students learned about the Day of the Dead in social studies. The teacher showed an informational video about the main components of an

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altar. Then, they discussed in class and shared their own experiences about what they saw

on the video and how they experienced building altars in their own lives. They talked

about pan muerto (Day of the Dead bread), photographs, calaveras de azúcar (sugar

skulls), flor de cempazuchi (a type of flower), papel picado (perforated paper), etc. In the

discussion, the students also drew from their experiential knowledge, such as when one

student explained how he has seen agua bendita (holy water) on the altars. Afterward, the

teacher asked the students to write down in their notebooks a summary of what they

watched in the video. A few days later during language arts class, Ms. Braun introduced a

new type of writing genre: literary narratives called calaveras (see Chapter 4).

Intertextual connections with learned concepts about the Day of the Dead supported the

learning of a new skill in language arts: writing a calavera as a literary narrative (see

Figure 4.1). As mentioned in Chapter 4, the students wrote narrative texts about a

deceased loved relative. In this narrative, among the teacher's requirements, the students

needed to add the favorite foods of their deceased relative, such as those you add to a Day

of the Dead altar and that they had seen in the video. Finally during a brief conversation I

had with a small group when writing their narratives, we talked about the similarities and

differences between Halloween and the Day of the Dead. The students made a new

intertextual connection and shared with me how they had learned about the Day of the

Dead from books they had found in the library.

Another intertextuality connection across content areas in Ms. Braun's classroom

was also through the use of models as texts in science and social studies classes (see the

use of models in the section "Intertextuality within content areas"). When the concept of energy was introduced in science, the teacher initiated a juxtaposition of texts by referring to the models used in social studies representing different landforms, such as those of volcanoes. A text from one content area is used to understand a new concept in science.

In intertextual connections from science to language arts, the teacher projects a photograph of the planet Earth as the focus of the lesson and as a strategy to make connections with previous knowledge. The emergent bilinguals discuss the shape of the earth, and one student suggests the word esfera to describe it. In small groups, a student whose native language is English points out how esfera may be a "Christmas thing." The teacher referred to the classroom's cognate anchor chart and reminded the students that esfera is a cognate word for sphere, too. Vocabulary development in Spanish drawing from translanguaging practices sustained deepening knowledge in science.

An intertextual connection with language arts and science supported learning new scientific concepts when the teacher used a plot anchor chart to understand energy in a wheel of fortune (see the section "Bidirectionality in intertextual connections"). Science skills also became useful in language arts through intertextual connections. When reading an expository text about science experiments, the students practiced their scientific skills by spinning a globe to identify how many times it lands on water or earth (see Chapter 4). This text is also bidirectional from language arts to social studies. In language arts, the students learned about captions on photographs, and they noted how the color blue

identifies the water equivalent to the globe they used in the scientific experiment. A bidirectional intertextual connection related to the one described is the introduction of another literary genre—comic strips—used to understand and deepen knowledge about magnetic energy in science (see Figure 4.4).

In Chapter 4, I explored the use of multimodal texts in language arts when the teacher and students used photographs to understand the main idea of a text. When the students were practicing how to identify the main idea in photographs, the teacher used themes, topics, and concepts learned in science. Thus, the intertextual connection of scientific concepts again reinforced the emergent bilinguals' learning processes in language arts.

Lastly, during science class when building an anemometer (a weather instrument that measures the velocity of wind), the teacher pointed out to the students that she was going to embody a procedural text such as the ones they had read and learned in language arts class (see "Intertextuality and unplanned discourses" below). Ms. Braun says, "A ver so esto es como un texto instructivo. Yo les voy a estar dando instrucciones para hacer este anemómetro" [So, this is going to be like a procedural text. I am going give you the instructions to build this anemometer].

All of the above examples illustrate the pedagogical power of texturing across content areas and drawing on multimodality in texts to understand new concepts or deepen knowledge, to introduce concepts and skills, and to relate a concept to experiential knowledge. Following is an example of how intertextuality is socially

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constructed by the teacher and students in the class. I used microanalysis to understand

the social construction of the juxtaposition of texts.

The Social Construction of Intertextuality

According to Bloome and Egan-Robertson's (1993) social construction of

intertextuality, the juxtaposition of texts has to be proposed by the participants, responded

to and acknowledged through discourse in interaction, and finally have social

significance to the classroom community. The following subsection demonstrates the

social construction of intertextuality during literacy events in Ms. Braun's classroom.

A microanalysis of intertextuality across content areas. When the teacher and

students relate texts across content areas, they usually do it in non-linear ways (Bloome et

al., 2004). Past and future instances of talk influence present discourse (Erickson, 2004).

In other words, the social construction of intertextuality in Ms. Braun's classroom

happens during different days of instruction, classes, and times of the day. Thus, to

understand the social construction of intertextuality in this bilingual classroom, it is

relevant to observe across time and space.

Drawing on analysis techniques by Bloome et al. (2004), I carried out a

microanalysis of the intertextuality that was socially constructed during one literacy

event, a small group co-construction of a new text in science in Ms. Braun's classroom.

By looking closely at the transcriptions of these interactions, I first indicated if and when

intertextuality occurs. To identify moments of intertextuality, I drew upon the use of

verbal (pausing, stress patterns, intonation patterns, changes in volume, speed, style) and

nonverbal contextualization cues (Bloome et al., 2004; Schiffrin, 1994) as well as manipulations of artifacts to see how individuals' actions and intentions are known in relation to the four tenets of intertextuality. Please note, I shared an analysis of segments of this same transcript in Chapter 4, but here I am approaching this literacy event using a different lens in an effort to illustrate the social construction of intertextuality.

For the first few months of the school year, Ms. Braun's students learned about informational texts in language arts and the different forms of energy in science (e.g., potential, kinetic, thermal, sound, and magnetic, among others). During a language arts lesson, Ms. Braun modeled a learning strategy for reading comprehension of informational texts. The following excerpt from my field notes explains how Ms. Braun brings in the importance of titles in texts:

Ms. Braun hands out a bookmarker with the acronym TEPPG, which stands for Título, Estructura de Texto, Preguntas, Palabras y Genero (Title, Text Structures, Questions, Vocabulary, and Genre). She sounds out a sentence with the letters from the acronym and writes it down on a notebook projected on the board: "Todos están preguntando por géneros?" [Everybody is asking for genres.] She asks the students to repeat the sentence to memorize the acronym. She asks several students to read the sentence projected. Then she begins explaining that the "T" for "Todos" also represents "título" [title]… (Toward the end of the class after teaching the meaning of each letter as a pre-reading strategy by looking over an informational text), Ms. Braun adds: These are strategies to be able to answer

questions and for reading comprehension of informational texts. She lists several of the strategies, including observing and understanding the title of the text. Ms. Braun adds that information for answering texts can come from looking at titles, photographs, or particular characteristics of the text such as its structure. Ms. Braun finishes the lesson by adding a checkmark over each letter or strategy they had discussed, including "P" for predictions.

In this lesson, the students learned a pre-reading strategy to help them approach an informational text before actually reading the written text. During the lesson, Ms. Braun also asked the students to read the title of an informational text. After the students read the title, she highlighted the importance of noticing key words. By questioning the students about the meaning of key words in the title, she modeled how these words will help them understand the main idea of the text.

A few days later, as described previously (see Chapter 5), the students started working on a science project during class. The students' assignment was to create a movie trailer—a multimodal informational text representing the different forms of energy through images. Cristian, Cora, Joshua, and Cheryl worked on their science class project together. Lines in the form of titles in the movie trailer became an important aspect of making sense of this particular text. As mentioned in Chapter 5, the students showed me (the researcher) one of the first designs of the movie trailer. The students named their production company using their assigned small group name: Manhattan. Joshua read out loud the name of their production company: "Manhattan Films."

Table 6.1 Distribution to the Researcher					
Participant	Message Unit #*	Message Unit	Interactional Unit*	Contextual Cues	Intertextuality
Joshua	1	"Manhattan Films"//	Interactional Unit 1	Stress on the second syllable of Manhattan to intonate voiceover effect. Stress on first syllable in films. S in films is low in volume to end message.	Student proposition
Researcher	2	OK		Elongation of first vowel. Elongation of pronunciation of K. Pause to end message	
Joshua	3	"Carlos travels to find energía" [energy]		Pause for words on movie trailer to come up initiating message. Intonation with a voiceover effect. Stress on the last word to finalize message.	Student proposition
Students and researcher	4	(giggles)		Giggles interrupt the message above and flow into the next message.	
Joshua	5	It's so funny how energía [energy] is Spanish	Interactional Unit 2	Change to high speed. Increased volume. Stress on the diphthong of energía. Stress on the first syllable of Spanish. Pause to end message.	
Joshua	6	and everything else is English (giggles continue in the background)		Stress on English to end message.	

Table 6.1 Distribution to the Researcher, cont.					
Researcher	7	"…wanted energia"	Interactional Unit 3 Interactional Unit 3 Suspended	Intonation imitating an announcer. Low volume.	
Researcher	8	You think so Joshua?	Interactional Unit 4	Increased volume and change of style	
Cora	9	Joshua was looking for less than an ordinary life"	Interactional Unit 5	Intonation with a voiceover effect. Stress on word less. Stress on word ordinary. Low volume. Pause	Student proposition
Cora	10	"outside his small town"//		Intonation with a voice over effect. Low volume. Stress on word outside. Stress on word small. Pause	Student proposition

*In the table above, the transcription is divided into message units and interactional units. Message units are the minimal conversational units that have meaning to the participants. These are mainly defined by the "behavior's impact on the listener" (Bloome et al., 2004). Interactional units are message units tied cohesively during interaction. Participants act and react accordingly to a demand. It is defined as a social activity.
See transcription symbols in Appendix A.

We notice here in message units 1,3, 9, and 10 how students Cora and Joshua highlighted the movie trailer's lines by raising the tone in their voice, mimicking a voiceover effect. I (the researcher) also started mimicking the voiceover that they are using in message unit 7. Similar to real movie trailers, the students wanted to emphasize the importance of the story behind the images. In this excerpt, the students attempted to propose intertextuality across interactional units. The movie they are creating is also an informational text that has particular features, such as titles. The lines influence the images shown between each of them. In the discourse from the language arts lesson on November 13, the teacher explained the significance of the meaning of the informational text behind the titles: the titles provide the reader with cues about the text's message. In this way, the lines provide the viewer with context clues about the images shown immediately after them. Thus, to show intertextuality, talk has to be observed longitudinally by identifying participants' actions and reactions in discourse. In this interaction, the students refer to lines in movie trailers such as those titles discussed earlier during language arts class. In the following excerpt, Ms. Braun asks her students to play their first productions of the movie trailer.

Table 6.2 Distribution to the Teacher					
Participant	Message Unit #	Message Unit	Interactional Unit	Contextual Cues	Intertextuality
Ms. Braun	1	¿Cómo vamos? [How are we doing?]	Interactional Unit 1	High volume. High speed.	
	2	¿Puedo verlo desde el principio? [Can I watch it from the start?]		High volume. High speed.	
	3	¿Vamos a ver como nos va desde el principio? [Let's see how it goes from the start?]		High volume. High speed.	
	4	Pero yo no se que tipo de energía estoy viendo. [But I don't know what type of energy I am watching.]	Interactional Unit 2	Lowers speed. Stress on first word. High volume on first word. Lowers volume on rest of message unit.	

Table 6.2 Distribution to the Teacher, cont.					
	5	Tienes que decirme cuál es el tipo de energía, [You need to tell me what type of energy,]	Interactional Unit 3	Stress on first word tienes (need), on cuál (which), and on tipo (type). High volume on these three words.	Teacher proposition
	6	¿verdad? [right?]		Stress and high volume.	
	7	¿de acuerdo? [do you agree?]		Stress and high volume.	
	8	All students nod	Interactional Unit 4		Student response and acknowledgement
	9	pero vas muy bien [but, you are doing very well]	Interactional Unit 5	Stress on pero (but), muy bien (very well).	
	10	Researcher and students giggle	Interactional Unit 6	Giggle interrupts next message unit.	

Table 6.2 Distribution to the Teacher, cont.					
	11	Aunque pongas una [even if you put	Interactional Unit 7	Stress on all message units. High volume.	
	12	algo que dice energía termica, [something that says thermal energy,]		Lowers volume.	Teacher proposition
	13	¿verdad? [right?]		Lowers volume.	
	14	Para que vean. [You see.]	Interactional Unit 8	Lowers volume.	
	15	Eso tambien podría ayudarles [That could be of help]		Lowers volume.	
	16	Pero tienen que estar viendo que es el tipo de energía que estamos viendo, [but you need to see what type of energy we are watching,	Interactional Unit 9	Stress on que (what) and energía (energy).	

Here, Ms. Braun raised a question in message unit 4 about the information that the transcript lines, in this case the titles of each scene, are giving to the audience. Then in message unit 12, Ms. Braun suggests that the students write the word "thermal energy" to describe the images shown. In the lesson showcased at the beginning of this section from November 13, the class together had discussed the meaning of pulga (flea) in the title of the informational text reviewed and its relevance to what the informational text is about. We can infer that Ms. Braun proposes that lines are relevant to understand the content of the images in the movie trailer, in this particular text, the types of energy that the students are filming. She showed it repeatedly when stressing the words "which," "what," and "energy" in message units 5 and 16. The students then recognize and acknowledge that key words in the lines or titles of each scene should provide meaning for the images by nodding to the teacher in agreement in message unit 8. As opposed to the mini-lessons described in my field notes, Ms. Braun did not plan ahead to bring up what they had learned earlier in language arts class; it is unplanned. But she explains further along in the interaction how students should be showing what types of energy they are watching in the images and gives them an example of how to show it. Finally, if the students had not been practicing the meaning of key words in the titles of informational texts, the questions about the significance of the meaning behind lines in the movie trailer that Ms. Braun raised while giving her feedback would not be relevant or have social significance for the group.

Intertextuality and Unplanned Discourses

Bilingual and bi(multi)literate practices were evident when the teacher and emergent bilinguals made intertextual connections. Moreover, multiple modes were used in intertextual connections that allowed for unplanned discourses to happen (see Chapter 4). The following exchange occurred when the class built their anemometers. In this literacy event, the emergent bilinguals and the teacher are involved in the design and production of a text during science class. The teacher initiates an intertextual connection (as mentioned above) by pointing out to the children that she will be embodying a procedural text: "A ver so esto es como un texto instructivo. Yo les voy a estar dando instrucciones para hacer este anemómetro. So, la primera cosa es en los vasitos necesitas hacer un agujero, solo un agujero. So, vas a medir" [So. This is like an instructional text. I am going to be giving you instructions to make this anemometer. So, the first thing is the cups, you need to punch a hole, just one hole. So, you are going to measure]. The bilingual teacher used the projector, realia, gestures, and oral discourse for the emergent bilinguals to make sense of a procedural text to build a science weather instrument. When she embodied the procedural text, she introduced an unplanned discourse during the production of the text by initiating the procedural text in an oral form instead of students reading instructions in a written text with complex grammatical structures (see Chapter 4).

Unplanned discourses use strategies and structures that we learn early in life. In unplanned discourses, individuals rely on immediate context to make their messages

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explicit (Johnstone, 2002, p. 210). Some characteristics of unplanned discourses include avoidance of relative clauses, use of present tense, less use of passive voice, fewer nominalizations, more appositives for modification, more coordination, and more words. Finally, repetition is commonly used for repairing conversations. Repetition may happen in distinct ways: phonetically, words, syntactic structures, etc.

As mentioned, one characteristic of unplanned discourse is the use of immediate context. Ms. Braun projected the realia used to build the anemometer for students to be able to follow the steps in the procedural text she embodied. The emergent bilinguals observed the image to follow instructions. She said: "So, con tu regla ok vas a medir desde la parte de arriba de tu vaso. Hasta un centímetro. Un centímetro" [So, with your ruler okay you are going to measure from the top of our cup]. Ms. Braun continued with the following instructions:

Vas a medir un centímetro aquí y ahí vas a poner un agujero con esto. Solo un agujero en cuatro vasos. O.K. So, voy a hacer uno de los de ustedes. ¿vale? So, voy a ver aquí está un centímetro yo voy a meter esto (the puncher).

[You are going to measure a centimeter right here and you are going to punch a hole there with this. Only one hole in four cups. O.K. So, I am going to do one with you? O.K.? So, I am going to see here is a centimeter, and I am going to put this in (the puncher).]

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The discourse above allowed for the teacher to model how to follow the instructions and repeat the instructions—"one centimeter, one punch"—another main characteristic of an unplanned discourse.

Unplanned discourses also permitted the repair of messages and actions (// in the transcript means a turn in discourse):

Cheryl//Ms. Braun: O.K. This is yours//Sólo un agujero, un centímetro. Cuidado, chicos y chicas. Manos en la cabeza. Manos en los hombros. Es muy importante que medimos usando el lado que son centímetros. So, el lado de los centímetros dice cm. Muchas veces aquí te dice. CM o MM, milímetros. So, estamos usando éste uno. No, uno cuando hablan de pulgadas. So, un centímetro para dar.

[O.K. This is yours// Only one hole, one centimeter. Be careful boys and girls. Hands on your head. Hands on your shoulders. It's very important that we measure from the side that has centimeters. So, the side with centimeters says cm. Sometimes, it is marked with cm or mm, millimeters. So, we are using this one. Not the one that is referring to inches. So, one centimeter down.]

Here the teacher repaired the message by highlighting the importance of using centimeters and not inches. The teacher also repaired actions, another characteristic of unplanned discourse, after she walked around the small groups and noticed the students' reactions to her instructions: Ms. Braun said to Joshua: "So, debemos de medir de la parte de arriba. (small pause) No de abajo cariño. Mira de la parte de arriba. O.K. De la parte

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de arriba vamos a medir un centímetro//Ooooh//Aquí, vas a poner un agujerito." [So, we need to measure from the top. Not from the bottom, darling. Look from the top O.K. From the top. We are going to measure one centimeter.//Ooooh//You are going to punch a hole right here.]

When designing and producing texts in intertextual connections, the students were able to collaborate with each other and monitor each other's learning by working in small groups at their different tables. The students were also able to observe the functions of vocabulary. For example, they used centimeters instead of inches as they measured. Other examples were the use of the terms ruler, puncher, straw, etc. in Spanish. Last, they practiced reflective questioning and made connections with experiential knowledge. When the students tried out their anemometer outside, they were able to reflect on their building process and the reasons why it successfully measured (or not) the velocity of the wind.

Translanguaging with multimodal texts in intertextuality connections. Intertextuality connections in this classroom also allow for translanguaging for the emergent bilingual students. In the following three examples where the design and production of multimodal texts were involved, the teacher and students made intertextual connections within and across content areas. Thus, translanguaging practices happened when making intertextual connections with multimodal texts. In the previous chapter, when students were distributing their movie trailer to me, I note the flexible language practices used, focusing on the content word energía. Translanguaging not only occurs at

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the sentence level through a content word; translanguaging practices also happen in interaction, such as when the students in Ms. Braun's classroom are practicing or "doing" language (Palmer & Martínez, 2013; Pennycook, 2010).

One common thread within the translanguaging practices when intertextual connections were made in this classroom is how the teacher introduced the disciplinary knowledge in Spanish, the students discussed in small groups mostly in English, the multimodal texts for comprehending knowledge happened to be in both English and Spanish, and the students produced their final multimodal texts in Spanish. I illustrate this below by showing translanguaging practices in three literacy events where intertextual connections are happening: 1) when the students are designing, producing, and distributing their movie trailers; 2) when the teacher is enacting a procedural test to build an anemometer; and 3) and when students write their comic books.

First, the disciplinary knowledge was presented in Spanish. Ms. Braun first introduced the concept of energy by reading and writing down or distributing the definitions of the different types of energy from the science textbook in Spanish (see Chapter 4), a linguistically traditional text. The students wrote the definitions in their notebooks. This mainly occurred in Spanish and through planned discourses. Then, the students worked on the design of their movie trailers by collecting everyday images to represent the knowledge they have learned, making an intertextual connection between images and the previous linguistic discourse. In this moment, they interact mostly in English and sometimes in Spanish through unplanned discourses (see the interaction

between Eugenio, Daisy, and Gaby in Chapter 5). Also, they make intertextual connections to refer to anchor charts, another multimodal text, which lists the content or knowledge in Spanish. The first productions of the students' movie trailers use both English and Spanish. When Ms. Braun gives the students feedback on their first production, she asks them to produce their final linguistic text in Spanish. The final texts are mainly in Spanish due to the culturally sustaining linguistic practices the teacher enacted throughout the school year.

In the second example, the process runs very similarly to the one described above. Before building the anemometer, the teacher introduced the definitions of weather instruments, including of the anemometer, in Spanish. A few days after, the teacher activated previous disciplinary knowledge and asked the students to discuss the definitions in small groups, an intertextual connection within disciplinary knowledge. These interactions happened in both English and Spanish. Then, the students copied down the definitions the teacher modeled from the projected notebook in Spanish. When making an intertextual connection by enacting a multimodal procedural text to build the anemometer, most of Ms. Braun's instructions were in Spanish. Yet, the students clarified what she said in small groups in English and Spanish. Finally, in the third example, the students learned about magnetic energy in class by defining it in Spanish from their textbooks. Then they produced a multimodal text supplementing a linguistic text with a visual text. Some students wrote it all in English, others all in Spanish, and a few in both

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languages (see Figure 4.4). All students scaffolded each other's writing in the comic strip project during small group interaction in English and Spanish.

Conclusion

Juxtaposing texts is a natural process in Ms. Braun's instructional pedagogy. This study helps us begin to understand ways in which teachers can incorporate intertextuality in their bilingual classroom and some of the benefits of doing so in terms of the potential to support both language and content learning for emergent bilingual students. In other words, it provides documentation of ways bilingual teachers can incorporate non-linear ways to juxtapose texts. Intertextual connections a) involve a multiplicity of texts, b) are socially constructed, c) are bidirectional in nature, and d) occur within and across content areas. Intertextualization in Ms. Braun's classroom appeared to support students' learning of both language and content by "opening up spaces" (Gutiérrez, 2008; Gutiérrez, Baquedano-López, Alvarez, & Chiu, 1999) in the classroom. When spaces allow the introduction of a multiliteracies approach as alternative instructional practices, there is an opportunity for emergent bilinguals to use a full repertoire of linguistic and literacy practices as resources for comprehension.

Chapter 7: Discussion and Conclusion

For this final chapter, I revisit my findings from chapters 4, 5, and 6 to make suggestions about emergent bilinguals' authentic engagement in the bilingual classroom. To achieve this aim, I first discuss a) student engagement in mainstream classrooms and b) the meaning of authenticity in texts. I then outline the five main elements that I found to create opportunities in the classroom where emergent bilinguals are authentically engaged in the content areas. I then propose a translanguaging multiliteracies approach for teaching and learning in the bilingual classroom. Ultimately, I follow with pedagogical implications for teaching and teacher education, considerations for policy, and future directions for research.

Revisiting Findings

In this study, I pursued the following questions: *How does a third grade bilingual teacher interact with students around (multimodal) texts within and across a language arts and science/social studies curricula? How do emergent bilingual/biliterate students engage with (multimodal) texts within and across a language arts and science/social studies curricula?* and *What linguistic and cultural practices become relevant as the teacher and students interact and engage with (multimodal) texts across content areas?*

Guided by this study's research questions, I outlined the literacy events and practices in Ms. Braun's bilingual classroom in Chapter 4. In the events and practices analyzed, Ms. Braun and her students interacted with linguistic texts (written and oral) as well as a variety of multimodal texts. Literacy practices extended to modeling through a

projector; discussing in small groups; critical questioning; referring to experiential knowledge; and vocabulary learning through repetition, anchor charts, gestures, drawing to define words. Chapter 4 illustrated how literacy practices worked in synchronization and texts supplemented each other. While written texts took on distributive functions to preserve or transmit disciplinary knowledge in the form of planned discourses, unplanned discourses were practiced by the teacher and students when designing and producing texts in Chapter 5. Interestingly enough, the unplanned discourses enabled dynamic and flexible practices in this bilingual classroom for content-area learning. These findings are significant because translanguaging in unplanned discourses appears to serve the purpose of improving the balance of linguistic resources in (bi)literacy practices.

With this in mind, Ms. Braun and her students juxtaposed texts within and across content areas when, designing, producing, and distributing texts, as seen in Chapter 6. Intertextual connections echoed literacy practices, as they were socially constructed in this bilingual classroom. Just as important, these intertextual connections happened bidirectionally. Bidirectionality theory explains how literacy practices move between home to school and vice versa (Dworin, 2003). As previously discussed, intertextual bidirectionality happened in many directions (e.g., from language arts to science, from science to social studies, from science to language arts, etc.). Taken together, intertextual connections where linguistic texts are supplemented with multiple modes of texts happened through planned—and mostly unplanned—discourses. Because of this, during these moments there was more use of immediate context and the repetition of words as

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well as the opportunity to repair messages and actions, which appeared to lead to deeper content-area learning.

As presented in Chapter 4, multimodal texts surrounded the literacy events and practices in Ms. Braun's classroom. Her multiliteracies approach in content-area learning shows how multimodal texts work in collaboration with each other. The findings in this chapter also indicate how literacy practices were used in synchronization (e.g., pair work and critical questioning, critical questioning and building vocabulary, modeling and pair work, etc.).

My analysis in Chapter 5 showed how the supplementation of multimodal texts in the design, production, and distribution of texts leads to alternate instructional practices. Planned discourses turn into unplanned discourses and are used for emergent bilinguals' deep content-area learning. Unplanned discourses also serve the purpose of equalizing linguistic resources in a bilingual classroom. Lastly, Chapter 6 documented intertextual connections with multimodal texts and showed the traveling of texts within and across content areas, in bidirectional ways, and these intertextual connections led to unplanned discourses and translanguaging practices.

Authentic Engagement in Bilingual Classrooms

According to Christenson, Reschly, and Wylie (2012), some of the known facts about student engagement are as follows:

1. Students are able to persist on the challenges and relate to the joys of learning through student engagement.

2. Student engagement is associated positively with academic, social, and emotional learning.

3. Student engagement requires affective connections and active student behavior.

4. Student engagement is individualized as well as contextualized. (p. v)

The authors argue that these are research-based facts about student engagement in the classroom. They emphasize students' active behavior in the classroom and the important role of student engagement in the contextualization of learning and academic achievement. These research-based characteristics of authentic engagement are highlighted in Ms. Braun's approach to teaching and learning. As I will demonstrate below, students collaborate to support their challenges in learning; they deepen their learning and reflect on their literacy practices; they engage in designing, producing, and distributing multimodal texts and enjoy learning; they incorporate their experiential knowledge to contextualize learning; and they use language flexibly. Thus, by supporting students to engage with multimodal texts in the design, production, and distribution of texts (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2001a), Ms. Braun opens up an opportunity for authentic student engagement in the bilingual classroom.

It is essential, given that I refer to the word "authentic," to describe the ways in which I use the term "authenticity" in this context. In Chapter 1, I discussed the meaning of authenticity. I referred to the subjectivity of the term authenticity in the education field. When discussing authenticity in multicultural children's book, I listed ways in

which scholars represent it: by showing the multiplicity of stories or untold stories, by considering insider views from a cultural group, through language use, and by showing the diversity within a cultural group, among others (Fox & Short, 2003). With this subjectivity, I use the term authentic to relate to the flexibility allowed for emergent bilinguals' linguistic and cultural practices when engaging and interacting with texts in literacy events and practices. Given the findings from chapters 4, 5, and 6, I will list and describe five components in Ms. Braun's classroom that led to the emergent bilinguals' authentic engagement in the classroom: collaboration, reflective practices, the use of experiential knowledge, deep and meaningful disciplinary knowledge learning, and translanguaging practices.

Collaboration. One of the most common literacy practices in Ms. Braun's classroom is small group work. Students work collaboratively while designing and producing multimodal texts. For instance, students worked together building an anemometer (see Chapter 5) and worked through the challenges together. When building it, the students asked fellow members of the group if they were able to follow the teacher's instructions in Spanish. The emergent bilinguals helped each other repair messages and actions. Thus, the emergent bilinguals engaged through active student behavior by collaborating in small groups. At one point when building the anemometers, one of the small group participants said: "I already like this experiment and I haven't even done it yet!" This statement echoes Christenson et al.'s (2012) affective connection

for student engagement. Students enjoyed learning when designing and producing texts collaboratively.

Reflective practices. Reflective questioning was also a common literacy practice for the teacher and her emergent bilingual students. Visual texts were used in collaboration with linguistic texts to deepen understanding, which prompted reflective questioning in relation to the text. In Chapter 5, there is evidence of how the teacher opened up a conversation about geography and religion when studying an expository text about Christopher Columbus. In that example, the teacher and students also compared and contrasted Vatican City to Sunny Hillcrest as being independently governed constituencies. In this way, the students were able to understand the importance of placing historical events in a sociocultural context (Salinas, Fránquiz, & Guberman, 2006)—one step toward understanding and thinking critically about a historical figure, in this case Christopher Columbus.

Use of experiential knowledge. Ms. Braun promotes the use of experiential knowledge in the classroom. Students engage in the class by making connections to experiences in their own life. As mentioned in chapters 4, 5, and 6, the students learned about the Day of the Dead first through an informational video. After watching the video, the teacher invited them to share experiences they have had with building Day of the Dead altars. From their own observations and by referring to earlier books they had read about the topic (juxtaposing linguistic texts), the students enriched the class conversation. The introduction of multimodal texts helped the students make connections to a social

studies lesson reinforcing some of their own family/cultural practices (González et al., 2005). Contextualizing disciplinary knowledge sustains emergent bilinguals' cultural practices (Paris, 2012), leading to authentic student engagement (Christenson et al., 2012).

Deep and meaningful disciplinary knowledge learning. Using multimodal texts also reinforces disciplinary knowledge; this was clear throughout the findings. For example, when Ms. Braun used photographs in addition to expository texts to teach about the main idea of an expository text, the students developed a deeper understanding of these concepts than they may have with purely linguistic texts. Distributing a range of alternative texts to the same audience in different spaces opens up possibilities of comprehending the knowledge in meaningful ways and engaging students authentically. This authentic engagement is associated positively with academic achievement (Christenson et al., 2012, p. v).

Translanguaging practices. Similarly, when students are authentically engaged, this leads to dynamic and flexible classroom language and literacy practices. As shown in chapters 4, 5, and 6, the students use their full linguistic repertoires when designing, producing, and distributing multimodal texts. Baker (2001), as cited by García and Wei (2013), states four educational advantages of translanguaging practices:

1. It may promote a deeper and fuller understanding of the subject matter.

2. It may help the development of the weaker language.

3. It may facilitate home–school links and cooperation.

4. It may help the integration of fluent speakers with early learners. (García & Wei, 2013, "The development of translanguaging in education")

While Baker's definition of translanguaging was more limited than García and Wei's conception upon which I drew in the above analysis, Baker did elaborate pedagogical implications that are useful here. His pedagogical implications help us to explore the impact of Ms. Braun's translanguaging practices upon the teaching and learning processes in her classroom. When the emergent bilinguals in Ms. Braun's classroom engaged and interacted with multimodal texts, it appeared to lead to translanguaging practices. Consequently, the emergent bilinguals a) deepened their comprehension of disciplinary knowledge, b) used experiential knowledge to support learning processes, and c) reinforced their partners' comprehension processes in small collaborative groups. Translanguaging pedagogy "moves the teacher and the learner toward a more 'dynamic and participatory engagement' in knowledge construction" (García & Wei, 2013, "Translanguaging as pedagogy: principles and strategies"), supporting authentic engagement in the bilingual classroom. Translanguaging ensures ways in which emergent bilinguals learn both content-area knowledge and language. Thus, translanguaging becomes an important component of multiliteracies pedagogy. Next, I describe translanguaging multiliteracies pedagogy as a theoretical framework for the bilingual and biliteracy development of emergent bilinguals.

A Translanguaging Multiliteracies Approach to Teaching and Learning

In Chapter 4, I introduced Ms. Braun's classroom ecology. Her classroom's literacy practices in the content areas were a promising example of Rowsell et al.'s (2008) multiliteracies pedagogy. A multiliteracies pedagogy, according to Rowsell et al. (2008) considers 1) multiple modes of texts, 2) multimodal texts used in collaboration with each other, 3) literacy as functional, 4) minoritized language and culture, 5) a community of learners, and 6) literacies as contextualized (see Chapter 1). The characteristics of authentic engagement and descriptors of multiliteracies pedagogy are similar in that multiliteracies pedagogy's main goal is to create student engagement for learning and social participation (New London Group, 1996).

In a multiliteracies pedagogy, first multiple modes are used as channels of representation for meaning-making purposes. I argued that Ms. Braun and her emergent bilingual students interacted and engaged with a variety of literacies in line with The New London Group's (1996) elements for meaning-making processes:

1. linguistic (e.g., in the form of textbooks and/or notebooks),

2. visual (e.g., anchor charts and/or photographs),

3. audio (e.g., music and/or videos),

4. gestural (e.g., signaling vocabulary words),

5. spatial (e.g., using the playground to learn about energy), and

6. multimodal (interrelationship of modes).

Second, new literacies support instead of replace traditional or linguistic forms of texts. In this classroom, multiple modes of literacies were used in collaboration with each other. I gave multiple examples of how texts supplemented each other during the design, production, and distribution of texts: the literary genre bookmark, the science movie trailer, anchor charts, and many more. These texts were also supplemented during intertextuality connections, such as when the class built the anemometer in the example given in Chapter 5.

Third, literacy is functional. Ms. Braun and her students practiced literacy in science, social studies, and language arts mainly when designing and producing texts. When the students collaborated in small groups, they engaged in literacy practices together. The students referred to anchor charts, everyday life objects or experiences or realia, images, maps, etc. An example from social studies class was when the students worked together to develop a new map symbol. They interacted when engaging with the text (a map) and designing and producing a text (the map symbol). The class engaged in new literacy practices together.

Fourth, literacy practices' purpose is to acknowledge the minority language and culture in the classroom, recognizing the power that the dominant language (English) and culture has in everyday interactions. Ms. Braun has made a concerted effort to include the Spanish language purposefully in her whole group instruction as well as in the products they designed in the form of texts. When the students distributed the movie trailer to her, she specifically asked for the written language to be in Spanish. The children's cultural

experiences were also included when engaging and interacting with texts. One specific example was during the discussion of the Day of the Dead instruction described at the beginning of this chapter prompted by the video shown.

Fifth, the creation of a community of learners is a main characteristic of multiliteracies pedagogies. This classroom's community was created through the collaborative structures included by Ms. Braun when engaging with texts, which is also a characteristic of authentic engagement, thus I elaborate on this idea above. The students constantly worked in small groups a) to answer questions prompted by the bilingual teacher and promote discussion, b) to design and produce new texts, and c) for vocabulary development in Spanish. Lastly, literacy practices were contextualized socially, culturally, and politically. As elaborated earlier, the students' experiential knowledge was considered in the classroom's teaching and learning process. One example is the comparison the students made between their own social context in the city of Sunny Hillcrest and that of Vatican City when learning about Columbus's place of birth.

Without question, Ms. Braun offers a promising example of how to enact multiliteracies classroom pedagogy. Moreover, putting together the tenets of authentic engagement and multiliteracies seems to imply the making of an intertextual multiliteracies approach to teaching and learning, in which a bilingual classroom ecology considers intertextual connections with multimodal texts and translanguaging practices for a culturally sustaining classroom. In addition to considering translanguaging

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practices, this translanguaging multiliteracies pedagogy keeps bilingual students authentically engaged in designing, producing, and distributing multimodal (multilingual) texts.

In translanguaging multiliteracies pedagogy, translanguaging and multiliteracies theoretical pedagogies merge. Translanguaging multiliteracies pedagogy takes from both theories and contemplates collaboration and cultural and linguistic resources for authentic student engagement and meaningful learning. While translanguaging pedagogy considers the use of multimodal texts, translanguaging multiliteracies pedagogy bridges the intertextual connections of these modes of texts with dynamic and flexible language practices in teaching and learning processes. When multimodal texts are considered in the design and production of texts and in intertextual connections, unplanned discourses are introduced. Thus, translanguaging practices occur more frequently in the classroom space.

Multiliteracies pedagogy contemplates a variety of texts and intertextual connections with multimodal texts in literacy practices. Translanguaging multiliteracies pedagogy observes how the teacher and emergent bilinguals are able to socially construct the juxtaposition of multimodal texts within and across content areas through translanguaging practices. The teacher and students draw from all their linguistic resources when making connections of multimodal texts in language arts, science, and/or social studies. Outlining these intertextual connections that happen unconsciously and naturally is the first step in designing a "new text" or a modified pedagogical framework

for the benefit of emergent bilinguals' success in the classroom. At this point, it is essential to discuss the implications of translanguaging multiliteracies pedagogy in the bilingual classroom.

Implications for Teaching, Teacher Education, and Policy

  Teaching. Ms. Braun's classroom literacy practices are an example of a culturally sustaining pedagogy for the improvement of bilingual education in Texas. Souto-Manning and Martell (2016) point out that it is necessary for teachers to "expand on the concept of texts in the classroom" and be able to go against a prescriptive curriculum that does not serve culturally or linguistically diverse students' pedagogical needs. One of the most significant findings in this study is the multidimensional way in which Ms. Braun included multiple texts in her classroom, which served emergent bilinguals' authentic engagement in the classroom. This points to the importance of including multiple literacies in the bilingual classroom.

  It is interesting to note that Ms. Braun did not plan the use of these multiple texts in content-area literacy events. In our second interview, I intentionally asked if she planned for this in her instruction as a member check of her instruction. She told me that she drew from all these texts unconsciously. Ms. Braun builds a moment of "improvisation" into her learning classroom space (Gutiérrez, Baquedano- López, & Tejeda, 1999). Gutiérrez, Baquedano- López, and Tejeda (1999) conceptualize these spaces as zones in which tensions arise from normative and unofficial practices, and thus new hybrid practices evolve. The artifacts that mediate new hybrid practices—in this

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case, the unplanned discourses—are the variety of multimodal texts she and her classroom engage in their literacy practices. When Ms. Braun introduces multimodal texts, she opens the classroom space and unplanned discourses become part of her teaching and the students' learning, allowing for translanguaging practices. These unplanned discourses also become apparent in intertextual connections, in which Ms. Braun's practices thereof show the necessity for teachers becoming conscious of how to use multiple modes of texts in content-area instruction. Perhaps many teachers are already engaging in these same practices. Yet, I would invite all teachers of emergent bilingual students to consciously pursue this kind of translanguaging multiliteracies pedagogy: to begin their lesson planning with linguistic texts they rely on for literacy events and practices and seek ways to supplement these texts through visual images, audio and video, gesturing, and use of classroom space for the benefit of emergent bilinguals.

In this study, multiple texts travelled across content areas in the bilingual classroom. The teacher and students socially constructed the juxtaposition of texts bidirectionally. Intertextual connections with multimodal texts were used as an instructional strategy, opening up the classroom space to flexible and dynamic linguistic and literacy practices. Teachers should consider the supplementation of texts to invite "improvisations" in the classroom. Similarly, teachers should model and initiate intertextual connections for deeper understanding and for integrated language and

content-area learning. As the findings show, these connections may happen within content areas or across them.

Collaborative strategies are key for teachers to create opportunities for students to use their full linguistic repertories and for the inclusion of experiential knowledge and reflective practices. When considering the role of collaborative work, Gort (2008) suggested the following:

> Teachers can support bilingual children's linguistic and cross-cultural development and validate their community knowledge and experiences, formal and informal ways of communicating and meaning-making, and bilingual/bicultural identities by encouraging bilingual children to communicate using their full linguistic and cultural repertoires. (Gort, 2008)

Most of the multiple modes of texts in Ms. Braun's classroom were designed in the classroom and produced collaboratively by the teacher and students. This suggests the importance of including collaborative strategies when interacting with multiple modes of texts. For collaboration to work toward the students' advantage and produce authentic engagement, it is essential for it to be part of the classroom daily practices (Gutiérrez, Baquedano- López, Alvarez, et al., 1999). Teachers should plan for collaborations during literacy events in the content areas and model collaboration in everyday interactions.

Translanguaging practices used in the design, production, and distribution of multimodal texts happen in collaborative structures. Restrictive planned discourses in one linguistic register such as textbooks and notebooks are often transformed into unplanned

discourses when emergent bilinguals become fully active participants in their own learning. When the students in Ms. Braun's classroom used their full linguistic resources effectively by combining different modalities or supplementing texts, it created more equitable spaces for teaching and learning. I encourage all teachers to engage students in the design and production of texts to promote translanguaging practices.

Teacher Education. To best support and prepare teachers to engage in a translanguaging multiliteracies pedagogical approach in their K–12 classrooms, teacher educators should consider implementing the same in teacher preparation programs: first, by introducing future teachers to functional literacies and the variety of modes; second, by teaching them the possibilities of the design, production, and distribution of texts; third, by showing them how to make intertextual connections between content areas; and last, by teaching them to encourage students to draw from all of their linguistic resources when designing and producing texts and in intertextual connections. Scholars in the teacher education field have called for language, culture, content-area knowledge, and pedagogical skills for pre-service teachers to serve culturally and linguistically diverse students' needs in the classroom (Adger, Snow, & Christian, 2002; Bunch, 2013; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; de Jong, Harper, & Coady, 2013). As argued by Faltis and Valdés (2016): "…knowledge about how language is used, how it is acquired, and how it develops is essential for teachers and for the professionals who engage in the preparation of teachers. All learning is mediated through language" (p. 107). A translanguaging multiliteracies approach affords an opportunity for future teachers to

understand language and literacy as practices that emergent bilinguals "do" in the classroom (Erickson, 2004; Palmer & Martínez, 2013; Pennycook, 2010). Teachers in preparation will be better able to comprehend and enact translanguaging pedagogy (García & Wei, 2013) when interacting and engaging with multimodal texts in their teacher preparation classrooms. A translanguaging multiliteracies approach supports the use of unplanned discourses in the design and production of texts, leading to flexibility in language practices. This will also better enable them to see emergent bilinguals as active learners and as collaborators.

Faltis and Valdés (2016) also state how "literacy and biliteracy…are of central importance to the teaching of English language learners" (p. 122). With the approach, I propose that teachers in preparation will better understand the kinds of literacy practices in the content areas that can authentically engage emergent bilinguals. Most importantly, such an approach broadens their perspectives in understanding what a text entails in the classroom. In this framework, pre-service teachers would not just consider texts in linguistic forms but would work to supplement these with texts that draw on visual, audio, video, and gestural modes (New London Group, 1996). Moreover, they would be made more aware of texts in context and understand that emergent bilinguals make sense of texts through interaction. They would also understand that texts are connected to each other. In other words, individuals draw from past and possible future texts to design, produce, and distribute new texts.

Policy. Just as important are the implications for policy when introducing a bilingual multiliteracies approach in the classroom. Most culturally and linguistically diverse students attend under-resourced schools (Gándara, 2013). Policymakers should consider the importance of ensuring high levels of language and content learning among all students, and multimodal texts should become an essential part of the resources provided to every classroom. Nevertheless, teachers may lack the resources to introduce the use of multimodal texts in the classroom, such as audio and video sources, due to their high cost. As shown in the findings, creating infrastructure for multimodal resources is vital for students to gain language and literacy skills in the content areas. One way to engage in multiliteracies pedagogies on a budget is by introducing future teachers to the use of realia, or everyday objects, in their instruction. Ms. Braun drew constantly from realia when designing and producing texts.

A second important implication for policy is the introduction of a multimodal approach for assessment. Currently, accountability measures such as standardized tests have a major effect on language and content instructional practices in the U.S. (Menken, 2008). When such prescriptive discourse happens, it leads to the control of traditional literacy practices in the classroom (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2001a), and the design and production of multimodal texts diminishes. As in Ms. Braun's classroom, classroom-based assessments could be informed by a translanguaging multiliteracies approach. I propose the consideration of multimodal authentic and performance-based assessments as options to scaffold students' language and content-area learning in the classroom.

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Finally, a translanguaging multiliteracies approach leads to a culturally sustaining language policy in the classroom (Paris, 2012). Language practices, beliefs, values, and ideals are planned and managed by a community. Translanguaging is practiced when the children in the classroom interact with texts, both in collaboration and during whole classroom instruction. It is also important to note how in my position as the researcher contributed to Ms. Braun's classroom language policies in effort to center Spanish. The teacher and I disrupted hegemonic English language practices. Our conversations were mainly in Spanish. The students also positioned me as an expert in Spanish, frequently asking me for translations. Our interactions served as an opportunity to equalize language practices.

This approach materializes a classroom space where language is managed and planned (Wright, 2004) for the maintenance of emergent bilinguals' linguistic and cultural traditions. Policymakers should consider providing teachers with professional development for implementing translanguaging multiliteracies pedagogy in classrooms and expose teachers to how this pedagogy benefits and promotes the maintenance of emergent bilinguals' home languages.

Future Directions

For future studies in bilingual classrooms, I may choose to observe the use of multimodal texts across languages of instruction in dual-language classrooms. All of this particular study's observations occurred during the Spanish language arts and science/social studies instructional times, all of which were expected to be spaces for

Spanish language use and interaction. Interactions in English may offer a different perspective on students' biliteracy and bilingual development. I expect to observe a translanguaging pattern similar to that which I saw in Ms. Braun's classroom. When multimodal texts are introduced in an English-dominant classroom, the teacher and students engage in English planned discourses and students interact in English and Spanish when designing and distributing multimodal texts (allowing space for unplanned discourses) and produce final texts in English.

Second, I would also like to explore what a translanguaging multiliteracies approach looks like in different types of bilingual programs. What happens when the teacher and students engage with multimodal texts in multilingual contexts in ESL programs or in a structured English-immersion classroom or transitional and/or developmental bilingual education contexts (without English-dominant speaking children present or in which the goal is transition to English rather than bilingualism/biliteracy)? What about dynamic plurilingual programs (García & Kleifgen, 2010)? I contemplate how multimodal texts will open up spaces in the classroom for considering emergent bilinguals' linguistic resources.

Third, in the process of data analysis, I coded for functions of the use of language when students collaborated in small groups. As mentioned above, collaborative strategies in the translanguaging multiliteracies classroom are key to students' authentic engagement and use of linguistic and cultural resources (Gort, 2008; Gutiérrez, Baquedano- López, Alvarez, et al., 1999). But this aspect of interaction—especially peer-

to-peer supportive learning talk—begs for further exploration; using the data I've collected, I would like to analyze the functions of language for learning in peer-to-peer interaction. How is the Spanish and English language used in literacy practices? Do they support language learning in the minoritized language? How does the use of language when designing and producing texts support—or not—content-area learning? Learning how collaborative structures work in the bilingual classroom will help future researchers understand the function of translanguaging practices in literacy practices for language and content learning (Henderson & Palmer, 2015b). Individuals draw from a multiplicity of texts constantly across time and space. Observing a multiliteracies approach across the curriculum will give insight into varied instructional ways to enhance emergent bilinguals' learning experiences.

Conclusion

This dissertation addresses the ways in which a bilingual teacher draws from multimodal texts to provide a flexible bilingual pedagogy (Blackledge & Creese, 2010), offering possibilities for emergent bilinguals to access academic content. The teacher's and students' discourse in Spanish and English, as well as their actions and reactions, act as a resource when interacting around multimodal texts. Ms. Braun was able to build a "third space" (Gutiérrez, Baquedano- López, & Tejeda, 1999) with possibilities for flexibility in language practices across content areas (Hornberger & Link, 2012; Fránquiz, 2012).

The use of multimodal texts is a natural process in Ms. Braun's instructional pedagogy. This study helps us begin to understand ways in which teachers can incorporate multiliteracies in their bilingual classrooms. In other words, it provides documentation of ways bilingual teachers can incorporate multiple modes of texts to enhance emergent bilinguals' learning process. Most importantly, this study shows that, through multiliteracies, Ms. Braun was able to build a classroom space for more equitable linguistic practices. Designing and producing texts across content areas facilitated the navigation of biliteracy practices—an important skill for emergent bilingual students. The practices studied here are based on the dynamism and flexibility of language, literacy, and culture, which are crucial for the inclusion of a more humanistic and culturally sustaining pedagogy leading toward a much needed "democratic project of schooling" (Paris, 2012) in the United States.

Appendix A: Transcription Symbols

[ ] Translation
Pauses (pause)
Overlap //
Other qualities ((L)) Laugh, whisper, cry, whimper, grunt
Unclear ***
Segment missing […]

Appendix B: Timeline of Literacy Events Discussed in Dissertation

Table 7.1 Timeline of Literacy Events Discussed in Dissertation

Literacy Event(s)	Description	Date	Subject Area	Type (Mode) of Text	Specific Text
Studying map perspectives	Students draw the different map perspectives	October 5, 2016	Social studies	Written	Notebook
Designing of a comic strip	Students write a comic strip with a superhero representing magnetic energy	October 6, 2016	Science	Images	Comic Strip
Listening to songs and rhymes	Students listen to songs and rhymes to develop vocabulary in Spanish	October 7, 2016 October 13, 2016	Language arts	Audio and written text	Songs and rhymes in written text
Identifying states of matter	Using realia to represent the different states of matter	October 13, 2016	Science	Written and realia	Notebook and confetti
Studying geographical landmarks	Teacher projects images of geographical landmarks	October 16, 2016	Social studies	Images	Images
Discussing evaporation	Students and teacher discuss everyday life examples of evaporation	October 19, 2016	Science	Written and oral	Notebook
Creation of vocabulary anchor chart	Teacher and students create and refer to anchor charts with cognates, synonyms, and antonym words	October 19, 2016 December 2, 2016 December 10, 2016	Language arts	Written	Poster
Building an alphabet pet book	Students create an alphabet pet book in Spanish	October 21, 2016	Language arts	Written and images	Paper

Table 7.1 Timeline of Literacy Events, cont.

Collaborating in a potential energy exercise	Students observe how potential energy works by building ramps	October 26, 2016	Science	Realia	Ramps, model car, and books
Studying the main idea of an expository text	Teacher relates classification of photographs with main idea of a text.	October 26, 2016	Language arts	Written and Images	Photographs
Highlighting the characteristics of expository texts	Students worked in small groups to identify the characteristics of expository texts	October 26, 2016	Language arts	Poster	Expository texts
Discussing the Day of the Dead	Students and teacher discuss the components of an altar	October 27, 2016	Social studies	Written	Notebook
Watching video about the Day of the Dead	Students notice characteristics particular to the Day of the Dead celebrations	October 27, 2016	Social studies	Video	Video
Writing a literary calavera	Teacher models how to write a literary calavera	October 28, 2016	Language Arts	Written	Notebook
Answering a science worksheet	Students identify the types of mechanical energy	November 2, 2016	Science	Written	Worksheet
Discussing and writing a procedural text	Students write procedural texts in relation to their experiential knowledge	November 2, 2016	Language arts	Written and oral	Notebook
Studying an expository text about experimental design	Students try an experiment by pointing out how much water the globe has.	November 2, 2016	Language arts	Written and realia	Expository text and globe

Table 7.1 Timeline of Literacy Events, cont.

Using a model to understand potential energy	Teacher creates a model of a swing to show potential energy	November 3, 2016	Science	Realia	Ball and string
Studying map symbols	Students create and draw an original map symbol	November 5, 2016	Social studies	Written and images	Notebook
Discussing fiction as a genre	Students and teacher discuss what are the characteristics of fiction texts	November 13, 2016	Language arts	Written and oral	Bookmark
Referring to a paper bookmark to identify different genres	Teacher passes out a bookmark with literary genres and pre-reading strategies to scaffold and discuss these topics	November 13, 2016	Language arts	Written	Bookmark
Reading an expository text about Christopher Columbus	Teacher and students participate in guided reading to identify the genre characteristics of the text.	November 18, 2016	Language arts	Written	Expository text
Studying biographical children's books	Students identify genre characteristics in biographical children's book	November 19, 2016	Language arts	Written	Children's books
Designing movie trailer	Students design movie trailer representing the types of energy	November 13, 2016 to November 19, 2016	Science	Audio, video, and written	Movie trailer
Watching videos to learn about science concepts	Students watch videos to learn about the weather and planets	November 30, 2016 December 7, 2016	Science	Video	Video

Table 7.1 Timeline of Literacy Events, cont.

Using gestures to identify scientific terms	Students gesture different types of energy and vocabulary in expository texts	October 8, 2016 to December 16, 2016	Science	Gestures	Gestures
Studying the model of the water cycle	Students and teacher use an image of a model to understand the different stages of the water cycle	December 16, 2016	Science	Image and written	Water cycle model

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