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Affordances for Language Awareness in a Middle School Transitional Classroom: Multi-Competent L1/L2 Users Under No Child Left Behind

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**AFFORDANCES FOR LANGUAGE AWARENESS
IN A MIDDLE SCHOOL TRANSITIONAL CLASSROOM:
MULTI-COMPETENT L1/L2 USERS UNDER NO CHILD LEFT BEHIND**

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

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in

EDUCATION

by

Ondine A. Gage-Serio

June 2014

The Dissertation of Ondine A. Gage-Serio is
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Vice Provost and Dean of Graduate Studies

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Abstract

Ondine A. Gage-Serio

Affordances for Language Awareness in a Middle School Transitional Classroom:

Multi-Competent L1/L21 Users Under No Child Left Behind

This dissertation examines affordances for Language Awareness within a classroom serving English learners in a coastal California middle school under the policy context of No Child Left Behind. As an ecologically inspired account, this study contributes to understanding how students use and learn language in classroom settings. Affordances for Language Awareness represent possibilities available to students for accessing relevant information to make meaning of language within a classroom. Affordances for Language Awareness are opportunities for meaning making. That is, the learner seeks out meaning, while the classroom context (teacher, pedagogy, realia, classmates, etc.) provides the potential to give meaningful information. No one has conducted a similar study within the context of this policy environment-- a context in which students' and teachers' opportunities to draw on their repertoire of linguistic, cultural, and intellectual resources in classroom and school settings have been drastically constrained. For this reason, a study of affordances for Language Awareness can offer a lens on how a particular policy context may impact classroom language learning.

Taking an ecological perspective on bilingual learners, defined as multi-competent L1/L2 learners, the research questions in this study focus on how

affordances for Language Awareness are constructed within the school context by multi-competent L1/L2 users. A second goal of this study is to understand what factors mediate potential affordances for Language Awareness. A third goal of this study is to consider how the broader ecology of the school, district, state, and federal government language education policy under No Child Left Behind influenced the construction of affordances for Language Awareness.

To address the research questions within an ecological perspective on language learning, a qualitative design was employed. In drawing on qualitative methods, the researcher collected classroom interaction data focused on episodes of meaningful exchanges and case study data which enabled the researcher to understand the range of student practices through which affordances for Language Awareness occurred. The unit of analysis in this study is Language Awareness Related Episodes (LAREs), defined as episodes of conversational exchanges containing ideas contributing to students' Language Awareness in the construction of meaning. The LAREs were inductively coded, revealing four emerging categories.

Further examination of these categories within the individual practices of the case students found that affordances for Language Awareness occurred as bi-directional semiotic activities between students and their teacher while exploring classroom texts, which were contextualized through multi-sensory and multi-modal mediating factors (e.g. listening to text, listening to peers' response to text, text projected on board, keeping marginal notes, visual imagery, music and film).

Findings showed that students most frequently engaged in affordances for Language Awareness while constructing understanding around metalinguistic elements such as morphology and polysemy. The second most frequent finding was students engaged in analeptic discourse exploring shared experiences that allowed for affordances for Language Awareness. A less frequent and third finding was that students engaged in affordances for Language Awareness through prolepsis or co-constructing inference in texts guided by instructional language puzzles. The least frequent occurrence was students who engaged in affordances for Language Awareness through register shifts. The case study findings showed that students demonstrated a range of language practices within the classroom, including (a) independently seeking out opportunities, (b) engaging in dynamic exchanges with classmates and the teacher, and (c) being drawn into the community of learners by peers and the teacher in order to marshal relevant resources for gaining affordances for Language Awareness. While the policy context situating this study was shown to be disruptive, constraining affordances for Language Awareness, this study found that the instructor was able to negotiate policy demands to support students' classroom engagement allowing for affordances for Language Awareness to occur.

The implications of this study are that teachers can resist the dominant discourse supporting classroom practices for students to engage in affordances for Language Awareness through (a) their teaching practices and (b) supporting students to draw on their heritage language resources. Another implication of this study is that classroom practices must allow for the various ways in which students may

experience affordances for Language Awareness. A further implication for policy makers is the need to reconsider how drawing on multiple language resources may support affordances for Language Awareness for both bilingual development and classroom learning.

Dedication and Acknowledgements

This dissertation is dedicated to the memory of Professor Leo van Lier, who was extremely kind and gave generously of his time during the initial stages of this work but who was unable to see it to completion. His ideas resonated with me the moment I began to read his writing and are a centerpiece in this work. The loss of his contribution to scholarship is great.

I also want to thank the members of my dissertation committee. I thank my advisor, Professor Lucinda Pease-Alvarez, who encouraged me to join the doctoral program and who has spent many hours advising, guiding, and mentoring me in this arduous process. I am also indebted to my committee members, Professors Judy Scott and George C. Bunch, whose feedback during the many phases of this project greatly helped to focus my thinking. Again, I am deeply indebted to the guidance of Professor Shigeko Okamoto, who joined the committee after we lost Professor van Lier.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

In Chapter 1, I introduce this study by explaining the concept of Language Awareness and its importance in language learning. I then discuss the salience of studying the Language Awareness of language learners, particularly within the California policy context. I then discuss the contribution which this study provides in addressing affordances for Language Awareness within a traditional English Language Arts classroom at the middle-school level.

Language Awareness (LA) emerged as a concept in the 1960s and 1970s; it was proposed in Great Britain by linguists and language teachers seeking to engage students in developing a greater sensitivity to language and a conscious awareness of how language is used in human life. From the beginning, the LA movement was concerned with three distinct elements: (a) power relationships and class conflict in society, (b) literacy as a means of navigating social structures, and (c) language study as a means of developing cross-cultural communication. The LA movement has evolved in several directions, straddling both cognitivist and sociocultural theoretical orientations (Svalberg, 2007).

This study is influenced by the work of Leo van Lier, whose perspective on LA extends the sociocultural activity theory of Vygotsky. Van Lier (2007) takes an ecological perspective on language and learning, and suggests that LA can be understood as "learning to perceive affordances" within "multimodal communicative events" (p. 45). Van Lier explains that social activity through language mimics an

ecological system — reflecting patterns of activity which are constantly changing depending upon people's social purposes. Within a social environment, language learners must learn to perceive or seek out information which gives meaning, so the learner can participate within the language community. This "seeking out" allows the learner the possibility for an affordance for Language Awareness.

Drawing on an ecological perspective of language activity, van Lier proposes that social environments provide proximal contexts for learners. Proximal contexts are meaningful language environments allowing for linkages between situations, gestures, and other language offerings. When a learner seeks out relevant information to make meaning of language within a proximal context, the activity is bi-directional: the learner is seeking out, while the proximal context provides the potential for meaningful information. Affordances for LA represent possibilities for a coalescence in which a learner seeking out relevant information comes together with the proximal context of a language environment. In other words, affordances for LA are possibilities for engaging in language activity. According to van Lier, learners must "learn to perceive the relationships of possibility" to do things with language (2007, p. 45). An affordance for Language Awareness is an opportunity for gaining meaning through participating in language activity (van Lier, 2004, 2008). The goal of this study is to examine the ecological context within which language learners in a coastal California middle school construct affordances for Language Awareness.

At the time of this study, the policy context in California was described as a "perfect storm," (Gándara & Baca, 2008) in which students deemed to be English

learners experienced limited opportunities to learn. As I describe in Chapter 5, this "perfect storm" was largely due to a convergence of policy initiatives that have succeeded in making schools places where children cannot access their multiple language resources. Instead, schools have become places where English-only or English-mostly education prevails. These initiatives include Proposition 227, which eliminated bilingual education as an instructional option available to the vast majority of California's school-age population. In addition, various features of the federal government's "No Child Left Behind" (NCLB) act further contributed to constraining children's opportunities to use their native languages in instructional settings. In sum, while the social environment within California is multilingual, the language education policies in California are all aimed to enforce a mono-lingual policy context (Gándara & Baca, 2008).

Despite the presence of multilingual communities in California, little work has examined how students from these communities are using their multilingual language abilities in schools and classrooms (Valdés, 2005; Orellana, 2009). The work that has been done focuses primarily on students' acquisition of discrete skills in one or another of their languages (Harper & de Jong, 2004). Given that children are using and developing a range of language resources within their communities to make meaning outside of schooling, several questions arise:

1. How are these children using their language resources within the monolingual climate that prevails in California schools?

2. If language learning within a language ecology is the process of active engagement within language-rich contexts, as van Lier proposes, how are these contexts shaped by the larger policy contexts?

3. How are affordances for Language Awareness constructed within schools by bilingual students?

4. Given the policy constraints imposed on classroom instruction, what affordances for Language Awareness are available to students within the context of classroom interactions involving themselves and their teacher?

5. What factors mediate affordances for Language Awareness? And, finally,

6. How does the broader ecology of language education policy (within the school, district, state, and federal governments) influence the construction of affordances for Language Awareness?

In summary, this study draws on socio-cultural perspectives of second-language acquisition and Language Awareness to provide a situated account of how Language Awareness is constructed within a particular classroom. In so doing, this dissertation focuses on affordances for LA involving bilingual students and their teacher within a particular policy context. While a few studies have focused on the topic of LA within classroom environments, to my knowledge no one has conducted a similar study within the context of the current policy environment — a context in which students' and teachers' opportunities to draw on their repertoire of linguistic, cultural, and intellectual resources in classroom and school settings have been drastically constrained.

Chapter 2: Review of the Literature

Overview

In Part I of this literature review, I briefly situate this study within the language planning and policy context in the U.S. and California. During the data collection phase of this study, No Child Left Behind (NCLB) (2001) had been in effect for 7 years. This overview of the policy context provides a background for considering how language ideologies and orientations have impacted the students' opportunities to engage with affordances for Language Awareness. In Part II, I describe perspectives on language learners within Second Language Acquisition and Bilingualism in order to situate the concept of students as multi-competent. Finally, in Part III, I discuss the literature on Language Awareness. As this study provides a situated account of multi-competent L1/L2 students and their teacher engaged in the process of constructing affordances for Language Awareness within a U.S. middle school, these three areas must be addressed to orient the reader to this study.

Part I: Overview of Policy on Language Learners

Historically, language policy in the U.S. has been driven by an ideology that privileges English monolingualism. As the dominant language in the U.S., English has been a discriminating tool which generally enforced linguistic and cultural assimilation within educational contexts (Auerbach, 1993; Hakuta, 1986; Wiley & Lukes, 1996). Garcia (2009) describes the global policy shifts underpinning geopolitical ideologies in history. Drawing on a framework developed by Ruiz

(1984), she identifies monolingualism (privileging of English) in the first half of the 20th century as a *language diversity as a problem* orientation. Looking at the evidence of competing ideological forces within the second half of the 20th century, she then identifies an orientation in which *language diversity as a right* and *language diversity as a resource* have pushed back against *language diversity as a problem.*

These competing ideologies have shaped much of the policy around the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) and subsequent re-authorizations. ESEA, initiated in 1965 with Lyndon B. Johnson's War on Poverty, was federal legislation to target children from low-income families. One measure, Title VII or the Bilingual Education Act of 1968, authorized compensation through grant funding to states in order to address the educational needs of students whose poverty and limited English abilities identified them as being at risk of failing within the public education system (Crawford, 1999). Because students, historically, have been placed in classrooms where the approach to English-language instruction was sink-or-swim, the law sought to address the educational needs of children whose first language was not English, as they were a demographic of students disproportionately represented as dropping out of school (Wright, 2010).

Between 1968 and 2001, the ESEA underwent six re-authorizations which various policy initiatives have reflected, to some degree, these competing orientations towards language. For example, in 1974, bilingual education was defined as providing instruction in both English and a student's first language in order to allow for equal access to the educational system without the loss of native language and

culture. These changes reflect *language diversity as a right* and even *language diversity as a resource.* The second (1978) and third (1984) amendments to Title VII also reflect the shifting ideologies. Within the second re-authorization, an emphasis was placed on bilingual education as a means of transitioning students to all-English instruction, thus implicitly privileging English over the home-culture language.

Within the third re-authorization, funding was modified to expand a district's right to oversee programs offering a range of instructional models: *transitional, developmental,* and *alternative* (Wright, 2010)*.* The discourse reflecting the orientation of these programs was *language as a resource* and, to some extent, *language as a right* (Evans & Hornberger, 2005). For example, *transitional bilingual programs* allowed for dual immersion instructional models in which 40% of the students were not English learners but learned a second language alongside English learners. These programs began in kindergarten with a goal of transitioning students to all-English curricula by either third grade (early-exit) or sixth grade (late-exit). *Developmental bilingual programs* were taught in both English and the first language (L1), beginning in kindergarten and continuing up to third or as late as sixth grade. Again, the goal was to transition students to 100% English by the conclusion of the program. S*pecial alternative instruction,* which included both ESL and Sheltered Instruction, aimed to provide highly contextualized English-language instruction through content area instruction (Wright, 2010). Although these instructional models "provided space for bilingual education in one form or another" (Evans & Hornberger, 2005, p. 88), the ideological drive within program applications was to

move students to all-English instruction. In other words, there has been an ideological tension within each re-authorization.

The fourth re-authorization, in 1988, placed a cap on funding with preference to programs which moved students quickly to mainstream classes. Moreover, transitional bilingual programs were limited to 3 years, despite increasing evidence that accelerating the transition to mainstream classes was identified as least effective (Collier, 1995).

Following the fifth re-authorization of Title VII, the Clinton administration introduced the Improving America's Schools Act (1994), seeking to expand bilingual education for global market competitiveness, and adding provisions for dual-immersion programs which fostered proficient bilingualism (C. Baker, 2002; Evans & Hornberger, 2005). The fact that these changes came under intense scrutiny reflects the monolingual ideological drive which effectively eliminated Title VII in the sixth re-authorization (Evans & Hornberger, 2005).

With the introduction of No Child Left Behind (NCLB) in 2001, the changes in federal policy drew on the ideological orientation of language and learning of the Bush presidential administration, which conceived of bilingual education and bilingualism as a problem (Evans & Hornberger, 2005). The term *bilingual* was expunged from the record (Crawford, 2002). All language acknowledging the role of the native language in facilitating a child's learning and strengthening academic development in English vanished. The Bilingual Education Act was tacitly revoked (Evans & Hornberger, 2005). The Office of Bilingual Education and Minority

Languages Affairs became the Office of English Language Acquisition, Language

Enhancement, and Academic Achievement for Limited-English-Proficient (Crawford,

2002). The primary goal of NCLB was that language minority students gain English-

language proficiency and move rapidly into English-only classrooms (Evans &

Hornberger, 2005). In prescribing that children should be proficient in English within

three years or less, an inordinate emphasis was placed on the rate at which children

should acquire English (Evans & Hornberger, 2005) without any consideration of the

research on language and cognitive development in bilingual children (Cummins,

1980; Wong Fillmore, 1991). Accountability measures contained in NCLB gauged

schools by the number of students who were re-classified from designated English

Language Learners (ELL) to Fluent English Proficient (FEP) (Evans & Hornberger,

2005). "Students' achievement . . . is now disaggregated according to subgroup" (p.

94); in other words, students with special needs and English learners could now be

grouped according to reading ability (Evans & Hornberger, 2005).

Additionally, alternative language education programs removed under NCLB

have been replaced by *Reading First,* "the largest and most heavily funded

educational program initiative in recent U.S. history" (Harper, de Jong, & Platt, 2008,

p. 268). *Reading First* has resulted in schools following a one-size-fits-all leveled

English reading program for struggling monolingual and multilingual students alike.

In addition, English as a Second Language (ESL) is not recognized under NCLB as a

core subject; and, classes are often structured by reading level where special needs

and English learners are combined (Harper et al., 2008). Moreover, an entire school is

identified as needing improvement "if the required percentage in one of the subgroups fails to attain the standards set for all students" (Evans & Hornberger, 2005, p. 94). These substantial changes reflect a renewed orientation toward *language diversity as a problem* and promote a monolingual, English-only instructional ideology (Evans and Hornberger, 2005).

This ideological shift is also evident in California, the site of this study. In the 1960s, California was a forerunner in supporting bilingual education. The *Lau v. Nichols* case (1974), which originated in California, had mounted support for the original Title VII federal legislation. By the 1990s, 30% of English learners were enrolled in bilingual education. However, in 1998, 61% of the California voters passed Proposition 227 (Prop 227) which restricted bilingual education in favor of Structured English Immersion (SEI) (Wright, 2010). Proponents of SEI, driven by an English-only ideological orientation (Gándara & Baca, 2008), claimed that offering instruction overwhelmingly in English applied the methods used in successful Canadian immersion programs (K. Baker, 1998). Prop 227 also specified the conditions under which districts could offer bilingual instruction at school sites, constraining program options by requiring parents to sign waivers allowing for bilingual instruction (Gándara & Baca, 2008).

As I describe in Chapter 5, California elected to impose annual English-only testing as a means of monitoring state and federal academic accountability. This decision placed added pressure on the few enduring bilingual programs to provide

instruction overwhelmingly in English. In addition, funding under NCLB for program improvement was connected to Reading First which relied on pre-packaged, "scientifically based" reading programs designed for monolingual native speakers (Pease-Alvarez, Davies Samway, & Cifka-Herrera, 2010). Consequently, the convergence of federal NCLB and state post-Prop 227 policy created a forced monolingual educational climate in California (Gándara & Baca, 2008).

Ricento and Hornberger (1996) liken language planning and policy to an onion, where layers of the onion reflect "planning agents, levels, and processes" (p. 402) in policy. In this study, I take the similar the position that ideologically driven policy orientations trigger responding activity within the multi-layered language ecologies of school communities. Hence, my account of the policy (Chapter 5) focuses on how different layers of the policy ecology are implicated in the way policy is enacted in classrooms.

In this section, I have argued that both the federal policy and state policy at the time of this study demonstrate a renewed emphasis on *language diversity as a problem* (Garcia, 2009) — an orientation first coined by Ruiz (1984). As this study seeks to embed an understanding of classroom processes within a broader ecology, I contend that the English-only monolingual ideology driving federal and state policy impacted these processes.

Part II: Perspectives on Second Language Acquisition and Bilingualism

Social turn in the field of SLA. The research in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) has traditionally measured the success of a second-language speaker by drawing on the ideal language of the native speaker, following a Chomskian cognitivist tradition. This perspective conceives of native-like competence in the learner's second language as the goal of SLA (Cook, 1991, 1997). In the earliest description of learner language, *interlanguage* was a language system somewhere between the learner's own language and the target language of the native speaker (Selinker, 1972). Moreover, a learner's interlanguage was analyzed by examining the differences between errors in the learner's language and an idealized native speaker. More recently, criticisms of these central ideas in much of SLA research have informed several new areas of inquiry.

The construct of the *native speaker* implies a series of sociolinguistic inaccuracies (Rampton, 1990):

1. The definition that a native speaker has acquired a heritage language or mother-tongue from infancy draws on the stereotype of associating the heritage language with a single ethnicity or particular country of origin (Rampton, 1990). The association of a single native language with each country reveals an underlying monolingual ideological orientation (Cook 1991, 1997) — which stands in contrast to the reality that multilingualism

is the norm in the world's 200 countries where approximately 7,000 languages are spoken (Cenoz, 2013).

2. The assumption that a native speaker is somehow linguistically omnipotent, possessing perfect linguistic competence in all aspects of a language, is inaccurate (Block, 2003; Firth & Wagner, 1997; Rampton, 1990).

3. The construct of the native speaker implies that the native speaker's language is static when languages and the speakers who use them are dynamic and constantly changing (Rampton 1990).

Additionally, innovations in corpus linguistics corroborate the sociolinguistic findings that the range of language uses is dependent upon the social purposes of use (Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, & Finegan, 1999). Moreover, these corpus studies illustrate that an ideal native speaker — or even a single standard language — does not exist in the real world. All language is dynamic in that it reflects the communicative purposes of language users in the construction of many different standards (Biber & Vásquez, 2008). Yet the unachievable goal of gaining native speaker status, which continues to frustrate learners and even their teachers, has been the focus of SLA (Valdés, 2005).

In the 1990s, scholars reacting to these sociolinguistic inaccuracies began to challenge the predominance of cognitivist SLA theories. They critiqued the focus on the mind of the individual learner through computer models following cognitive linguistics (Atkinson, 2002; Atkinson, Churchill, Nishino, & Okada, 2007; Block,

2003; Firth & Wagner, 1997; Valdés, 2005). They argued that cognitivist theories present a highly individualistic account of language learning which ignores the many and varied social contexts within which languages are acquired and used (Block, 2003; Rampton, 1995). Moreover, as Rampton (1995) demonstrated in his study of adolescent L2 learners in Britain, psycho-linguistic research that focuses on language processing in the abstract and is conducted in artificial settings is not generalizable to real-world contexts. The limited explanatory power of cognitivist accounts has neglected the social and historical contexts of language acquisition and use (Atkinson, 2002; Atkinson et al., 2007; Block, 2003; Firth & Wagner, 1997; Valdés, 2005). As Block (2003) has argued, a language learner is "not just an information processing machine; rather, she is a flesh-and-blood, historically and sociologically situated active agent" (p. 119). In doing so, these scholars have called for research which takes a more sociolinguistic perspective on the use of learner language.

Initiating what has been called the social turn in Second Language Acquisition (Block, 2003), Firth and Wagner (1997) propose a more sociolinguistic account and argue for a reconceptualization of SLA theory incorporating discourse and communication. In particular, they reject the "learner-as-defective-communicator mindset" (p. 290) where the learner is characterized as struggling to achieve the native-like competence of the omniscient native speaker. They argue, "people can never say what they mean in the absolute sense — meaning is ineluctably negotiated" (p. 290). Meaning is made between speakers through the interconnection of turn-taking in conversation where each speaker contributes to the communicative activity

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in the construction of meaning. Instead, they argue for a model illustrating what learners do with their language by examining "the discursive real time problem-solving nature of communication" (p. 291).

Building on the sociolinguistic stance, Block (2003) argues that a theory of SLA cannot ignore the sociocultural, historical, and institutional settings in which language is created. Using the work of Firth and Wagner (1997) and others, he calls for a more dialogic account that incorporates the Second Language Activity framework of Lantolf and Pavlenko (2001). In summarizing Lantolf and Pavlenko's work, Block presents five major tenets:

1. learners bring with them and build over their lifetime historically and socially situated experiences;

2. on the one hand, these experiences are mediating forces defining how learners understand language;

3. on the other hand, language then becomes the mediator through which the learner participates in a community;

4. not learning may reflect a learner's resistance due to a sense of feeling marginalized by the target community; and,

5. a learner's sense of agency is co-constructed by both the learner and the community.

These practices culminate in the construction of learner identity. Block's point is that learning is more about learner agency, and less about the curriculum being taught

(2003). As Ortega (2010) sums up, "the crises caused by the social turn in SLA has led the field into a kind of fruitful epistemological diversity that affords unique opportunities to enrich our multilayered understanding of additional language learning" (p. 178).

In summary, the social turn in the second field of Second Language Acquisition has challenged perspectives on language learning. The deficit orientation of the "learner-as-defective-communicator mindset" (Firth & Wagner, 1997, p. 290) with the goal of native speaker command is being questioned. As a result, the "fruitful epistemological diversity" brought by these changes suggests a research orientation focusing on the learner as an active agent with a goal of understanding what learners are able to do with language (Ortega, 2010, p. 178).

Bilingualism through the lens of the monolingual. Perspectives on bilingual development have also suffered from a monolingual orientation focused on comparing bilingual to monolingual children — albeit primarily in defense of bilingualism (Hakuta, 1986). Much research in bilingualism historically has been motivated by a psycho-linguistic interest in the benefits of managing more than one language system. Many argued that bilingualism facilitates meta-linguistic awareness which may generally support meta-cognitive processing (Ben-Zeev, 1977; Bialystok, 2001; Cummins, 1978; Hakuta, 1986; Ianco-Worral, 1972; Mohanty, 1994; Peal & Lambert, 1962). The research in support of bilingual education came from these early studies, which found that childhood bilinguals have greater cognitive flexibility (Peal

& Lambert, 1962), a superior ability to accept semantic variability (Ianco-Worral, 1972), and an acute awareness of details (Ben-Zeev, 1977). Moreover, the hope was that the bilingual educational experience would give children an academic edge (Peal & Lambert, 1962; Vygotsky, 1962). While this body of research held great promise, other research — primarily on immigrant children — did not procure the same promising results (Cummins, 1979a; Skutnabb-Kangas & Toukomaa, 1976).

Cummins (1979b), attempting to address the apparent contradiction between bilinguals who tested competitively with monolinguals and those who did not, proposed his Threshold Hypothesis (T.H.). Seeking to prolong bilingual instruction, Cummins argued that bilingual children may not benefit from knowing two languages until they reach a certain level of ability, *a threshold*, in their primary language where the academic skills could be accessed in either language. He also hypothesized that academic abilities were distinguishable from general communicative skills — a framework which readily explains why children may appear to be orally proficient in an L2 but were unable to perform at age/grade level in academic subjects. He proposed that second-language Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) could be acquired in roughly two years, from his analysis of a large data set in Toronto which matched bilinguals and monolinguals by IQ, sex, age and socioeconomic status. He also suggested that Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) were abilities which allow children to perform academically at grade level. He argued that it would take 5 to 7 years for children acquiring a second language to develop CALP. Within a historical context, Cummins's (1979a, 1980)

now-famous constructs, BICS and CALP, provided a way of explaining the complexities of bilingual development which had not yet been considered or understood. In particular, he was concerned that children exhibiting BICS but a lack of CALP were being labeled as needing Special Education or as cognitively impaired (Cummins, 2000).

Although Cummins's construct was highly influential within bilingual education and research (Valdés, 2004), his psycho-linguistic research base drew criticism as it was used to support a deficit perspective on bilingual education (Edelsky et al., 1983; Martin-Jones & Romaine, 1986; Rivera, 1984; Wiley, 2005; Wiley & Lukes, 1996). At the heart of the BICS/CALP debate has been the cognitivist orientation of Cummins's work, gauging language abilities through psycho-linguistic measures. As Martin-Jones and Romaine (1986) contend,

> Language skills cannot be neatly compartmentalized in the way that
> Cummins suggests. Discrete-point tests are based on the assumption that it is
> possible to separate analytically different aspects of language competence
> without reference to the context of usage. This is a highly questionable
> assumption. (p. 29)

Several scholars in bilingualism have taken to task both the cognitivist orientation of Cummins's BICS/CALP construct and the fact that this work has supported a deficit view of language learners (Edelsky et al., 1983; Martin-Jones & Romaine, 1986; Rivera, 1984; Wiley, 2005). For example, CALP appears to be autonomous and

neglects the power dynamic and social practices around the acquisition of CALP (Edelsky et. al., 1983). The notion of CALP as decontextualized promotes a deficit theory which implicates the child's cognitive academic failings instead of the institution of schooling (Edelsky et al., 1983; Rivera, 1984; Wiley, 2005). Furthermore, critics also argued that Cummins's essentially cognitivist orientation focuses simply on school tasks, such as test taking, and neglects the real purposes of language use (Edelsky et. al., 1983; Martin-Jones & Romaine, 1986). While Cummins has sought to reframe and refine his framework, his theories have created a blame-the-victim deficit view which has been used to oppose bilingual education (Edelsky et. al., 1983).

In summary, while Cummins sought to support bilingual education, the misinterpretation and misapplication of his framework has been used against bilingual education in the U.S. (Edelsky et al., 1983; Martin-Jones & Romaine, 1986; Rivera, 1984; Wiley, 2005). Furthermore, the emphasis within his construct has been on children's lack of Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency which has triggered a debate in academia around precisely defining *academic language*.

Constructs of academic language. Constructs of academic language have been described in the literature in many ways: (a) the language of schooling (Halliday & Martin, 1993; Schleppegrell, 2004); (b) Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) (Cummins, 1979b, 1980, 2000); (c) Academic Language (Chamot, 2005; Chamot & O'Malley, 1987; Cummins, 2000); (d) Academic English (Bailey, 2007;

Scarcella, 2003); (e) Academic English register (Biber et al., 1999); (f) the academic discourse (Gutierrez, 1995); and (g) the social discourses within high school, college, and the workplace (Gee, 2002).

In her lengthy review of the literature, Scarcella (2003) conflates the term *academic language* as a*cademic English*, and argues that academics fall into two camps on the subject. Some believe that academic English can be taught; others define academic literacy as a reflection of a wide array of changing and evolving disciplines with no widely accepted standard. Academic language can only be acquired by participation within the academic disciplines. Aukerman (2007) points to the reification of CALP which has become a catch-all deficiency. Teachers, she argues, diagnose students as lacking CALP without evaluating their own failure to mediate concepts and language through their pedagogy (Aukerman, 2007).

One problem in the wide range of definitions around academic language is that scholars whose disciplines may overlap (including K–12 educational researchers, TESOL at the college level, mainstream English and Bilingual Education) fail to communicate outside their discipline and few address bilingual academic language (Valdés, 2004). In Bailey's (2007) attempt to operationalize the concept of academic language, she argues that the reliance on psychometric tests does not distinguish between the academic concepts a child understands and the language they are expected to use to demonstrate this knowledge. In summary, the "tendency to glorify and romanticize a particular type of academic language discourse" (Bartolome, 1998,

p. 4), to test students in this language, and to define students according to dimensions of Academic Language or Academic English focuses narrowly on one language. Furthermore, the construct of Academic Language has obfuscated the fact that participation in schooling and larger workplace institutions continues for the most part to be monolingual, thus validating a very narrow variety of English. This monolingual lens has detracted from our understanding of what learners do with language. As Bunch (2006) has suggested, distinguishing between the "language of ideas," where students draw on various linguistic resources to mediate their understanding, may provide the space for garnering the "language of display" rewarded within academic settings.

Translanguaging and language mixing — learning through multiple languages. Valdés (2005) has examined the varying degrees of competencies which students may possess in languages other than English. She argues that range of bilingual abilities represented are neither well understood nor well explained by current models of second language acquisition or bilingualism. Like Garcia (2009), Valdés (2005) notes that bilingual populations are expanding (as I addressed in Chapter 1) and that the language varieties used within these communities have changed; consequently, assumptions about bilingualism are complicated.

Garcia (2009) argues that learning within these communities is mediated through what she has termed translanguaging (borrowing the term from Cen Williams, cited in C. Baker, 2002). Translanguaging reflects the multiple discursive

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practices of bilinguals growing up in bilingual homes and communities where

members of a family or community may have varying degrees of ability in either both

or multiple languages such that discourse may be conducted through several

languages. Garcia argues that children growing up in multilingual social contexts

learn through these many uses of language. As Romaine (1999) explains, there are as

many as six types of bilingual acquisition — but the most common and, at the same

time, the least represented in the literature is what she calls *language mixing*.

Language mixing refers to language use within multilingual communities. Language

mixing (Romaine, 1999) and translanguaging (Garcia, 2009) reflect complex uses of

language within multilingual communities which have only begun to be uncovered

within the last decade.

Researchers studying children who are growing up in multilingual

communities have documented the role that translanguaging plays in the lives of

children and others. For example, a number of researchers have described how

children contribute to their communities through their translation, interpreting, or

language-brokering abilities (Orellana, 2009; Orellana, Reynolds, Dorner, & Meza,

2003; Valdés, 2003; Vásquez, Pease-Alvarez, & Shannon, 1994). Studies of

interpreting abilities found within multilingual communities reveal children who may

adopt adult roles as they mediate language between linguistic communities. In a

detailed analysis of the translation skills exhibited by these children, Valdés (2003)

found that children who translated for their parents possessed sophisticated and

cognitively demanding abilities demonstrated by highly trained professional

interpreters (Valdés, 2003). Furthermore, Valdés (2005) also complicated definitions of bilingualism by identifying learners who have receptive knowledge of one language but will not speak or choose not to speak in that language. For example, a child who has receptive skills only in Spanish may act as a mediator between his or her parents and their doctor by translating his or her receptive knowledge of Spanish into English (Valdés, 2003).

Orellana (2009), who spent over 10 years examining the translation work of children, argues that, in the role of language broker, children do more than navigate literal meanings. She has suggested three general constructs:

1. keen observation or attentive listening, where children extract connotative and denotative meanings;
2. perspective taking, when children delicately navigate the different social, cultural, and situational perspectives of the interlocutors for whom they are translating; and,
3. broad/flexible repertoires of discursive practices, which, she argues, could serve as important conceptual bridges for school learning.

Unfortunately, however, these complex social contexts of language use and learning are not considered when evaluating language abilities through a monolingual lens of language use.

More recently, Sayer (2013) has drawn on the concept translanguaging (Garcia, 2009) as a pedagogical tool within a transitional bilingual elementary

classroom in Texas. In this study, the bilingual instructor draws on the students'

multiple discursive practices which include English, Spanish and a variety of

vernacular Spanish he defines as *TexMex* as a means of mediating academic content.

Following Garcia (2009), Sayer (2013) contends that this approach allows for

discursive spaces which provide students with the opportunity to access school

concepts and express themselves from a flexible position as bilingual Latinos.

In summary, I have argued that perspectives on bilingual development have

suffered from a monolingual orientation focused on comparing bilingual children to

monolingual children. In so doing, psychometric assessments which narrowly view

students through their ability to negotiate the language of the test have reinforced a

deficit view of children within bilingual communities. More recently, scholars have

begun to examine how language is used within immigrant communities, arguing that

these communities are multilingual. This acknowledgement also underscores and

calls for a different perspective on language acquisition. Namely, children growing up

within multilingual communities are gaining conceptual knowledge mediated through

multiple languages. Others have explored how children participate within these

communities through translanguaging. This wider lens on language use within

communities demands a term which more accurately captures community language

practices.

Multi-competence. In contrast to prevailing views in Second Language

Acquisition which consider monolingualism the norm and measure language learners

against a monolingual native speaker standard, Cook (1991, 1992) argues that people who speak more than one language are the norm in the world and possess different cognitive processes from monolinguals. Attending to evidence that the functioning of the mental lexicon and cognitive processing is shared between languages, and that bilinguals often code switch to convey meaning with other bilinguals, he argues that we must consider the totality of speakers' abilities. Cook (1992) proposes that multi-competence — a perspective which encompasses the entire ability of multiple language users, as opposed to bilingual which presents a fractional view — offers a clearer and more accurate account of bilinguals' abilities.

Valdés (2005) expands upon Cook's perspective by emphasizing the role that various language varieties play in the lives of bilingual children living in the United States. Valdés writes that children entering school may speak a heritage language which is a contact variety. A contact variety could be a language, such as Spanish, which has undergone a linguistic shift within the community of minority language speakers, drawing lexically from the dominant language while also undergoing linguistic change characterized by loss, addition, and replacement of linguistic features. These same students may also speak a contact or dialectal variety of English. Contact varieties (Valdés, 2001, 2005) of the heritage languages and dialectal varieties of English have evolved within communities reflecting the identity, and social purposes of the language speakers.   Like all human languages, these varieties of language are systematic, bearing a unique grammar — though dialectal varieties of English and contact varieties of heritage languages may not be considered standard

usage and may be stigmatized in school (MacSwan, 2000; Rolstad, 2005; Siegel, 2003; Valdés, 2005). To clarify, Valdés (1998, 2005) has identified students who use both a dialect of the heritage language and a dialect of English which she calls D1/D2. For this reason, Valdés (2005) suggests a multi-competent L1/L2 learner paradigm, pointing out differences in productive and receptive skills which learners may possess. For example, some students have receptive knowledge of one language but may have experienced attrition, or may choose not to speak in that language. Yet a child may also exhibit sophisticated pragmatic sensitivity mediating between a parent and a doctor, translating his or her receptive knowledge of Spanish into English (Orellana, 2009; Valdés, 2003). Valdés (2005) argues that a theory of language learning must account for the range in receptive and productive language abilities exhibited in social contexts.

The critical point is that children growing up in these communities gain experience in life narrated through these sometimes many and varied dialects, languages, and the language of schooling (Bartolome, 1998). Therefore, in adopting the term multi-competent L1/L2 user, this study aims to be inclusive of the full range of a learner's linguistic potential which may provide affordances for Language Awareness to occur within the classroom ecology.

Part III: Language Awareness

The concept of Language Awareness (LA) began as a conversation in the United Kingdom around the work of the sociologist Basil Bernstein during the 1960s

and 1970s (James, 1999). Bernstein, coming to doctoral work after many years of teaching in working-class communities, attempted to explain how *social codes* established and defined community membership. Codes, he argued, are like a sociolinguistic grammar, which are akin to Bourdieu's notion of *habitus* (Bernstein, 1990). Bernstein explained codes as a way of communicating cultural messages. His goal was to understand how codes oriented speakers within a social class, within a family, and within a community system (Danzig, 1995). His early work drew on linguistics to examine the structural elements of code. He noted that the working classes relied on what he termed a restricted code (i.e., using more pronouns which rely on the interlocutors' shared knowledge). The middle classes, he noted, had access to both a restricted code and elaborate code — the latter of which included structures such as longer embedded clauses and fewer command forms, allowing for more volition on the part of the listener.[1] Bernstein was concerned about an educational system which discriminated against students unfamiliar with the range of codes used by the teacher (Halliday, 1995). Danzig (1995) argues that Bernstein's work was comparable to Shirley Brice Heath's (1983) study of language practices within the working- and middle-class communities of Trackton. Although Bernstein's work was misinterpreted (primarily among American linguists) as promoting a deficit perspective[2] (Danzig, 1995; Halliday, 1995), European linguists such as

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[1] Command forms are described as having more perlocutionary force and disallowing the listener the will to act independently (Austin, 1962).

[2] Halliday (1995) writes that the criticisms of Bernstein by American sociolinguists were, in part, a response to another cultural battle waged by Labov (1970) who sought to defend African American children's language use against the cultural deficit views proposed by Bereiter.

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Michael Halliday and Ruqaiya Hasan, working with Bernstein, began to think more deeply about how to address semiotic aspects of language use in education (Halliday, 1995). Furthermore, several U.K. educational reports in the 1970s and 1980s identified disturbing trends. Roughly half of the children from the working classes were poor readers and, for those who started out behind in school, the gap grew wider with every year of education. In addition to the reports regarding low literacy rates, the dropout rates were very high among West Indian populations, and there had been riots between the lower class whites and citizens from former British colonies (Hawkins, 1999). Linguists and educators (both English and foreign-language) — in their efforts to address the social issues of class conflict and the educational issues which disempowered populations — gave rise to a new movement. Eric Hawkins, who is known as the father of Language Awareness, proposed a curriculum incorporating "reflection on native and foreign language study" emphasizing the importance of expanding "students' thought and of guarding against ethnocentrism in Britain's increasingly diverse society" (Ellis, 2012, p. 3). Drawing on the work of Fairclough, Foucault, Bourdieu and Freire, the Language Awareness movement complicated simplistic conceptions of language ability and practice by emphasizing how language use is connected to power structures. They also recognized that all language is variable, and all language varieties (standard and non-standard) should be respected (van Lier, 1996). Furthermore, because learning more than one language allows for articulation between and about languages, the Language Awareness movement argued in favor of a multilingual curriculum (Hawkins, 1999).

In 1985, the U.K. National Council for Language Education Working Party on Language Awareness posited a working definition of Language Awareness: "Language Awareness is a person's sensitivity to and conscious awareness of the nature of language and its role in human life" (Svalberg, 2007, p. 278). With this definition in mind, the concern was how to train teachers to embody this perspective in pedagogy and how to teach students. As Svalberg (2007) reports, Language Awareness as a field of study ranges from cognitive linguistics to socio-cultural linguistics, including attention and awareness in language learning, language teaching, and cross-cultural awareness. The original concerns of the Language Awareness movement are even more relevant today due to shifts in populations in response to economic demands, migration, and globalization (Svalberg, 2007).

In the 1990s, perspectives on Language Awareness evolved in accordance with cognitivist innovations in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and debates around form-focused instruction. One line of inquiry around LA has been the role of awareness in learning language. In particular, Schmidt's (1990) paper "The Role of Consciousness in Second Language Learning" has been a centerpiece in considering the role of consciousness in learning as beginning with attention which is a precondition of awareness. Drawing on research in neuroscience, attention is achieved through alertness, detection, and orientation (Posner & Peterson, 1990). Schmidt (1993) argues that language learning occurs through conscious noticing of language and that conscious noticing is requisite to learning all aspects of language, including the lexicon, phonology, grammatical form, and, in particular, pragmatic

competence. Schmidt (1994) further elaborates, identifying four levels of

consciousness: *intention, attention, awareness*, and *control*. Intention reflects the

learner's intent to learn. Attention relates to the learner's effort. Awareness refers to

the learner's sense of his or her own learning. Control refers to the learner's ability to

maintain attention and awareness. Schmidt (2001) modifies this stance by indicating

that attention is necessary for all aspects of language learning and that awareness

improves language learning.

Building upon Schmidt's work, Al-Hejin (2004) contends that attention and

awareness are operationally distinguishable. Attention can be understood through four

points which are described by Tomlin and Villa (1994):

1. the brain cannot attend to all of the stimuli which it perceives, so attention
   is the mechanism of narrowing or limiting attentional focus;

2. attention requires selection;

3. attention is a controlled process rather than automatic. Tasks which are
   more demanding require more attention. One can multitask only if the
   tasks require less controlled attention; and,

4. attention demands co-ordination between the competing stimuli and
   responses to stimuli.

Al-Hejin (2004) writes that, although attention is necessary for learning to

occur, there is some debate regarding the degree of attention. In contrast, awareness

facilitates — but is not a requirement for — learning. Awareness takes into account a

person's subjective experience in response to stimulus, and requires that one must show a change in behavior and be able to recount the stimulus (Al-Hejin, 2004). Alternatively, Van Patten (1990) has argued that learners do not necessarily notice what they do not know, arguing for the relevance of instructional mediation to direct a learner's attention to novel information. Lee (2007) has suggested that there is a trade-off between form and meaning, meaning taking precedence. While they have made contributions within their own right, van Lier (2008) points out that the majority of these studies of learning and perception have been conducted mainly in controlled laboratory environments. Thus, he argues, they "sidestep the basic question of how language perception develops, how it intertwines with action, and how it is internalized" (van Lier, 2007, p. 55). For this reason, van Lier's ecological perspective on language learning provides a necessarily situated and socio-cultural account of Language Awareness.

In van Lier's (1995) earlier discussions, he contends that "Language Awareness is noticing language around us and examining it in a critical manner" (p. 10). In his book *Interaction in the Language Curriculum: Awareness, Autonomy, and Authenticity* (1996), he writes that, in a classroom context, Language Awareness is about learning to learn. In other words, LA is not limited to learning about form (though form could be an aspect of it), but awareness in language "implies much more than metalinguistic awareness" (p. 96). Language Awareness is essentially interconnected with "autonomy and authenticity" (p. 95) or the situation in which learners perceive, interact, and think about the language. In other words, while

acknowledging the cognitivist contribution, van Lier aims to understand the process

of learning within a language ecology (1995, 1996, 2000, 2004, 2007, 2008). In

considering autonomy, Van Lier's work also focuses on the identity of the learner and

how language-learning is action-based — that is, it changes the learners as well as the

language ecology within which the learners participate (2007).

Others who have built on van Lier's (2007) notion of autonomy, such as

Svalberg (2009), ascertain that "engagement and motivation" imply "autonomy."

Svalberg (2009) aims to operationalize "engagement with language" in a classroom,

providing what she defines as a *dynamic model* bringing together: (a) "aspects of a

highly complex environment," (b) "cognitive aspects and notions such as agency,"

and (c) "autonomy" in an EFL classroom (p. 256). Her working definition of

engagement with language is "a cognitive, and/or affective, and/or social state and a

process in which the learner is the agent and the language is the object and may be the

vehicle (of communication)" (p. 244). Svalberg develops a table of components to

analyze the relationship of engagement with neighboring constructs — such as

involvement, commitment and motivation — in order to consider how cognitive,

affective, and social constructs are exemplified. Then, using classroom interactions

during grammar instruction, she collected examples of scenarios illustrating

Cognitive Engagement, Affective Engagement, and Social Engagement.

Svalberg's model provides an insightful analysis in its own right; however, in

dissecting engagement she presents an analytical cognitivist orientation which misses

a key ingredient present in van Lier's work. She writes,

> The picture emerging is of individuals who are actively constructing their
> knowledge not only by mental processes but also equally by being socially
> active and taking initiatives. (Svalberg, 2009, p. 246)

The burden, according to Svalberg, seems to fall upon the learner to take the initiative and be socially active; whereas in van Lier's ecological account, he necessarily situates an affordance for Language Awareness within a bi-directional ecological context. The semiotic process is the process of coming to an affordance through both what the learner perceives or seeks but also through the offerings of the environment. In other words, in an oral context, the environmental offering may be the way the interlocutor choses language, repairs language, or provides a gesture, facial expression, or pause. With written language, the conversation is between the author and the reader; however, according to van Lier (2004, 2008), more-expert learners will create proximal contexts for themselves. In other words, while a learner may not have the para-linguistic cues available to understand written text, a learner will marshal available resources (such as the internet, etc.) to seek out an affordance for Language Awareness (van Lier, 2008).

In another study of exploring aspects of Language Awareness, Storch (2008) also examined the *metatalk* of students working in pairs in a text reconstruction task. Storch's analysis used Swain and Lapkin's (1995, 2001) Language-Related Episodes (LRE) as the unit of analysis, defined as "any part of a dialogue where students talk about the language they are producing, question the language use", question themselves or correct one another (Storch, 2008, p. 97). Building upon Swain and

Lapkin, Storch specifies exchanges between partners whose engagement produced grammatical form (F-LRE), lexis or word meanings (L-LRE) or mechanics (M-LRE). Exchanges were rated as elaborate to limited engagement. Storch's findings indicated that learners attended to a "range of language items, not only those targeted by the task" (p. 109) and that the more elaborate the discussions, the more the learners gained from the activity. Again, from a cognitivist and psycho-linguistic perspective, this research contributes to theories of hypothesis testing, rule generating, etc. However, from an ecological lens, the learner's attention to items "not targeted by the task" (Storch, 2008, p. 109) would seem to support van Lier's perceiving as seeking out. In other words, the learner seeks out what is needed — which may not be a part of the instructor's lesson (van Lier, 2007). Furthermore, arriving at a conclusion that, the more elaborate the discussions, the more the learners gained from the activity is not inherently evidence of Language Awareness. First, one cannot account for why discussions may not have occurred. Second, perceiving, as in seeking out, may occur without talk. Finally, while talk provided evidence for the design experiment, LA within the individual may be influenced by larger forces at play. To consider these larger forces requires an ecological account of affordances for Language Awareness.

Within van Lier's ecological approach, the aim is to consider interaction in its totality; the researcher focuses upon the actions of emerging learning, "the location of learning opportunities, the pedagogical value of various interactional contexts, the processes and the effectiveness of the pedagogical strategies" (2000, p. 250). While van Lier draws on Schmidt's model of consciousness in order to explore aspects of

awareness, he also writes that "at every level of development, properties emerge which cannot be reduced to those of prior levels" (van Lier, 2000, p. 246). As Van Lier (2004) clarifies his perspective on LA, he steers away from the cognitivist dissection of input and uptake. The cognitivist notion of *input,* he states, comes from an orientation which views language as fixed, "receiving and processing pieces of fixed code" (p. 90) as would a computer. Input, van Lier suggests, should be changed to *engagement* (1996) which he later refines as an *affordance* (2000, 2004). An affordance, he writes, is "what is available to the person to do something with" (2004, p. 91), it is "action potential" (p. 92). Language Awareness, then, is the embodiment of an affordance or the potential for action; Language Awareness is the potential to understand how to do something with language. In van Lier's view, LA allows for a range of consciousness types occurring within language learning in a myriad of ways. Language learning is learning to perceive affordances (van Lier, 2007) where perception is defined as not receptively taking in but actively seeking out (van Lier, 2008). Van Lier's conceptualization of affordances for Language Awareness within an ecological account examines the processes of learners engaged in doing things with language.

In this section, I have described the origins of the Language Awareness movement within the work of Basil Bernstein, who influenced and informed linguists' explorations in the field of semiotics or how meaning is constructed in learning. While I have described the cognitivist influences on the LA movement, I also have proposed that van Lier's ecological perspective examining affordances

provides a sociocultural account within which language learning is about how learners do things with language.

In summary, this review of the literature examined orientations regarding language policy, socio-cultural perspectives in SLA, and LA — referenced here to argue for the importance of a situated account of how Language Awareness is constructed within a particular classroom and policy context. In so doing, the review focuses on affordances for Language Awareness involving bilingual students and their teacher, which is the focus of this study. No other study that I am aware of has provided this particular account. Ecological perspectives on language learning are a relatively new area of research (Dornyei, 2007; van Lier, 2000). While Hornberger (2002) used an ecological approach to examine language policy to document that one-language one-nation policies are not the only model available in the world today, her work is not examining the particular policy context in relation to affordances for LA in a classroom. In Whiteside's (2006) examination of language use within the Yucatan community living in San Francisco, Kramsch and Whiteside (2008) also describe an ecological approach. However, this study is examining how adults use multiple languages in their everyday life and does not examine children in a school context. The study reported in this dissertation contributes to understanding how policy contexts impact the language ecologies present in a classroom where multi-competent L1/L2 users and their teachers engage in affordances for Language Awareness.

Chapter 3: Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for the study is based on two premises: (a) the language learning classroom is part of a larger language ecology (van Lier, 1997, 2004, 2008); and (b) the language learning process is facilitated through affordances for Language Awareness (van Lier, 1997, 2004).

The Ecology of Classroom Language Learning

The first element in the framing of this study is that the language learning classroom is part of a larger language ecology (van Lier, 1997, 2004, 2008). This idea is drawn from van Lier's (2000, 2004) ecological perspective on classroom language learning, where human communication systems are understood in terms of dynamic ecological systems. An ecological approach to language learning falls within a range of contemporary views on language that are generally grouped under dynamic systems theory (DST) (de Bot, Lowie, Thorne, & Verspoor, 2013; Larsen-Freeman, 1997). The key principle of DST is change over time as a result of numerous interacting agents, or people who bring various language practices together as they do things with language. DST and theories which fall under the umbrella of DST — such as van Lier's ecological approach to classroom language learning — have shifted the research lens from a product orientation to a process orientation (de Bot et al., 2013).

Likewise, van Lier's (2004) ecological approach to language learning provides a series of lenses through which to consider how language systems may be

interacting upon one another. The ecological approach is modeled after observable

ecologies in the biological sciences, where "relatively simple organisms or elements

reorganize themselves into more complex, more intelligent systems. . . . These

systems appear to be able to adapt to changing conditions" (p. 80). Building upon

Bronfenbrenner's (1979, 2005) ecological account of human development, van Lier

(2004) argues that the educational context is also part of a larger language ecology

which must be considered to understand the learning process. A developing person

evolves through interaction with his/her language environment. The home

environment is understood as a micro language ecology which is situated within the

community language ecology. The school forms another ecological system. These

systems are nested and have many actors and agents, each contributing his or her

particular language practices, which impact the ecological system of the language

learning classroom (van Lier, 2004).

Van Lier (2004) proposes that these language systems are nested. Drawing on

Bronfenbrenner's (1979, 2005) model of human development, van Lier proposes that

each of the nested systems — such as the home, the community, and the school — is

influenced by larger exosystems. Exosystems are the larger structures — such as state

and federal language educational policy — which impact microsystems, such as

classrooms, but have no direct contact with the classroom participants themselves.

The agents of the exosystems create policy without knowing the actors (teachers and

students) in the classroom. The impact of the larger exosystems is felt through links

or mesosystems, such as district and site level interpretation and application of federal

exosystem policy. For example, a policy decision at the state level may be interpreted at the district level imposing a curriculum, regulating language choice, and determining which topics the classroom teacher will teach. The mesosystem would be the application of policy decisions which connects the larger world exosystems (federal and state language planning policy) to the first-tier microsystems or a classroom (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, 2005; van Lier, 2004). Furthermore, the microsystems, mesosystems, and exosystems are influenced by the macrosystems or larger patterns of cultural practices, beliefs, lifestyles, and opportunity structures. Together these nested systems make up the ecology of the language learning classroom.

Accordingly, language learning occurs as a result of meaningful activity within these sociolinguistic ecologies (van Lier, 1997). This study considers the influences of the nested language ecologies, from exosystem to microsystem, and how language use within the interacting nested contexts influences the semiotic or meaning making processes of a learner in a classroom. The analytical lens which I use to study the semiotic or meaning-making processes is affordances for Language Awareness (van Lier, 1995, 2004, 2008).

Affordances for Language Awareness

An affordance for Language Awareness involves an opportunity for the emergence of a dynamic process in which a learner becomes consciously aware of how language works. Van Lier's (2004) work on Language Awareness elaborates on

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sociocultural theory (SCT) attributed to Vygotsky. Vygotsky (1962) proposed a

theory of the mind, rejecting the study of a child's "finished product formation" (p.

56). Vygotsky (1978) contended that we should not focus our lens simply on the

product or words the child produces; rather, he argued that we should examine the

dynamic processes occurring when the child is actively working within the Zone of

Proximal Development (ZPD) — an activity space for building upon knowledge

structures while being guided by a more knowledgeable other. Extending the concept

of a ZPD, van Lier (2004) proposes a notion of *proximal processes* occurring within a

variety of *proximal contexts*, which he defines as "multidimensional activity space

within which a variety of proximal processes can occur" (p. 158). Proximal contexts

include situations beyond an interaction with an expert other. For example, a

proximal context may be achieved in a setting where learners have no mentor but

collaboratively co-construct a solution. Likewise, a proximal context would include

circumstances in which learners construct the solution for themselves by instructing

or teaching one another. Furthermore, he includes contexts in which a more advanced

or expert learner, who necessarily works more independently, draws on a range of

past experiences and technologies to act as her own "virtual teacher" (van Lier,

2008). A key point which van Lier (2000) makes with regard to proximal contexts is

that affordances for Language Awareness are bi-directional; therefore, an affordance

for Language Awareness is the coalescing of both a learner seeking out and the

offerings yielded within a language context. An affordance is not a material thing but

a process within which both interlocutors may engage.

Within proximal contexts (or van Lier's extended description of a ZPD) are opportunities for emergence. Emergence in language development has been described by van Lier (2004) as situations in which all the conditions are just right for an affordance for Language Awareness to occur. Van Lier (2008) argues that perception in which the learner actively notices or seeks out information is central to an affordance. As I have just described, proximal contexts can occur with others mediating the process or independently. For example, situations created between a small child and parent when the semiotic resources were just right for achieving child and adult intersubjectivity (Rogoff, 1990; Vygotsky, 1978). By intersubjectivity, I draw on van Lier's (2007) definition as mutual engagement where both the learner and another's attentional resources coalesce within a pragmatic context where joint understanding may occur. This intersubjectivity allows for both parties to make inferences based on the current situation coupled with knowledge of past interactional patterns. The emergence of these semiotic resources creates the possibility for an affordance. Affordances are defined by van Lier (2004) as "possibilities for action . . . that stimulate intersubjectivity, joint attention, and various kinds of linguistic" opportunities (p. 81) within the language learning process. Van Lier (2008) includes teachers, parents, and caregivers as providing learners with opportunities to engage in affordances within the environment. He goes on to suggest that peers collaborating together can also engage in affordances. Furthermore, a more experienced learner may seek out affordances on their own.

Van Lier (2008) also argues that mediation is a central concept of sociocultural theory by pointing out that many different tools may mediate mental activity. For example, language may be mediated by gesture (McCafferty, 2002, and McNeil, 2000, cited in van Lier, 2008) or other "semiotic resources in the learning environment" (p. 97). Most importantly, he emphasizes that the process of semiosis is not passively transmitted but must be picked up through engagement. The combined criteria of access and engagement are essential to the learning environment where perception and activity are united by attention, allowing for the possibility of an affordance for Language Awareness. Therefore, emergence and affordance are the key elements within proximal contexts engaging learners with an affordance for Language Awareness.

Van Lier (2004) also describes several types of awareness[3]:

1. *Consciousness Level 1* (C1) is simply an affordance in which the bare coalescing of opportunities occurs during an instance of emergence. He relates C1 to Eco's (2000) discussion of the semiosis of voice such as a mother's voice engaging a child. Van Lier is careful to qualify that a first-level affordance does not go away. Since semiosis is the process of connecting meaning to a sign, a first-level affordance is not limited to a word, but could, for example, be a first-level connection of a sign to a meaningful gesture, or

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[3] Van Lier (2004) refers to affordances for awareness as levels. However, he did not refer to the levels as progressive stages. In fact, he indicated that the levels could be cyclical in the sense that a C2 awareness could cycle back towards another aspect of meaning to a C1, and so on (personal communication, April 2010). For this reason, I describe the C1-4 as kinds or types of awareness.

prosody of the voice without knowing what it means but knowing that it is meaningful.

2. *Consciousness Level 2* (C2) is an affordance which van Lier (2004) identifies as *awareness attention focusing*. This differs from a C1 in that C2 requires a greater level of activity, meaning making, or semiosis. He equates C2 with what Schmidt & Frota (1986) term *noticing the gap,* or recognizing and focusing upon the meaning gap in understanding. Logically, this requires a more conscious connection. A parallel concept attributed to the incremental nature of vocabulary acquisition (Nagy & Scott, 2000) is *fast mapping* (Carey, 1978). Fast mapping, like a C2 awareness, is the initial noticing of a word which demonstrates gaining an awareness in word schemas, but not necessarily a clear understanding.

3. Consciousness Level 3 (C3) — and the levels which follow it — are described by van Lier (2004) as having increasing metalinguistic function. C3 is *practical awareness* which includes control, creativity, play, and argument. The amount of control gained in a C3 consciousness is evidenced by manipulation and play with language as in altering linguistic expressions — that is, using language to misbehave, creating puns, and imitating others. These forms of language use require varying amounts of ability to manipulate language such that a slightly elevated level C3, termed C3b or *discursive awareness* emerges, which includes metalinguistic knowledge, formal analysis, and technical control.

4. Consciousness Level 4 (C4) is identified by van Lier (2004) as *critical awareness.* C4 involves an understanding of implied meanings exhibited within abuses of social and political powers. For example, arriving at an awareness of the manufacture of public opinion, or deception through language would constitute a C4 consciousness level (van Lier, 2004).

Affordances for Language Awareness in the Eye of the Storm

In drawing on conceptions of language learning as evolving through affordances for Language Awareness, the primary aim of this study is to consider how multi-competent L1/L2 users (who are students in a transitional ELA class) and their teacher engage in affordances for Language Awareness within a particular school context. I do this by describing how affordances for Language Awareness occurred within the context of classroom interactions that involve students, their teacher, and mediating factors (textbooks, dictionaries, smart boards, etc.). In drawing on an ecological perspective, I conceive of these interactions as part of a classroom environment that is nested within and connected to a larger language ecology (van Lier, 1997, 2004, 2008). This larger language ecology includes a policy environment that is comprised of initiatives aimed at a narrow view of language use and various policy actors' efforts to negotiate those initiatives. Those efforts may include the actions that teachers, administrators, and others take as they try to uphold, mitigate, or resist those initiatives.

The central research questions that guide this study are:

1. How are affordances for Language Awareness constructed within a school context by multi-competent L1/L2 users?

2. What affordances for Language Awareness are available to students within the context of classroom interactions involving themselves and their teacher? What factors mediate affordances for Language Awareness?

3. How does the broader ecology of the school, district, state, and federal government language education policy influence the construction of affordances for Language Awareness?

Chapter 4: Design and Methodology of the Study

Introduction to the Study

This chapter provides a description of and rationale for the study design, the method of data collection, and data analysis. As a qualitative study influenced by an ecological perspective on language learning, my aim is to provide a situated account of the classroom interactions which comprise affordances for Language Awareness. To achieve the goal, I draw on two methodological approaches. In the first portion of the study, drawing on van Lier's (1997) recommended use of ethnographic tools, I collect classroom data on language learning while acting as a participant observer. In the second part, using the case study tools described by Duff (2008), I narrow my focus by shadowing and interviewing individual students to understand how the ecology of the classroom contributes to affordances for Language Awareness.

To best articulate the methodology of my study, I begin this chapter by describing my rationale for the study design in light of my research questions and goals. I then describe how I selected the class, where I conducted my research, and how I selected the case students. Next, I shift to discussing the methods of data collection. I conclude this chapter by discussing my analytical process, including how I developed my unit of analysis, how I operationalized my unit of analysis, and how I developed the coding categories which informed my analysis.

Rationale for the Study

The goal of this study is to understand the characteristics of affordances for Language Awareness constructed within the school context by multi-competent L1/L2 learners (Valdés, 2005). To achieve this goal, I take an ecological perspective using a qualitative design. The aim of an ecological perspective on language learning, according to van Lier (1997), is to provide an alternative way of examining contexts of language learning by considering the language ecologies within which language learning is situated. An ecological approach acknowledges that human learning evolves as a person interacts with his/her social environment (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, 2005). This environment is made up of interacting language ecosystems (van Lier, 1997, 2008). The first face-to-face system in which the child experiences language use is within the family (van Lier, 1997, 2008), which is defined as a microsystem ecology (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, 2005). The language used at home is also influenced by networks of communication within the community and the media. Schooling provides another set of social networks. As children enter school, especially multi-competent children, they bring with them the home language microsystems as they engage in new language microsystems of school. School presents new patterns of activity, roles, and interpersonal relationships within classrooms and within the school as a whole.

To explore affordances for Language Awareness within the microsystem of the language classroom, I drew on ethnographic and case study methods. During

phase one of the study, I assumed the role of a participant observer, as I collected

language data to study patterns of classroom language activity. I also began to

consider patterns of activity among students, and to identify students who would be

the focus of my second methodological focus. I then drew upon applied linguistic

case study methodology (Duff, 2008; van Lier, 2005) to focus on the language

activity of individual students and their peers. By shifting my analytical lens from

whole class language interactions to individual students, I could then focus on the

range of attributes and knowledge individual students employed while participating in

this study.

These two approaches allowed me to examine affordances for Language

Awareness from the vantage point of the whole class, and then from the vantage point

of individual students. These perspectives provided evidence to consider how

affordances for LA might be achieved within the context of the whole class, and

explore the range of practices in which individual students engaged that contributed

to affordances for LA. Furthermore, by providing a situated account of the classroom

ecology in which such affordances might occur, I also considered how the larger

language policy environment shaped the interactions containing those affordances.

In my analysis of the affordances for LA situated within the classroom language

ecology, I also considered the policy links connecting the classroom language use to

larger ecologies.

Classroom language use within a school is impacted by larger language ecologies. These larger ecologies are defined as *exosystems* (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, 2005; van Lier, 2004). Despite the fact that exosystems — such as district- and site-level policy — have no face-to-face interaction with students, exosystems still determine policy. The way a district- and school-site interpret and apply policy activity creates links or chains of events termed *mesosystemic* links. These policy links impact both the instructor's practice and choices in classroom discourse and students' engagement. An example of mesosytemic policy links would be the chain of activity created by federal policy such as NCLB. The application of NCLB within a state such as California exemplifies the mesosystemic linkages between larger ecologies, which in turn create chains of activity within districts and schools. Each set of mesosystemic links impacts the decision making of the district, which further impacts the instructor and the activity within the classroom. In sum, language acquisition and learning occur as a result of meaningful activity influenced by the larger language ecologies (van Lier, 1997).

By choosing an ecological perspective on language learning in the classroom, and exploring the potential for affordances for Language Awareness to occur, I examined nested ecologies impacting classroom language use. A situated account of day-to-day activity allowed me to collect observational data to understand how the complex district and site policy decisions, aimed at implementing the federal and state policy, impacted classroom activity. Both the whole class ethnographic data collection tools, and the shift in focus to the individual students provided the data to

understand how policy decisions impacted the potential for affordances for Language Awareness occurring within the classroom ecology.

The Researcher

My interest in pursuing this study evolved through cumulative questions which have arisen throughout my career. I have an MA in Linguistics, a BA in Classics, and I have studied many languages in both formal and natural settings. I have lived in several countries outside the United States, including in the Middle East where I encountered the linguistic challenge of learning a Semitic language with a non-Roman alphabet. I have taught academic English to international students at the university level, and all levels of ESL at community colleges, comprising both recent immigrants and other students who were identified as English learners but may have spent most of their lives in the U.S. I have also been a language teacher trainer for elementary, secondary, and university teachers. Finally, I have raised a simultaneous bilingual child, speaking English and Arabic in a post-9/11 American cultural environment which has become increasingly hostile to Arabs. While my child has been extremely successful in school, I recognize the competing sociocultural forces impacting a child speaking a low-status minority language in an English dominant environment, which often results in the child sublimating his or her bilingual abilities. This amalgam of experience, along with having worked with so many kinds of learners whose semiotic processes draw from many different resources, informed my

research questions in the design of this study to inquire if LA is constructed by transitional multi-competent L1/L2 learners and how.

My introduction to the site of the study occurred because I was asked by the instructor in the study to volunteer at the site and help her assess the learning processes of her students. The instructor in the study turned to my expertise, as a doctoral student, and as a lecturer in Linguistics and Second Language Acquisition, in trying to address the predicament of her students. Namely, she could not understand how her students who had mostly grown up in the U.S. could still be in ESL and transitional classes by sixth and seventh grades. This was my introduction to the site where I conducted two studies: a small preliminary study and the study described in this thesis.

As part of the qualitative data collection process for the current study, I spent a great deal of time at the site of the study both prior to and during the study, which helped me develop a rapport with the staff and students. Time spent in the classroom with students not only allowed me to observe their language processes, but also to gain a level of insider acceptance and trust. Developing a rapport with the participants in the study allowed me to collect data and to leave open contact for subsequent interviews and observations (Charmaz, 2006).

The participants in the study are primarily Spanish speakers. Although I have an intermediate knowledge of Italian, and have studied Spanish and Latin, my receptive ability in Spanish is much greater than my productive ability. Recognizing

that my knowledge of Spanish would require support, I relied on the audio recordings to capture usage of Spanish during the study, and checked my understanding of spoken Spanish in the classroom with the instructor and the other students when necessary.

At the outset of this project, students were very hesitant to interact with me. Over time, however, the students became more willing to talk with me, ask for or accept classroom help with assignments and a few asked to change their status to participate in the study. They knew me to be a friend of the instructor, who has proven to be an advocate for student success and a respected favorite teacher among the students at the school. Also, the instructor frequently asked for my judgment and relied upon me — and the use of my Smartphone to look up information to share with the class — which lent me a certain degree of authority.

The rapport I established in the classroom allowed students to experience my interest in languages as well. They witnessed my own frequent puzzling over language by probing relationships between languages. I have Spanish, French, Italian, and Turkish language programs and dictionaries on my Smartphone. The students were fascinated by the language programs. I frequently looked up etymologies as well as probed students to think about relationships between languages. If students did not see the relationships, I would search the web and share my findings. Over time, students began to ask me to look things up for them as well. It was in this manner, using the tools of the ethnographer, that I was not only able to collect classroom

language data as a participant, but to also gain an insider perspective through the students' trust as I shared in conversations which allowed me insights into their semiotic or meaning making processes.

In pursuing a qualitative study, I have sought to maintain documentation of the data by collecting, transcribing, and interpreting the data accurately. I have also questioned my own biases as a researcher, which have been influenced by psycholinguistic research supporting the learning potential of bilingual children (Bialystok, 1991, 1997, 2001) and the observational evidence in the academic success of my own child. My assumption that multilingualism may allow children additional options for constructing meaning caused me to consider the language potential which both children and a teacher might bring to a classroom. Conversely, I have critiqued this assumption by appreciating what a monolingual instructional environment brought to the classroom activity.

Second, as a teacher myself, I recognize that I am likely to present a sympathetic portrayal of the instructor whose skill I truly admire. My admiration of this instructor may also make my account vulnerable to portraying her heroically. On the other hand, being in the classroom daily for several months allowed me to observe fluctuations in her performance and reminded me to honestly evaluate her contributions.

Third, because my data collection was a documentation of classroom interaction, I have asked the instructor to read the entire thesis and provide me with

criticism, correction, or additions to my perspective. I have also interviewed the

instructor on numerous occasions to clarify data so that I may accurately represent

classroom procedures and understand the sources of policy decisions which impacted

the classroom. My committee members have also reviewed the work, and counseled

me to continually question any assumptions which I have made while gathering or

reporting data. While all research is influenced by the zeitgeist in which it has been

conducted, I have aimed to provide a transparent account of how I collected and

analyzed the data.

The Preliminary Small Study

In 2008, I conducted a small study at Sandy Shores middle school in Mrs.

Balboa's English Language Development class. For this study, I examined the use of

dictation transcription activities as a means of developing metalinguistic awareness in

a contained English Language Development (ELD) classroom. Data collected from

that study — including field notes and interviews with the students and the teacher —

has informed the research questions for the current study.

Specifically, having spent an extended period of time with the teacher and

students, I observed an interesting dynamic occurring within the language learning

classroom:

1. Many of the students had been in U.S. schools since Kindergarten; yet,
   these students were still designated ELD. Placed in the class by English
   level based on the California English Language Development Test

(CELDT), these sixth-, seventh-, and eighth-grade students demonstrated varying abilities. While some were new learners of English, others commanded fluent oral abilities but were at second- and third-grade levels in reading and writing. A few even struggled to hold a pencil to write. Students were clearly so discouraged with their abilities to participate in class that the teacher often gave them points for simply trying.

2. The instructor was extremely sensitive to the students' frustrations around their learning. While she already spoke English, French, and Japanese, she had spent a considerable amount of time learning Spanish to better articulate her concerns to both parents and students, often serving as an interpreter for the principal. Her paramount concern was to find ways to guide students in their own learning, providing individualized strategies for them to take ownership for their learning, so that they could note their own progress. She constantly sought measures to assist students in keeping track of their work and their own progress in order to improve their motivation to keep trying in class.

As a consequence of my work with Mrs. Balboa's classroom — I had conducted the dictation transcription activities with her students in the first study which aimed to support students' metalinguistic awareness — I began to think more deeply about metalinguistic awareness and to consider the language ecologies in which these children were growing up. I wondered how affordances for Language Awareness may contribute to the students' semiotic processes. Because this particular

instructor is extremely sensitive in her efforts to adapt the curriculum to the students' cultural and linguistic frames of reference, I requested permission to study in her classroom again so I could conduct the current study.

The Instructor

The classroom instructor with whom I worked for this study was Mrs. Balboa (Mrs. B, a pseudonym). She and I share a very strong background in TESOL and language study. She earned a bachelor's degree in Applied Linguistics along with two minors, one in French and one in English, at the same university where I had obtained my M.A. in Applied Linguistics. I have known her for over 20 years. She obtained a Master's degree in TESOL from the prestigious School of International Training (SIT) in Vermont, one of the oldest TESOL programs in the U.S. She was initially hired at Sandy Shores as an ESL instructor, coming to the middle school after a short period in which she taught high school French in the U.S. She also taught English as a Foreign Language (EFL) for 7 years in Japan. During her time in Japan, she passed the Japanese language exam for foreigners, which was an unusual distinction for EFL teachers. While her extensive overseas career has provided her with many language teaching experiences with both beginners and advanced college-level students, she notes that the two jobs, in Japan and the U.S., are "Night and day . . . it is almost not the same job . . . (qualifying) It is NOT the same job." When asked how the jobs are different, she answered, "the first thing that comes to mind is classroom management . . . but of course it is much more than classroom management." In

Japan, as she put it, "You could beg the students, but they refused to talk." Instead, her 60 students sat quietly in the classroom at their desks and took notes.

In contrast, she describes the most challenging aspect of her teaching in the U.S. as managing students to maintain curricular focus. I also observed a near-daily power struggle between certain student personalities and the instructor for the class's attention. In her words, "When I lose control of the class, I feel terribly guilty for the students who want to learn. It only takes one or two students to throw everyone off track. I feel responsible when I lose them." She has now taught at the same middle school for 9 years. During the 9 years at this school, she has learned Spanish, initially studying Spanish in Costa Rica during her vacations. As a result of her linguistic facility, and success in teaching, she has also served as a lead instructor and student supervisor/mentor, and is a respected member of the faculty. The evidence of her value as a faculty member is reflected in the fact that she has been nominated for several professional honors. Moreover, while less than a third of the faculty were retained in the restructuring of the school, her principal chose her among the retained faculty.

When asked about her views on teaching and learning, Mrs. Balboa primarily references her Master's degree work in TESOL and offers several reflections:

1. *She values the importance of language learning for teachers.* It is useful to have knowledge of another language, she explains: "It informs your teaching. Learning another language is something every teacher should

do. Every teacher should learn another language. When I did my Master's at SIT, they kept emphasizing the need to keep learning other languages. It is really important to try sitting through, learning languages with this method or that method, constantly being put in your students' shoes." These values, she says, are what motivated her to learn Spanish, a language spoken by the majority of the students designated as English learners in her school.

2. *She strives to be a model for her students through her own practice and puts a premium on the value of multilingualism.* She says, "I like languages and I want to know, I want them [the students] to know that I'm curious. I sell bilingualism as a tool. I value the same thing. I want them to see the legitimacy of bilingualism as a tool. I'm constantly campaigning for 'building their bilingual biceps.' The students I work with are at varying levels [of Spanish]. Some came here in the third, fourth, or fifth grades. Some were born and raised here. Few honor that [their language ability]. I don't get the sense that kids have a lot of academic Spanish. I wouldn't say they speak only kitchen Spanish, but most do not read in Spanish, and they aren't as aware of using Spanish as a tool. Spanish is a social thing for them. Yes, a solidarity tool. It is a language of comfort; it is easy. But I'm trying to sell it as academic."

3. *She is not really aware of using Spanish as an instructional practice except to stop and draw out students' awareness of cognate relationships*

or sometimes to catch their attention when she feels the subject is losing

their attention. On two occasions, I also observed her ask for a volunteer

to read the Spanish instructions on information which was going home to

the parents by the school and listened to her explain to the children, in

both Spanish and English, exactly how the parents needed to complete the

form. At the beginning of the year, I noted that she used a lot less Spanish

in the classroom than I had observed in the small study conducted two

years earlier. When we discussed this, she expressed some hesitancy

around using Spanish because the classes had been restructured by reading

level; therefore, a few students spoke only English. Because the classes

were structured by reading level, they served students with various

language backgrounds, including Initially Fluent English Proficient

(IFEP), English Only (EO) and Redesignated Fluent English Proficient

(RFEP) and a majority of students deemed to be English learners based on

CELDT testing. She was concerned that students who did not speak

Spanish would be upset by the use of Spanish in the classroom. As the

year progressed, she decided that linking Spanish to French and Latin

etymology within English and in building morphological knowledge was a

justifiable practice according to the California Standards for Grade 8.

Mrs. Balboa indicated that Spanish was as a tool for establishing shared

understanding. "For lower levels, there I might use it [Spanish] more often as a hook

to get them back into a shared understanding — something recognizable, as a tool to

reel them in." Mrs. Balboa also appears to use her knowledge of Spanish as a way to connect with her students' communities and families. Living only a few minutes from campus, she knows the community around the school well. Many of the students in the Grade 8 Transitional English Language Arts class in which I collected my data had been in her ELD classes since Grade 6. She knows their families, has often taught their siblings and extended family members, and is frequently invited to Quinceañeras. As she indicated, "I do use Spanish in a nurturing role. I use Spanish to express affection and concern for them. I sometimes ask them in Spanish, 'Is that why your parents sent you to school?' when they misbehave. I sell students with the fact that I want to make *good news calls* home." I noted that she often reminded students of her policy for making good news calls to parents when they do well in school. "Parents are so used to calls from the school that students are not doing well. I tell them [the students], I want to make good news calls." Indeed, I noted that many of her students appear to afford her some type of in-group status, as evidenced by their portrayal of her as a Latina married to "a White guy." She adds that with the parents, "I offer Spanish" when she makes calls home. "I think they see me as someone who has made an effort to be there for them and their children." Furthermore, Mrs. Balboa participates in Imagine College Walks to inform the community about scholarships. "We [the teachers] go door-to-door in the neighborhoods to talk with families about the program. It is a real eye-opener to realize that a fair number of kids live with so little. For those who have more, it is because of a great sacrifice on the parents' part."

Additionally, I noted that Mrs. Balboa also maintains a professional demeanor as an instructor. She is always well-groomed, with her hair meticulously tied back from her face, and she dresses in a particular style reminiscent of the 1940s when women wore tailored blouses, jackets, skirts, and pleated pants. Her appearance maintains a tenor of formality; she never participates in Halloween costumes or in themed "dress" spirit-days as is common in middle school. I never saw her in casual attire such as a sweat-shirt and jeans, as was common among her middle school colleagues. In this sense, her presence appears to convey a *no nonsense* tone of professionalism which contributes to the milieu she maintains in her classroom; she emphasizes the importance of study, the importance of dignified classroom conduct, and the importance of mutual respect both among the children and with her.

In summary, Mrs. B has had extensive training in language acquisition and pedagogy, and experience teaching both nationally and internationally. Her qualifications are noteworthy as compared with many teachers credentialed in California, where many teachers of English learners feel unprepared (Gándara, Maxwell-Jolly, & Driscoll, 2005). Furthermore, Mrs. B. also attends the three-day annual professional development conferences of California Bilingual Educators (CABE) or California Teachers of English of Other Languages (CATESOL). Her annual participation in professional development stands in contrast to the finding of Gándara, Rumberger, Maxwell-Jolly, and Callahan (2003) that the typical teacher of EL in California received no more than 2 hours of professional development over a 3-year period. Mrs. Balboa's multi-competent language ability, her 12-year residence

within the community, and her deep commitment to the well-being and success of her students were important components of the classroom microsystem in this study.

Selecting the Class for the Study

In preparation for this study, I attended classes as a visitor for over a month, spending whole days with the instructor and observing each double-blocked English Language Arts class: transitional, core, and honors.

After observing each of Mrs. Balboa's three levels of ELA — transitional, honors, and core — I elected to focus on the transitional ELA class for this study. My rationale for identifying the transitional class as the focus of my study was threefold: (a) the transitional class comprised the largest number of students who still require CELDT testing (as described in the review of the literature). Therefore, these students were all once in designated ELD classes. While only some have been re-designated (RFEP), all have been moved up to a transitional class, where they are now being offered grade-level curriculum; (b) this class also has the largest number of students who are "below basic" (or are considered more than two years behind their grade level on the English Language Arts-Standards based test); and (c) all of these students (requiring ELD or not) are at a critical stage where their success in this class provides both access to mainstream classes in high school (Callahan, 2005; Valenzuela, 1999) and courses fulfilling requirements to transfer to a 4-year college or university (California State University, 2013).

During my observation period when I attended all three levels of English Language Arts classes, I noted that the grade-level curriculum was quite rigorous for the transitional students. Mrs. B. utilized her specialized language teacher instructional strategies much more with these students than with the others. For example, she spent more time reading with the students, more time modeling her thought processes or inquiring about the inferences as they read, and more time querying students to determine whether they were making the same connections with the text. She also provided more contextual schema and images. This was not necessary for the honors and core students. When the instructor did not provide enough scaffolds during the transitional class, students became distracted and lost focus. After every class, the instructor would reflect on the class and often chatted with me about what had transpired during the class. She noted when students were engaged and willing to contribute to class discussions, as well as the times when she felt she had lost the students. As she stated, "You have to keep them with you, squeeze, squeeze, squeeze, move on when you start to lose them, give them a translation, a definition, some shared focus of understanding and move on." As the goal of this study is to understand how affordances for Language Awareness are constructed by multi-competent L1/L2 learners, this transitional ELA class — with a larger number of children who were academically behind and deemed at risk — appeared to provide interesting data to address the research questions of the study.

Description of the School

Sandy Shores middle school is located in a small community with a
population of roughly 33,000 according to the 2010 census (United States Census
Bureau, 2010). The school enrollment in 2010–11 was reported as 69% Hispanic or
Latino, 9% White, 7% African America, 4 % Filipino, 3 % Native Hawaiian or
Pacific Islander, 3 % Asian, and 3% two or more races. Title 1 of the Elementary and
Secondary Education Act (ESEA) provides financial assistance to educational
agencies with high percentages of children from low-income families (40% or more
of a school's population must qualify for Free/Reduced Price Meals) in order to
allocate extra funds so that the schools may provide additional support for students to
meet the state's academic standards. At Sandy Shores, 79.5% (622 students) of the
students qualify for Free/Reduced Price Meals. Since providing food is considered
additional support, the number of students who are eligible for Free/Reduced Price
Meals is an indication of the relative poverty within a school.[4]   The English learner
(EL) profile of this school indicates that 35.8% (280 students) are English learners,
33.3% (260 students) have been designated Initially Fluent English Proficient (IFEP),
and the Re-designated Fully English Proficient (RFEP) numbers were not available
for this year. (However, 14.5% were identified in the prior year's enrollment.)

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[4] http://www2.ed.gov/programs/titleiparta/index.html

Description of the Class in This Study

The transitional class totaled 31 students during the time I was there. Twenty-two of these students are designated English learners (EL), five are Re-designated Fully English Proficient (RFEP), two are Initially English Proficient (IFEP) and two are English Only (EO). Twenty-five of the students are identified as speaking Spanish in the home. Two students speak Tagalog, one student speaks Hindi, and one student Samoan. There are 16 boys and 15 girls.

The Case Study Students

As my interest lies in the multi-competent abilities of L1/L2 learners, I eliminated the English Only students from the pool of case study students. Since length of time in U.S. schools and prior educational experience are among the factors influencing student academic success (Genesee, Lindholm-Leary, Saunders, & Christian, 2005), I selected students ranging in the length of time they had attended U.S. schools. While observing the students in the first level of data collection, I considered students who demonstrated a range of activity types within the classroom. Nine students were initially identified for the case study data collection: four girls and five boys, representing a range of ability, and CELDT classification status, including both Re-designated Fully English Proficient (RFEP) and designated English Learner (EL) intermediate level[5]. Furthermore, only Spanish-speaking multi-competent L1/L2

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[5] No students classified below intermediate level are in the transitional class as a 50% or higher on the HOLT language placement test is necessary to be placed in the class.

learners had consented to participate in the study. After observing the language activity of several students, I settled on seven case study students. The seventh student is not discussed in the case chapter as he was added to the study 2 months into the study and there was little sustained data on his classroom participation practices. These students are five boys and two girls. Three of the boys are still designated EL and two are RFEP, while one girl is EL and one girl is RFEP.

I selected these specific students, in part, to consider how various students would provide a range of vantage points for examining how they engaged with peers as resources in constructing Language Awareness. However, these groupings did not prove to facilitate data collection. My original groupings (all the names are pseudonyms) were as follows: I chose one student who appeared to be an independent learner, Maria, and observed her transition between two ELA classes. Secondly, I chose to observe four boys, Yahyah, Riccardo, Luca, and Zico, who were brought together through their membership on a soccer team. As the boys were often together in class and on break, I was interested in how their associations may or may not contribute to their language practices in gaining affordance for Language Awareness. Finally, I focused on two students, Yasmine and Jamal, who were paired together in the final period of the study. While these groupings of students served to facilitate data collection because I could more easily interview the four boys as a group than independently, the groups were not essential in my analysis. In fact, each child brought different language practices to the study.

Maria. I selected Maria because she was a particularly determined student who underwent a transition during the study. She elected to move from a transitional to an honors ELA course. Maria was placed into Mrs. Balboa's transitional ELA class during the middle of the first quarter so that her schedule could include algebra. Mrs. Balboa noted that Maria had been moved from one transitional class to another, although as an RFEP student her scores were high enough to be in a Core ELA class. Maria appeared to be an independent and determined girl who was also a top student in algebra. Mrs. Balboa approached Maria to discuss moving her from a transitional to an honors class. As Mrs. B also taught an honors ELA class, she discussed advancing Maria beyond a core ELA class to her honors ELA class during third quarter, effectively jumping two levels, where she would be with many peers from her algebra class. I shadowed Maria before and after her move into the more advanced class. I also shadowed Maria, observing her engagement (?) in other classes.

While Maria refused to carry a microphone, she agreed to have me shadow her through the change in class schedule as well as through her other classes and to be interviewed about her experience. While shadowing her, I collected data during whole class participation, her written class work and documented her initial experiences in the transitional and honors classrooms. Finally, I interviewed her and obtained her reflections on the differences in the two levels of classes.

The team. I also collected data on four boys, Yahyah, Riccardo, Luca, and Zico, whose friendship appeared to influence their language practices. As three of the boys, Yahyah, Riccardo and Luca, had been on a winning soccer team together, they were required to maintain a specific GPA to participate. I observed that Yahyah was often strategizing with the other boys about doing well in school and planning for college. The fourth boy, Zico, demonstrated the most sophisticated cross-linguistic awareness, but was absent frequently at the beginning of the study. Although he agreed to participate in the study, he was much more willing to be interviewed and carry the microphone in the company of the three other boys, especially towards the end of the study when he too had joined the team. While shadowing the boys, I collected data during whole class participation, written classwork, and documented how each boy engaged in classroom activity individually. I also interviewed the boys about their language practices in a focal group.

Yasmine and Jemal. I also collected data on Yasmine, a girl, and Jemal, a boy. When I began by collecting data on Yasmine, she was moved to partner with Jemal, who had not originally been a part of the study. As Jamal approached me later in the study, I ended up collecting more data on Yasmine. However, I noted that both students appeared to support each other. It seemed an interesting opportunity to study the students' language practices as they worked together in the class. For this reason, I collected data on both Yasmine and Jemal; however, in my final analysis, I focused primarily on Yasmine.

These seven students, numbering two girls and five boys, comprised several vantage points for observing the students' affordances for Language Awareness. By examining these students, I was able to collect a range of data on student participation and consider how their participation impacted the processes of constructing Language Awareness.

Methods of Data Collection

Phase I data collection. Using the qualitative tools of the ethnographer (van Lier, 1988), I spent a month observing classes before I began the official study. During the study itself, I spent a total of 56 days in the classroom collecting data. I collected 311 hours of audio recordings. I maintained a total of 140 pages of field notes and kept another notebook of conceptual memos. I also collected video data (54 hours total) during approximately 39 days of the study. Although the human subjects' agreement for this study included consent for the students to be videotaped, students were reluctant to be videotaped. In addition to being shy middle school students, many students joked about having ambiguous immigration status. Respecting their sentiments and desiring them to feel comfortable with my presence in the classroom, I only videotaped the instructor's instructional practices from the back of the classroom. While I captured the backs of students' heads, these videos helped me to reconstruct the instructional practices and media used in the affordances for Language Awareness.

During the Level 1 data collection period, I gave the class a series of surveys. Each survey was designed to collect information on both the class as a whole, as well as to provide background information and details on individual students (see Appendix for examples of surveys). Most importantly, the surveys contributed to my understanding of practices which might contribute to affordances for Language Awareness involving case study students. The four surveys administered were as follows:

- *Survey 1* was intended to gather information on the students' school histories, including where they had gone to school and in what language their schooling had taken place (Appendix A). This information contributed to my understanding of the language ecologies experienced by specific students. Sample survey questions included: How long the students had been in U.S. schools; where they had gone to school and whether or not they had participated in bilingual language support as they transitioned into English Language Arts classes. The instructor used this survey to guide students in generating an autobiography.

- *Surveys 2 & 3* inquired about the students' reading and writing practices respectively (Appendices B and C). The purpose of these surveys was to understand the literacy practices outside of school, such as their access to technology outside of school, their participation in social media, and habits of language use within their families and communities. These surveys provided information for understanding the students' perspective on resources which

might contribute to affordances for Language Awareness. For example, I learned that, while a few students had access to the internet at home, several used the resources at the public library and others used gaming devices such as PlayStation Portables (PSP) which have email functionality. In this way, students had access to their friends on social media sites where they routinely used multiple languages within their communication practices outside of school. Additionally, while not all students had cell phones, text messaging acronyms were known by all students. The data collected from these surveys contributed to understanding the language and technologies which had status and were valued by students.

- *Survey 4* (Appendix D) aimed to understand how students defined and understood the term *academic language*, which was used in their text book, by their instructors, and in slogans which peppered the walls of every classroom (e.g. "All teachers are teachers of Academic Language.") Furthermore, all the surveys aimed to gather data which might demonstrate how students perceived language status and what, if any, status factors might engage students in affordances for Language Awareness. Because students appeared to show interest in language which they perceived to have status, I was interested in gathering data which might explore how students' perception of language status might impact or not the processes of gaining affordances for Language Awareness. While these surveys were not a central part of this study, the information contributed data to the overarching descriptions of the

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students and to understanding the sociocultural context of the study. Finally, the surveys also contributed evidence for interpreting the results of the study, which will be addressed in the discussion in Chapter 9.

Phase II data collection. I spent the last 2 months of my data collection period shadowing case students each school day for approximately a week. During this time, I maintained field notes and sometimes sat with students during their classes, offering assistance when needed. I wrote a summary of each day-long observation session and transcribed only those interactions that contained *LARE* — the unit of analysis which I have defined, and will describe in the next section, for this part of the study.

I also collected 14 hours of audio interview data from the case students and transcribed these interviews. The interviews provided both classroom language data and the students' reflections on class activities, including their own conceptions of their language use. I transcribed this data to provide information about the individual case students and to inquire about their beliefs about language and how they come to an understanding during school activities. This data contributed to creating the portraits of the students and to the themes regarding individual student practices in Chapter 8.

In addition to the surveys, I also collected samples of the case students' school work for analysis. For example, I collected a two-stage narrative writing task

(including a mind-map, prewriting, and draft), a district response[6] to literature assessment and revision, several short essays from assessments, and students' response to a bilingual journal entry from *The Diary of Anne Frank.* These texts were particularly useful in examining affordances for Language Awareness within the cases for three reasons: (a) they provided examples of students' awareness of textual language as they honed and revised their own texts, and (b) they gave evidence of words which were discussed orally in class and were later appropriated in their writing, and (c) they provided evidence of the students' response to Spanish-language reading practices.

As a whole, the data collection yielded audio recordings, field notes and memos from which I generated the unit of analysis for the study. In addition, the case study data included students' interviews, samples of their written work, and information about their perspectives with regard to their thoughts on the classroom activities and texts. Using this two-staged approach to research has provided two levels of perspective from which to consider the micro-analytical processes at work around potential affordances for Language Awareness. Table 1 provides a summary of the data collection process.

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[6] A response to literature is an assessment in which students read a piece of literature independently and respond in essay format to questions about the text.

Table 1 Summary of Data Collection Process

Data Sources for both phase 1 & 2	Data collection	How data was evaluated:
Classroom observation Mrs. Balboa's transitional ELA • Audio taped (2-4 microphones) and transcribed flagged ARE's (311 hours) • 39 days of video scanned to support field note data (54 hours) • 56 days field notes (140 pages) • Reflective memos • Discussions with the instructor added to field notes and reflective memos	Ongoing	• Quantitative table of technologies • Analyzed LARE from daily transcripts • Grouped LARE by categories for affordances. • Analyzed LARE in relationship to case study student contributions
Interviews with instructor • Audio taped and transcribed • Field notes • Reflective memos	Ongoing	1. Profiles, instructional philosophy
Interviews with students Audio taped and transcribed	Periodic discussions in class Once at the end of the case study period	1. Profiles & cases 2. Attitudes, motivation, engagement 3. Analysis of student classroom language use.
Student oral language Audio taped and transcribed from class discussions and case studies when students carried microphones for 1 week each	Ongoing	1. Analyzed LARE from daily transcripts 2. Grouped LARE by categories for affordances. 3. Analyzed LARE in relationship to case study student contributions

Student written work
 	
    Classroom assignments
    Interactive Journals with researcher
	Ongoing	Analysis of student use/awareness of classroom language use.

Surveys/questionnaires/Activity 1. Academic Language Questionnaire 2. Bilingual Diary entry 3. Reading practices 4. Writing practices		Habits, attitudes, motivations

Developing the Unit of Analysis

The unit of analysis for this study is Language Awareness Related Episodes (LAREs) — that is, episodes of language exchange containing ideas contributing to awareness in the construction of meaning. In determining my unit of analysis, I initially drew from the work of Swain (1998) who identified *language-related episodes* (LREs) as her unit of analysis in a design experiment. Swain defined LREs as "any part of a dialog in which students talk about the language they are producing, question their language use, or others' [language use] or self-correct" (p. 70). However, Swain was concerned with dialog in which students verbalize their awareness of grammatical form in language. In an article further developing this concept, Swain (2006) identifies *languaging* as a process whereby language is used to make meaning and shape knowledge. Building on the notion of languaging in a more recent study, Swain, Lapkin, Knouzi, Suzuki, and Brooks (2009) identify *Languaging Units* (LU) in an experimental design to study university students' grammatical concept of voice in French. They define LU as conceptual units describing the cognitive psychology process of verbalization known as *self-talk* in coming to awareness about the grammatical concept of voice in French. Swain's LRE and LU units of analysis, which were constructed for her design experiments, differ from my unit of analysis. Swain's experimental study provided a lesson on grammatical form, using cards containing the target grammatical form as the input within a context where the aim, following cognitivist research, is to record the process of generating output discussions in which LRE and LU could be captured.

In contrast, following van Lier's (2000) recommendation for an ecological account in which "the unit of analysis is activity itself" (p. 253), I examined the semiotic ecology of classroom talk capturing episodes contributing to affordances for Language Awareness occurring during spontaneous classroom discussions about meaningful text. My goal is to examine the "totality of meaning making" (van Lier, 2000, p. 251) which encompasses people (participants in the class), process (what is being discussed), situational context (including the contributing language ecologies), and time (during a quarter of the school year). In contrast to Swain's work, my study does not necessarily focus on particular grammatical features of language. Neither does my work assume that "every input has an output" (p. 8) as is the case with scientific research designs (van Lier, 2004). Instead, mine is a situated account examining how students construct meaning while using language to engage with complex content in a classroom. My interests lie in the language ecologies offered during classroom interaction which have the potential to contribute to affordances for Language Awareness. The unit of analysis in my study, LARE, is aimed to capture specific verbal exchanges between students and the instructor within the classroom which can potentially result in an affordance for Language Awareness. In this study, LAREs represent episodes which are: (a) related to the clarification of understanding in conversations that might contribute to affordances for Language Awareness, and (b) are bounded by an idea being discussed in a language-classroom setting.

I began by identifying the unit of analysis while transcribing the classroom audio recordings and cross referencing the audio recordings with my field notes and

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video recordings of the instruction. Each time a discussion occurred around clarification in meaning, I marked the instance and bounded the conversation in terms of the language that contributed to the topic and ended with a change in topic. Conversations were interactions that focused on a single topic. At times, interlocutors would shift to a new topic and later (after several turns) take up a previous topic.

After examining all LAREs, I had identified 18 LAREs categories which I generated via a careful inductive analysis of the data. Upon further examination of these categories, I grouped the 18 into four larger LAREs general categories: affordances for metalinguistic awareness, affordances for analeptic awareness, affordances for proleptic awareness, and affordances for awareness of register shift.

Affordances for Metalinguistic Awareness

In each LAREs category, interlocutors' verbal contributions which focused the metalinguistic components of language, including graphemic features, phonemic features, morphological features, and semantic features' relationship to the meaning of text were defined as potential *affordances for metalinguistic awareness*. Examples of potential affordances for metalinguistic awareness from the data include instances in which polysemy, synonymy, aspects of morphology, grapho-phonemic or other aspects of word knowledge were examined and explored in relation to their meaningfulness to the text. In the following example, the class has been reading aloud from a text accompanied by an audio recording of that text. Mrs. B. pauses the audio recording to ask the students whether they understood the idiom, *take to your*

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heels. In this context, *take to your heels* describes slaves fleeing on the Underground Railroad.

10/19/2010

Mrs. B: Take to *their heels* means? (inaudible but ss mumbling answers) Heels are part of your feet. (She points to the heel of her foot.) Take to *your heels* means?

Ss: They left

Mrs. B: Yeah, left. Take to *your heels* is to run off?

This is an example of an affordance for metalinguistic awareness because in dissecting the parts of the idiom, *heel,* and tying it to *running,* the instructor has created the opportunity for students to understand how idioms may use a body part to signify an action in English (e.g., *to bite your tongue* signifying to stop talking about something). In other words, by examining the meaning of an idiom and the metalinguistic components which contribute to the global meaning the idiom within the context of their reading, the instructor offers an affordance for Language Awareness. As Boers (2011) has reported, idiomatic usage is very frequent in texts and provides considerable confusion. Furthermore, in the context of this brief exchange the instructor and students generate three paraphrases, *heels are part of your feet, they left, take to your heels is to run off,* plus a gesture to the body part, the *heel*. All of these examples attempt to support learners in comprehending the idiom, thereby offering and affordance for metalinguistic awareness.

LAREs data identified as affordances for metalinguistic awareness also
included cross-linguistic linking of language knowledge or making a connection to
understandings in more than one language. For example, Zico provided a Spanish
translation of the term *denounced* which Mrs. B. highlights to describe when Anne
Frank's family is found out by the Nazis in the text*:*

11/17/2010

Mrs. B: So they have been DENOUNCED.

Zico : denuncia

Me: Isn't the denuncia — when Christ is denounced by Brutus?

Miguel: denunciato

I categorized verbal exchanges as affordances for metalinguistic awareness when the
instructor or students paused, drew on metalinguistic knowledge to consider language
meaning, or dissected examples in the text making connections between
morphological parts or links to other languages.

Affordances for Analeptic Awareness

The LAREs category *affordances for analeptic awareness* follows van Lier's
(2004) definition of *analeptic discourse* as occasions when interlocutors engage in
intersubjectivity or arrive at a shared awareness of a topic. Building on this concept, I
used the category *affordance for analeptic awareness* to code verbal exchanges in

which interlocutors referenced shared experiences and/or knowledge to create a common schema for clarifying meaning. In the following example, Mrs. B is exploring the abstract concept of *standing up for something*. The students chime in:

10/18/2010

Mrs. B: (explores the idiom, "stand up for something")

Mrs. B: When do people stand up for something?

Riccardo: For your rights.

Mrs. B: <u>We</u> stand up for the pledge? <u>We</u> don't just sit down. <u>We</u> stand up FOR something. (emphasizes FOR)

SS 1: You give your opinion.

Mrs. B: Yeah, so <u>we</u> have a belief. That has something to do with your opinion. (Kids shouting out "Martin Luther King" "Rosa Parks") Yes, Rosa Parks. But she wasn't standing? She sat down on the bus. So what are we saying?

SS: 2: She stood up for her beliefs. It wasn't fair.

Mrs. B: So when do people do that? What things aren't fair? When do people stand up for their rights?

Nikko: Like when the cops come knocking at your door.

(Students laugh.)

Riccardo: Like César Chávez.

Mrs. B: Ok, let's write a paragraph, a quick write. "When do people stand up for their rights?"

While Mrs. B. begins examining the literal meaning of *standing up,* the students generate a body of examples with which they are all familiar. Riccardo makes the

first link *stand up for your rights.* Other students chime in, linking the conceptual

definition to examples in history of people who stood up for their rights such as

Martin Luther King, Rosa Parks, and César Chávez. I identified occasions when an

instructor or students drew on analeptic knowledge or their shared understanding of

an event as an affordance for analeptic awareness.

Affordances for Proleptic Awareness

A third category of LARE, *affordances for proleptic awareness,* includes

situations where the instructor's pauses (or rhetorical questions) prompted students to

fill-in the gap. Van Lier (2004) has described situations such as these, where students

join into the common discourse space, as *proleptic discourse*. While achieving an

affordance for proleptic awareness would appear to draw on analeptic discourse, an

affordance for proleptic awareness is the case of deducing inferred meaning based

upon the given contextual clues — clues which may not be initially apparent unless

the deeper implied meaning is explored. Within my data, examples of affordances for

proleptic awareness included pauses in which students drew on inference to fill in the

gap, but also echo questions (statements spoken with question intonation) or Wh-

questions which hinted at the progression of the discourse. In the following example,

the instructor and students are discussing the meaning of the Underground Railroad.

Mrs. B. compares Harriet Tubman to a railroad conductor and the students fill in the

gap.

> 10/19/2011
>
> **Mrs. B**: Railroads have conductors, like the bus has a driver. So it wasn't a real train, but then <u>how</u> is she like the driver? A conductor might . . . .(pause)
>
> **Jafar:** lead.
>
> **Mrs. B:** Yes, Good

As in this example, an affordance for proleptic awareness is a situation which invites students to complete the teacher's sentence or thought process, thereby signifying an awareness of implied or unspoken meaning. Therefore, LAREs which fulfilled the criteria of affordances for proleptic awareness were flagged in my data providing a third type of affordance for Language Awareness.

Affordances for Awareness of Register Shifts[7]

LAREs categorized as *affordances for awareness of register shifts* included interlocutor attempts to shift register often for the purpose of gaining the social status associated with the new register which sometimes included occasions when an interlocutor attempted to shift register or language[8]. In the following example, Riccardo helps Miguel with the phrasing of an answer. Miguel, who is newer to English, than the other students in the class has been asked to participate by the

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[7] Register, following Biber & Vásquez (2008), is "a cover term to refer to a language variety that is defined by situational characteristics and communicative purposes (examples of different registers include conversation, lectures, novels, biology research articles, etc.)" (p. 536). They describe complex patterns of register differences between written and spoke English.
[8] While a range of register use is traditionally understood as a range within a single language, for multi-competent L1/L2 users whose translanguaging often includes dual language use for situational and communicative purposes, it would seem to be a register shift for those individuals within a community of translanguaging users.

instructor who often asked the class to help out when students had difficulty

responding.

11/2/2011

 Mrs. B: Miguel, you are up next. Are you ready?

Miguel: She wanted to go to Harvard.

Mrs. B: True, but all through the story?

Riccardo: (Whispering an answer to Miguel.) She wants to get out of Brooklyn. She wants to get out of Brooklyn. *Está bien*

Miguel: She wanted to get out of Brooklyn throughout the story.

This example illustrates Riccardo's use of a language shift to affirm that his

suggestion is correct. Because Riccardo and Miguel use Spanish and English in their

daily lives (as documented in the case study data), they can be described as multi-

competent L1/L2 users. Within the context of this LARE example, Riccardo's use of

Está bien is not for the purpose of translating a thought. Riccardo has explained the

answer in English to Miguel. While he does not use Spanish to give Miguel the

answer, he does use Spanish to affirm his suggestion. His use of *Está bien* within this

context illustrates his shift for social purposes to affirm the answer he gives to

Miguel. Verbal exchanges coded as affordances for awareness of register shift may

reveal students' awareness of register shifts which achieve different norms of

language use for different audiences and purposes.

In summary, I sorted the LAREs into these four categories. It must be noted that the four categories described here are not mutually exclusive. In other words, a verbal exchange could be coded using more than one LARE category. The following table summarizes the LAREs categories used in my analysis:

Table 2 Summary of LAREs Categories

LAREs Categories:	Definition:
Affordances for Metalinguistic Awareness	Verbal exchanges examining meaningful parts of language as an object. For example, LAREs examining polysemy, morphology, synonymy, cross-linguistic comparisons.
Affordances for Analeptic Awareness	Verbal exchanges in which interlocutors referenced shared experiences and/or knowledge to create a common schema for clarifying meaning. For example, LAREs drawing on a prior established knowledge base.
Affordances for Propleptic Awareness	Verbal exchanges exploring inferences or opportunities to step into shared space and assume the direction of the discourse. For example, LAREs in which students finished instructor's sentences, or connected hints provided by wh- or echo questions which reflect students deducing the implied or inferred information.
Affordances for Awareness of Register Shifts	Verbal exchanges reflecting students' awareness of register shifts which achieve different norms of language use for different audiences and purposes. For example, LAREs in which students chose language purposely to establish or signal specific social norms for a specific audience.

In describing the research design and procedures I drew upon in this study, I focused on how ecological perspectives on language learning and the use of qualitative methods helped me address my research questions. Namely, an ecological perspective enables the researcher to consider the language within the classroom and to situate the classroom context within larger language ecologies which contribute to what happens in a classroom. This particular perspective allows for both a micro-level lens examining classroom language use as well as a lens that considers the bi-directional influences of the larger language ecologies. By drawing on both ethnographic methods in collecting the classroom language data and case study methods in shadowing individual students, I collected data to conduct my analysis. Finally, I have explained how I developed my unit of analysis, LAREs, and how I operationalized my unit of analysis through the coding categories.

Chapter 5: The Ecological Context of the Study
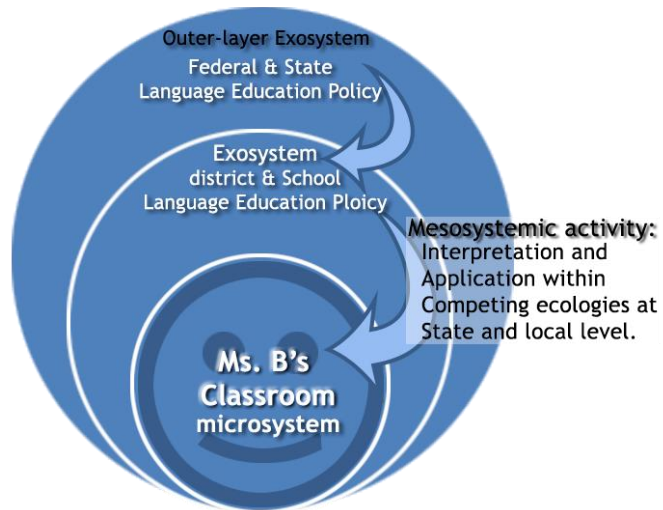
Chapter Overview

Chapter 5 is a description of the ecological context at the time of this study.
The diagram above provides a schematic of the ecological relationships within which
policy at the federal and state level is interpreted, and applied. The outer layer
exosystem reflects the federal and state policy. The arrows linking the outer layer
represent activity created as a district and school sites respond by interpreting and
applying these policy measures. In other words, embedded within this outer layer is
the district and school site language education policy in response to the outer layer
activity. The arrows represent the mesosystemic links of activity between federal and
state policy, illustrating how state and local level ecologies respond to or engage with

language learning policy. These various levels of policy context impacted the language ecology of the classroom, all of which are important to consider when thinking about opportunities in which affordances for Language Awareness may occur.

In Chapter 5, I begin by describing the outer exosystemic layer of federal and state language education policy that impacted the school site and classroom. In so doing, I describe how the state has applied the federal policy (as described in Chapter 2) through the development and implementation of state level policies. I then describe the mesosystemic links or chains of activity whereby federal and state policies are interpreted and applied through district and site level decision processes and how these impact classroom practice. In the final section of this chapter, I examine the how the microsystem of the classroom is impacted by mesosystemic policy activity. Evidence of how affordances for Language Awareness are constrained through the federal and state language policy is explored, impacting the ways students and teacher use language. In conclusion, this chapter identifies how the language policy within the larger exosystems influences, through mesosystemic links, classroom language practice, including affordances for Language Awareness.

Federal and State Language Education Policy

As this study began, President Bush's No Child Left Behind (NCLB) had been in effect for 7 years. As I have discussed in the literature review, the radical policy changes under NCLB removed any support for alternative language education

programs. Individual states were given authority over programs for English learners, requiring that programs simply teach English and academic content. As I have argued in the review of the literature, the discourse around teaching English learners had shifted to a *language diversity as a problem* orientation (Evans & Hornberger, 2005) focused on privileging English monolingualism. Because the support for other types of language programs such as transitional, or dual immersion was taken out of NCLB, options for providing students access to academic language and content instruction were greatly restricted. Additionally, funding for these programs was reduced by roughly $150 per student (Evans & Hornberger, 2005). As I have argued, these changes in policy discourse shifted language planning and policy ideology in the U.S. from *language diversity as a resource* to *language diversity as a problem*, promoting a monolingual English-only instructional ideology (Evans and Hornberger; 2005).

Within the constrained policy climate of NCLB, the pressure for schools like the one in this study to perform became paramount. All schools were required to report Annual Yearly Progress (AYP), on state tests which required that students be tested in grades two through eight and once in high school. English Language Arts and Math assessments were yearly, while science and social science were tested three times between third and twelfth grades. The goal was to ensure that economically disadvantaged groups, such as English learners, reached the content standards by 2014. As a result, federal language policy was then interpreted by each state, and implemented according to sometimes competing policies within each state. States must maintain records on districts' and schools' progress in reaching AYP goals for

underserved student populations. Districts with schools that did not meet the AYP

goals for two years in a row must submit an action plan to the state, notify parents,

and allow students to transfer schools. Again, how districts interpreted and

implemented both state and federal policy in accordance with their student

populations varied.

For example, if a school did not meet the AYP for 3 consecutive years, as did

the school in this study, the district had three options for improving the school. One

was to bring in an outside provider to provide supplemental services. Option two was

to bring in an outside consultant. A third option was to diminish school administrator

roles. If a school does not meet AYP for 4 years, the district is given three more

options for improving the school: (a) The school may be taken over by the state; (b)

the school staff may be replaced; and (c) the school may be taken over by a private

company or the school may convert to a charter school. These penalties were

disruptive to schools and faculties, especially when the measurement for achieving

AYP goals may label schools and students as failing despite their growth (Darling-

Hammond, 2004; Pease-Alvarez, Davies Samway, & Cifka-Herrera, 2010). The

school in this study which had been in program improvement for over five years had

undergone considerable changes due to these disruptive policies measures.

In response to having failed to meet AYP goals as determined by the State of

California for more than 5 years, in line with sanctions put in place under NCLB, the

district in this study had restructured the school and elected to replace the majority of

the faculty and administration. The former school serving 478 students was restructured and reopened with a new name, Sandy Shores Middle School. The restructuring added 304 sixth through eighth graders who had attended a K–8 school which was subsequently converted to a K–5 school. The restructuring created two schools, one middle school and one K–5 elementary school. The principal and vice-principal reapplied and were rehired for the leadership positions of the new Sandy Shores 6th–8th grade middle school, a second vice-principal was added to the staff, and only 10 out of 35 previous staff members were retained in the restructuring process. The instructor in the study was retained. The newly restructured Sandy Shores remained in program improvement status and served 782 students (304 students were new), gaining a second vice principal and 25 new teachers. These substantial changes aimed to address NCLB's requirements for program improvement schools. Further measures were taken by the district to address NCLB's English learner and *Reading First* policies.

Mandates under NCLB implemented through California state policy further complicated program services for English learners who made up, 35% (273 of the 782) students within the school in this study. First, under NCLB, schools must report on the academic progress of all students who are officially considered English learners. California chose to implement the California English Language Development Tests (CELDT) to measure the progress of English learners. To determine a student's language status, California policy requires that parents complete a home language survey comprised of three questions that inquire whether a

language other than English is spoken in the home. Children from families who indicate that they speak a language other than English at home must have their English language competency tested through the CELDT. The CELDT tests students in reading, writing, listening and speaking for the purpose of determining whether or not they should be officially designated ELs. The CELDT scores classify EL students' English language abilities according to five levels: 1 is beginning; 2 is early intermediate; 3 is intermediate; 4 is early advanced; and 5 is advanced. Should a child be identified as an English Learner, he or she must take the CELDT annually and remain in EL status until achieving Redesignated Fully English Proficient (RFEP) status (Ed-Data, 2011).   While English language students must be tested annually, NCLB requires only that programs teach English and academic content. NCLB does not recognize English language instruction or English as a Second Language (ESL) as a core subject, which has diminished the expertise of the trained ESL instructor to identify and diversify instruction for English learners. Additionally, the English learner designation has become a catch-all label which does not account for the various circumstances under which students may have learned English. As Ortmeier-Hooper and Enright (2011) contend:

> *English learner* designation conceals the diversity of students within
> it . . . since it includes immigrants, migrants, refugees, international students,
> Generation 1.5 students, and native-born linguistic minority students—each
> group also reflecting a range of native languages, socioeconomic
> backgrounds, combinations of L1 and L2 literacy skills, prior schooling and

academic abilities, and levels of status in their ethnic, linguistic, and receiving

communities. (p. 173)

In other words, the EL label does not account for the diversity of learners with that

designation nor does NCLB recognize the value of ESL or Bilingual instruction that

addresses the diverse language needs and circumstances of these learners. Instead, the

focus is placed on testing with a goal of exiting students to FEP status. Finally, under

NCLB, the *Reading First* criteria added an additional set of constraints for districts

and schools to address.

Harper, de Jong, & Platt (2008) report that NCLB's *Reading First* criteria

targets students who fall below grade level on the standardized tests by reading

regardless of language background. Therefore many states elected to adopt intensive

reading intervention programs, placing English learners in reading skills classes in

lieu of ESL. Harper et al. (2008) reported that the impact of NCLB has caused the

curriculum, instruction and assessment of English language learners to become

homogenized. English learners' particular needs disappeared within the mainstream

educational setting and the joined the ranks of "(struggling) native English speakers

to be addressed in a monolingual, one-size-fits all instruction and assessment"

(Harper et al., 2008, p. 280).

In accordance with this trend reported by Harper et al. (2008), the district and

school in this study had restructured all English Language Arts (ELA) classes to

address English Language Development (ELD) by reading level. This resulted in

grouping Special Needs, struggling native speakers, and English learners in the same classroom.

The district policy was to use the placement test included in the state adopted eighth grade textbook to determine program placement. All eighth grade students took the placement test in order to determine their level. The eighth grade students who received 50% or above on the textbook's assessment were ranked and placed in leveled classes which used the state adopted anthology. The placement was as follows: The lowest ranking students were placed in transitional ELA classes, mid ranking students in core ELA classes, and advanced and GATE students were placed in honors ELA classes. The students who were below 50% on the textbook's literacy assessment were placed in remedial English classes by reading level. The district adopted a highly scripted remedial reading program for the students who were unable to pass the eighth grade assessment. After restructuring the classes by reading level, there were no longer self-contained English Language Development classes (ELD — formerly ESL classes). These remedial level ELA classes were comprised of both English language learners and monolingual students identified as needing Special Education (SPED). The scripted protocol for the remedial reading program focused on reading skills, moved at a very slow pace and prohibited faculty from supplementing or varying the pacing guide. Both seasoned ESL and bilingual instructors at the school requested transfers to teach other subjects when this program was implemented.

Because Sandy Shores was identified as program improvement school, the district applied program improvement policies under NCLB to the entire school, a practice which has been reported in many school districts (Evans & Hornberger, 2005; Gándara & Baca, 2008). In order to meet NCLB goals/testing targets the district decided to double block all students in two hours of math and English Language Arts per day. As they were also required to take 1 hour of P.E. each day, students only had 2 hours left in the day for all of their other classes. The school board decided to provide one elective class and one additional hour which (in 2010–11) would be broken into four six week blocks alternating between science and social science, totaling a semester of science and a semester of social studies by the end of the academic year.[9] As test scores are paramount under NCLB, math and ELA, which are tested annually, took precedence over science and social science. Furthermore, extra after school reading and math classes were offered to the "bubble kids" who had scored very close to the proficiency benchmark.

The staff and principal at Sandy Shores were committed to improving student achievement, particularly as measured on the standardized tests which they were required to administer. This was evident in the kinds of programs and incentives that the principal instituted. For example, I worked as a volunteer in an after school program, targeting the "bubble students" or those whose test scores had been very

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[9] In 2011–12, after continued protest by the science and social science instructors, the school board voted to extend the length of the school day and shave 5 minutes off of each class to add an additional period to the day so that students would receive a full year of science and social science. The decision in 2010–11 to split science and social science occurred primarily because of constraints by NCLB, and the district's inability to negotiate a longer school day.

close to achieving proficiency in English and Math. The principal also instituted an incentive program known as "Wings" (the emblem of the school mascot, the falcon.) Faculty awarded students Wings (a ticket with wings) which students could accrue and use towards end of semester ice cream socials provided by the principal. Mrs. B. was very liberal with giving Wings especially for classroom participation such as asking questions, polite and courteous behavior towards other students, and contributing to class discussions. As she noted, "I want my students to get in on this . . . the honors students, they try for everything. I want my transitional students to try too." With Wings came prizes at the end of the quarter such as ice cream socials and a carnival party. She noted that little forms of external motivators such as Wings stamped into their notebook helped to keep students on task. As I have described, all of the staff at Sandy Shores were very focused upon improving students' test scores. They reasoned that this would release their school from Program Improvement status and the threat of closure.

In this section, I have described features of the larger NCLB federal policy context, its interpretation and application at the state policy level, and how some of these policy measures impacted the decision processes at the district and school site of this study. In summary, this school underwent tremendous changes, which included closing the former middle school, restructuring and reopening it as Sandy Shores. Approximately 28 staff members including the principal reapplied for their jobs. All ELA and ELD classes were restructured according to reading level. ELD and Special Needs students attended ELA classes together where they received a

scripted remedial reading skills program. The math and ELA classes were double blocked as two hour classes, leaving few options for electives such as foreign language or heritage language classes which may have supported students' access to academic content (Jiménez, 1992; Jiménez, Garcia, & Pearson, 1996). Furthermore, extra test preparation classes were offered after school. In the next section of this chapter, I will focus on the classroom teacher and case students in this study. The purpose of the next discussion is to consider both the potential language practices each brought with them to the classroom and to reflect on how these players negotiated the outer layer system policy contexts within classroom discourse practices in constructing potential affordances for Language Awareness.

Negotiating the Policy Environment

While the instructor in the study had been hired to teach ELD, she did not want to teach ELD any longer after the district adopted the remedial reading program for the ELD classes. She indicated that the instructional protocol for the remedial reading program prevented her from supplementing or diversifying instruction based on her assessment of student needs. She also thought that this policy undermined her authority and discounted her expertise in language teaching. She felt strongly about the need to provide students, regardless of their level, with novels that they could understand and complete. In her experience, few of her ELD students had read entire books; therefore, she sought ways to fund class sets of novels that addressed topics that were part of the class curriculum. Because she thought that adhering to the

mandated ELD curriculum compromised her autonomy as a teacher, she requested to teach the regular ELA courses as she possessed a single subject credential in English. The ELA classes followed the state adopted curriculum which was comprised of an anthology and drew on a more flexible pedagogical approach. She could choose which readings to cover and add thematically related information according to the abilities of her students. As a result, she agreed to teach three eighth-grade classes transitional ELA, core ELA, and honors ELA at different instructional levels. She also agreed to use the same eighth-grade anthology, which she adapted to the learning needs of each class.

Although she used the eighth-grade anthology to teach the three different classes (transitional, core, and honors), she indicated that her instructional approach for each class was quite different. For the transitional level students, the instructor adapted instruction considerably. She elected to have these students only read the selections in the textbook which had a corresponding Interactive Reader (IR) consumable workbook, allowing the students to read along, and maintain margin notes. As these students had difficulty reading the textbook independently, she generally taught the reading selections by projecting the text on the white board using the document camera and LCD projector features of the SMARTboard, and reading along with the students. She frequently provided thematically related audio and visual materials to scaffold the conceptual information in the text readings. She also focused considerable attention on contextualizing the vocabulary in the readings, striving to provide multimodal support for the language in the readings. However, she also had

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to accommodate the policy directives for the transitional classes which were comprised of both students who were designated EL and those who were English Only students.

Because the district had decided to organize all students by reading level, the instructor's transitional classes presented a challenge in addressing post Prop 227 policy demands for the designated EL students. The district response to California's Prop 227's requirement to teach overwhelmingly in English was to identify 30 minutes of class time specifically dedicated to ELD instruction for students who still required CELDT testing. Therefore, approximately nine students (categorized at RFEP, IFEP, or EO) did not participate in the 30 minutes of designated ELD time. Before the CELDT testing period, these 30 minutes were taken out of the 2-hour ELA block class. During this time Mrs. B engaged students in test preparation activities designed to increased their scores on the California English Language Development Test. Mrs. B. addressed the diversity of student population by sending the RFEP, IFEP, or EO students, who did not have to take the CELDT test to the library while she provided the EL students with the types of activities demanded on the test, such as telling a story about a picture. In the later part of my study, the 30 minutes of ELD time was used to fulfill another district directive that was suggested by an outside consultant. Following several day-long trainings in the fall with an outside ELD consultant for professional development, the district followed the recommendations of the consultant. This meant that Mrs. B. was required to add the non-fiction text

chosen by the district and consultant to the curriculum, plus a workbook with

exercises developed by the consultant to accompany the non-fiction text.

Negotiating the Discourse of Academic Language

As I have argued in the review of the literature, academic language, or more

transparently, academic English, became a central focus of NCLB. The links to this

aspect of NCLB were noted at the outset of the study as the term *academic language*

had a dominant presence in this school. The principal was reported to have requested

that laminated posters stating "All teachers are teachers of Academic Language" be

placed prominently at the front of every class and on the bulletin board of the school

office. During the first quarter of the year, an "Academic Word of the Day" was read

over the daily school-wide "bulletin" announcement in the morning and written on

the board along with a definition, a sample sentence and a journal topic in which the

word was used. For the first quarter of the year, students recorded these words in

journals and wrote about the words daily as they entered the class.

Given the pervasiveness of this term (written on laminated sheets in every

classroom, included in the daily activities, etc.), I decided to survey the class about

what they thought academic language referred to. I asked students whether they had

heard of academic language, what it meant to them, where it is used, and how it might

be different from other ways of using language. Student responses revealed that they

conceived of academic language in three ways: academic language, was a form of

English practiced in school which held prestige*; academic language* is English as

opposed to Spanish; and *academic language* is isolated vocabulary words.   Table 3

below provides a summary of students' conceptual understanding of Academic

Language.

Table 3 Students' Conceptual Understanding of Academic Language

Questions:	Quantitative responses:	Qualitative responses:
1. Have you ever heard of Academic Language? What does Academic Language mean?	20 yes - 8 specifically indicated studying English 8 no 2 did not answer question	"It means learning about the English language." "to me academic language means using English vocabulary when you're talking." "Academic language means to me a bunch of students struggling in English."
2. Where have you seen or heard the word Academic Language?	16 heard at school	
3. Where do you hear Academic Language?	26 at school 1 in a job or profession 1 written language	
4. Why do you study Academic Language?	9 to get better in English	
5. How is Academic Language the same or different from other ways of using language?		"It sounds better." "It is different from Spanish because its English." "I think Academic language

		is a higher level"
		"academic language is appropriate for school and the other words are not"
		"Academic language is a more advance language and other languages are different because they aren't academic."
6. What is the Academic Word of the Day (AWD)?	14 Important words for the day that they study	"It is a word of pride"

First, *academic language* was a term heard by 66% of students who took the survey and 50% specifically reported they heard the term *academic language* used at school. When asked where they hear *academic language* used*, 86% reported that they hear "academic language" used "at school". The difference in the responses indicates that 66% could provide a definition of the word *academic language,* but 86% knew where *academic language* was spoken. According to their understanding, *academic language* was spoken at school.

Second, the survey data yielded information about how the students' conceived of academic language. The patterns in student responses indicated that students viewed *academic language* as English or learning English as the following comments revealed, "to me academic language means using English vocabulary when you are talking" and "learning about the English language." Moreover, one student

specifically stated, "Academic language means to me a bunch of students struggling in English." In other words, *academic language* was equated with English, a language with which many struggled.

Student responses also revealed that they associated greater prestige with academic language when compared with other varieties. When asked how *academic language* was different from other ways of using language, students responded with "It sounds better;" "It is different from Spanish because it's English;" "I think Academic language is a higher level" and "Academic Language is appropriate for school and the other words are not". "Academic language is a more advanced language and other languages are different because they aren't academic." In these responses, *academic language* or English possesses elevated status. Moreover, English is clearly ranked above Spanish which many did not think of as an *academic language*. These responses reflect the instructor's concerns that students did not see their language, Spanish, as academic and her concern with regard to their confidence in using English.

Finally, student response patterns indicated that 46% conceptualized *academic language* as isolated vocabulary, as in "words that are appropriate for school." This finding is particularly interesting given that the majority of LAREs described in the following chapters focused on word meanings or vocabulary words discussed in context. Furthermore, the students participated in an activity titled, the Academic Word of the Day, during the first quarter of school year. I also asked students

specifically about this activity to consider how the students' might view their own participation in this activity and what it meant to them.

The Academic Word of the Day activity was a short writing task conducted during the first few minutes of class while the instructor took role and collected or distributed homework. The word which came from the Averil Coxhead[10] *Academic Word List* was written on the board when they entered the class. The instructor would discuss the word with the students, including meaning in context and the morphological parts in connection with other familiar words. Students were then asked to copy this information into a notebook and create an original sentence using the word themselves. The survey responses to this activity indicated that students liked this task. Fourteen students responded that the Academic Word of the Day was "an important word" and one student wrote "it is a word of pride." While the instructor discontinued the Academic Word of the Day (AWD) activity after the first quarter of school, students asked her several months later why she had discontinued the task. Furthermore, in the final interview, nearly three months after the AWD task had been discontinued, the case study students were still able to produce a general understanding of these words and put them in sentences with good accuracy. When I asked them what they thought about the AWD activity, all of the case study students liked it. In particular, Maria, Yasmine and Jemal said that the activity helped them to "remember the words."

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[10] It must be noted that the ELD consultant relied heavily on Coxhead's Academic Word List within the context of the in-service trainings.

In summary, students' response to items on the survey indicated that they thought *academic language* was a form of English which was practiced in school, and that this form of English carried prestige. Student responses also indicated that they valued learning *academic language* and appreciated activities such as the AWD which they believed helped them understand and remember academic vocabulary. Moreover, the students did not indicate that Spanish, a language spoken at home by 39% of the residents in the county and 35% of the students' families was *academic*. They also did not think Spanish was appropriate in school. As I have argued in the review of the literature, the ideological underpinnings of NCLB which had been in effect for 7 years prior to this study (and throughout the school experience of these 8th graders) appeared to have contributed to negative perceptions about the use of Spanish and bilingualism within the school context.

Case Study Profiles

In the final section describing the ecological landscape of the classroom microsystem, I will present the language profiles of the students shadowed in the second case study data collection phase. The aim of this description is to examine the students' activity within the classroom, providing what Lantolf & Pavlenko (2001) describe as a dialogic account. In other words, learners are socially situated agents whose learning is impacted by their socially and historically situated experiences (Block, 2003). I aimed to consider the students' background and educational experiences, as well as their practices within the classroom in examining how

affordances for Language Awareness were co-constructed. The learners I will describe are Maria, Yahyah, Riccardo, Lucca, Zico, Yasmine, and Jemal.

Maria. Maria is a 14-year-old female student whose official language status in the school is Redesignated Fluent English Proficient or RFEP, with a CELDT score of 4 (i.e., early advanced). While her primary language is reported as Spanish in the school's Student Demographic Information, during the interview she revealed that her family speaks Oaxacan[11], an indigenous Mexican language, at home. In essence, Maria is trilingual, speaking Oaxacan, Spanish and English. She is the second to the youngest in a family of nine children, having three brothers and five sisters. She reports that her two older sisters, who attend community college, help her with school and correct her homework. Neither of her parents went to school in Mexico beyond the second grade, but she reports that "Our parents always tell us that they want a better future (for us), (be)cause they did not go to college." Her dad is trying to improve his English but her mom, who has been in Mexico for the last 3 years, speaks no English. Maria indicated that the family calls her mom on the phone once a week. While Maria has not seen her mom in 2 years, she was optimistic that the family spoke about traveling to Mexico over the holidays.

Yahyah. Yahyah, a 15-year-old male, is the eldest child in his family, with twin 2-year-old brothers. He is a soccer team captain. Yahyah's language status is

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[11] I asked whether her family spoke Zapotec or Trique. She answered that they spoke "Oaxacan". Since she was private about sharing this information (I inquired three times throughout the interview whether she had spoken or heard in her community other languages like Zapotec, Trique or Mixtec) I did not press her further.

Redesignated Fluent English Proficient (RFEP). In accordance with the Office of

Civil Rights, student records do not indicate at what point RFEP status was granted

by the school[12]; therefore, I was unsure of when Yahyah became RFEP. However,

his home language is recorded as Spanish. Yahyah possesses characteristics and goals

which the other boys emulated. Yahyah had also moved to Sandy Shores from the K–

8 which had been restructured to a K–5. His connection to the other boys was through

their alliance on the winning soccer team. Small for his age, he did not volunteer to

participate in class discussions. Yet he paid attention as evidenced by his being

prepared when called upon, and he completed all of his classwork and homework. His

comments to his buddies (and sometimes to me) revealed that he had a quick wit. He

frequently made jokes about being Mexican. For example, when I told him he should

not climb the chain-linked fence to the parking lot he responded, "But Ms. Gage, I'm

Mexican." Or when he shared an accomplishment with me and I told him, "Yahyah,

when you grow up, you are going to run for mayor, and I'm going to vote for you!"

He answered, "Nah, Ms. Gage, I'm Mexican." Yet, he frequently coached the other

boys about accomplishments one needed to achieve to go to college. He boasted to

the other boys about studying, completing his homework and getting good grades. He

played in the school band and revealed that his choice of French horn was because

"French horn players get scholarships to college". Yahyah used his Spanish mostly

as a language of solidarity among his peers, but he reported that he spoke Spanish

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[12]A policy which prevents student tracking (Gándara & Baca, 2008).

primarily with his father who is a landscaper. He had been in U.S. schools since Kindergarten. Yahyah was also in the same algebra class as Maria. Following my study, he also moved to Honors English in high school.

Riccardo. Riccardo, age 13, had been in U.S. schools since Kindergarten and was still a designated EL with an overall CELDT score of 4, making him an Early Advanced level student. His listening and speaking scores were 4s and his reading and writing scores were 3s. He had been in Mrs. Balboa's ESL classes since sixth grade and was an active participant in class. Mrs. Balboa referred to him as a "language sponge" and she was particularly impressed by Riccardo's thought processes. She reported that he, of all her students, asked the most questions and consistently noticed connections between concepts. He was the student on whom she relied to initiate the class in wondering, and to invite others to express their curiosity. Although Riccardo followed Yahyah's lead in many things such as doing homework together, Riccardo differed in that he was extremely outspoken in class, constantly asking questions and contributing to class discussions. Yet, Riccardo struggled with writing, in contrast to Yahyah. Riccardo like Yahyah came from a family where both parents lived in the home. Riccardo also had two brothers.

Lucca. Lucca, age 13, lived with his mom and sister. Lucca generally sat with Riccardo at the beginning of the study and relied on Riccardo to read the board for him because of poor eyesight. Though both Lucca and Riccardo had a home language of Spanish and had been cared for as infants by Riccardo's grandmother,

Lucca was designated RFEP, unlike Riccardo. Yet Lucca frequently copied from Riccardo's paper, and had difficulty keeping up with the pace of the class which may, in part, be due to his poor eyesight. Lucca had been in Sandy Shores during sixth grade, then had gone to K–8 with Yahyah in seventh grade, and then moved back to Sandy Shores for eighth grade. Although they are not related, Riccardo and Lucca had a sibling-like relationship in that they had known each other their entire lives. While both Riccardo and Lucca were in a remedial algebra readiness class, Lucca, according to the math instructor, "could be an engineer, if he chose to apply himself." In spite of the fact that Lucca applied himself to schoolwork less than Yahyah and Riccardo, Lucca was the only student in Mrs. Balboa's class to achieve proficient on the California Standards Test (CST) at the end of the year, which thrilled Mrs. Balboa.

Zico. Zico is a 14-year-old male student who is designated ELD with an overall CELDT score of 3 (i.e., intermediate level) who also received 3s in each area of the test, Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing. In contrast to the other students, his CELT scores were the lowest of the students in the case study group. He had arrived in Mrs. Balboa's class on October 19, 2011, after spending the first 2 months of school in another class. Mrs. Balboa asked for him to be moved to her classroom because when he visited her at lunch, he was disengaged in school, and complained that he wanted to return to Mexico where he had spent the summer. Zico had begun attending school in the U.S. in fourth grade. He had also been in Mrs. Balboa's ESL classes since sixth grade along with his buddy Marco, Yasmine's

cousin, who had arrived in the U.S. in fifth grade.   Zico had scored Far Below Basic

in every subject on the CSTs but had risen to Below Basic in English by the

beginning of eighth grade, qualifying him for transitional English. Mrs. Balboa had

also described Zico to me as a "language sponge" but that he resisted being in the

United States. His family generally sent him home to Mexico in the summer. Upon

his arrival to school in the fall, he often complained to Mrs. Balboa that he wanted to

return to Mexico. This year when he returned from Mexico, he had refused to speak

English in the first quarter when he was in another class. During this time, he and

Marco often visited Mrs. Balboa at lunch time where Marco had complained to Mrs.

Balboa that Zico was refusing to use his English. Marco often translated for Zico

which Mrs. Balboa pointed out was interesting as Marco has been studying English

for less time than Zico. Furthermore, Zico's class participation when he chose to

attend class revealed facility in English far superior to Marco's.

Yasmine. Yasmine is a 15-year-old girl who came to the U.S. from El

Salvador in first grade. While her CELDT score in elementary school was not

available, she had achieved an overall score of a 2 (i.e., early intermediate) by the

time she entered sixth grade and was assigned to an ESL class which Mrs. Balboa had

taught during the 2007–08 academic year where she made a 40-point gain in overall

CELDT score. She had been in Mrs. Balboa's ESL class the following year for

seventh grade as well, where she had advanced 40 additional points on the CELDT.

Entering eighth grade, Yasmine was advanced from ESL to Transitional ELA, with

an overall CELDT score level 3 (i.e., intermediate). While her listening and reading scores were 4s, her speaking and writing scores were 3s.

Mrs. B had attended Yasmine's Quinceañera, remarking at how grown up the children appeared during this event. Her cousin had been her escort. They had shown me the photos of Yasmine dressed elaborately in a light blue satin gown with large puffed sleeves, a cinched waist-line which exaggerated her bosom, and a long tiered hooped skirt. She appeared like a princess and her cousin in a white tuxedo, a prince. Mrs. B remarked on the demonstration of pageantry and the detailed choreographed dances performed as part of this rite of passage. She also noted the considerable expense of the event in light of the economic strain which many felt following the economic collapse of 2009. The Quinceañera can be very important in Latino communities (Prida, 2007). Even in my short time at the school, I heard children discuss the "practice" for the dances. The girls who had completed the ritual spent much time showing photos of their party which decorated the outside of their binders.

Jemal. During the last 2 months of my study, Yasmine was partnered with Jemal. Jemal is an identical twin and a very gentle boy who seemed to get along very well with Yasmine. He is 13 years old and had moved from Mexico in fourth grade, attending the K–8 elementary school which was restructured as a K–5. After the schools' restructuring, Jemal and his twin brother moved to Sandy Shores for eighth grade. Although he had been in the U.S. less time than Yasmine, he had a higher overall CELDT score of 4 (i.e., early advanced). He also had a stronger command of

oral English, scoring 4s on his listening and speaking tests, and 3s on his reading and writing tests. His oral language reflected local Chicano dialect (Fought, 2003), although he had been in the U.S. less time than Yasmine. At the beginning of the year, he was distrustful of the study, and refused to sign the consent forms. As the year progressed he became very friendly with me. This change occurred after I had been observing a math class he was attending. While in the math class, I encouraged him and helped him a bit, openly appreciating his aptitude in math. From that time forward, he became increasingly friendly with me. Half way through the study he asked to participate in the study, and asked to be a case study student. While I do not have as much class work data on him because of his earlier status as not participating in the study, I agreed to include him because he partnered well and was friendly with Yasmine. He was also one of the few students who would pick up the bilingual books on Mrs. Balboa's shelf and read in Spanish. As classroom partners, Yasmine and Jemal, often supported each other in completing assignments.

Summary

In Chapter 5, I have described how the teacher and students in this study are embedded within the larger language education policy context. I have presented a portrait of how the outer layer or federal and state language education policy impacted the school site. District policies that are intended to support the implementation of federal policies, such as NCLB and state policy responses to Prop 227, have sought to release schools like Sandy Shores from Program Improvement

status. Drastic measures were taken by the district which included restructuring the school, replacing a majority of faculty and administrative staff, restructuring ELA classes by reading levels, and retraining teachers to follow the language consultant's instructional protocol. Moreover, curricular changes aimed exclusively on improving students' reading ability in English became the target pedagogical objective. I have also explored evidence of how affordances for Language Awareness are constrained through the federal and state language planning policy, impacting choices in the way teachers and students used language. The teacher in this study, who has an interest in languages and attempts to share this with her students, is constrained by the language policies. Although each of the children described within the cases possesses a range of language abilities in English, Spanish, and, in Maria's case, Oaxacan, the classroom language ecology under NCLB narrowly defines the language options which may be used in a classroom. In conclusion, I have provided some insight into how the multi-layered policy context impacted the classroom discourse within which affordances for Language Awareness occurred in this study.

Chapter 6: A Quantitative Analysis of the LAREs Data

Introduction

Chapter 6 provides a quantitative analysis of the LARE data collected during the study. I examined the frequency, the make-up, and the context of the LAREs to address the first two research questions: 1. How is the Language Awareness of multi-competent L1/L2 learners constructed within the school context; and 2. What do the language practices which multi-competent L1/L2 learners employ in their school and classroom reveal about their Language Awareness? In considering the language ecology of this study within which affordances for Language Awareness occur, I also examine the proximal contexts of the LAREs to further explore how LAREs are contextualized.

LAREs Participation Sequences

My analysis of 48 hours of transcribed recordings revealed 119 total episodes or LAREs. In my analysis, I first determined who initiated each LARE and whether or not the teacher or student initiating a LARE did so by posing a question, offering a comment, echoing or repeating what had been said. These sequences, in which either the teacher or students made an oral contribution to the discussion during a LARE episode, I counted as a participation sequence. A LARE participation sequence could be one turn or several, as long as it captured the space of discussion about meaning or the topic being explored. Third, I considered who else participated in each LARE and

in what ways. For example, did students respond to LAREs initiated by the instructor or did they remain silent?

Of 119 Language Awareness Related Episodes identified in the transcribed data, 99 were initiated by the instructor while 20 were initiated by the students. An interactive discussion of more than one turn, between classroom participants, occurred 111 times. In 8 LAREs, the instructor offered additional information about meaning to which the students did not add comments or questions.

Drawing upon my field note observations, I also considered the proximal context within which the LAREs occurred. First, the organization structure of classroom interaction adhered to a traditional classroom structure with the teacher at the front of the class, leading the class discussion. Considering the large size of the language learning class (30–33 students) and the instructor's effort to focus the entire groups' attention on the text projected on the SMARTboard or to follow along in the Interactive Reader, the teacher-centered focus appeared to serve the purpose of achieving a degree of joint attention. In sum, the teacher-centered practice appeared to keep the entire group focused on the task at hand. In fact, the teacher complained that maintaining focus with such a large class of students was one of her challenges.

Second, although the class was structured in a traditional fashion, there was a very high degree of student participation. For example, 94% of the total instances of LARE resulted in student oral responses and discussions of more than one turn. Students did not respond to the teacher's verbal contributions in 6% of instructor

initiated potential affordances for Language Awareness. Therefore, the analysis of student participation reveals the instructor often initiating, but classmates also engaging in potential affordances for Language Awareness. The following Table 4 provides a summary of the teacher and student participation during LAREs (i.e., situations in which affordances for Language Awareness occurred).

Table 4 Summary of Quantitative Analysis of LAREs Categories

Participation sequences within LAREs data[13]:	LARE 119 episodes
LAREs initiated by teacher	99 (83%)
LAREs resulting in an interactive discussion with teacher	111 (94%)
LAREs begun by students initiating discussion	20 (17%)
LAREs in which teacher offered information but no discussion with the students	8 (6%)

There were no other participants in the classroom such as parent or community volunteers with the exception of the researcher and a Special Education aide who attended for the first hour of each class to document homework assigned to the SPED students in the class.

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[13] Note: categories are not mutually exclusive.

Comparison of LAREs Subcategories

After looking at the makeup of the LAREs data to identify the patterns in contribution to the LAREs, I then compared the number of LAREs within each subcategory (metalinguistic, analeptic, proleptic, and shift in register). The results are summarized in Table 5.

I categorized the majority of LAREs as potential affordances for metalinguistic awareness (51 instances). In order to be counted as an affordance for metalinguistic awareness, the generalized overarching concept within the LARE explored metalinguistic information. Forty-two (82 %) were initiated by the instructor, and nine (17%) were initiated by the students. Thirty-five (68%) instances resulted in an interactive dialog of at least one turn or more between the instructor and the students, and five (9%) were instances in which information was offered by the instructor and in which students did not respond verbally.

Within the second largest category of LAREs, I found thirty-three instances of affordances for analeptic awareness. In order to be counted as an affordance for analeptic awareness, the LAREs necessarily related to drawing on students' background knowledge or a shared classroom, school, or community experience. Of the LAREs in the category of affordances for analeptic awareness, 29 (87%) were initiated by the instructor, and 4 (12%) were initiated by the students. Thirty-one (93%) instances resulted in an interactive dialog of at least one turn or more between

the instructor and the students, and two (6%) were instances in which information was offered by the instructor but students did not respond verbally.

Twenty of the LAREs fell into the category of affordances for proleptic awareness (20 instances). For an affordance to be counted as an affordance for proleptic awareness, the LARE must generate awareness around inferred information within the text. Within this category, fifteen (75%) were initiated by the instructor, and five (25%) were initiated by the students. All of the episodes were the result of an interactive dialog of at least one turn or more between the instructor and the students. There were no instances in which information was offered by the instructor and in which students did not respond verbally.

Finally, the fewest LAREs, 15, were categorized as Awareness of Register Shift. To be counted as a LARE for an Awareness of Register Shift, the LARE should include a discussion of shifts in register usage for social purposes. Thirteen (86%) were initiated by the instructor, and two (13%) were initiated by the students. Twelve (80%) instances resulted in an interactive dialog of at least one turn or more between the instructor and the students, and there was one (6%) instance in which information was offered by the instructor with no student response. The following table provides a summary of the aforementioned analysis of LAREs data reflecting each subcategory and the total participation sequences:

Table 5 Summary of LAREs Subcategories and Participation Sequences

Comparison of LAREs subcategories:	Metalinguistic N=51	Analeptic N=33	Proleptic N=20	Register Shift N=15
Initiated by teacher	42 (82%)	29 (87%)	15 (75%)	13 (86%)
Resulted in an interactive discussion with teacher	35 (68%)	31 (93%)	20 (100%)	12 (80%)
Began by students initiating discussion	9 (17%)	4 (12%)	5 (25%)	2 (13%)
Teacher offered information but no discussion with the students	5 (9%)	2 (6%)	0	1 (6%)
Percent of total 119	43%	28%	17%	12%

In summary, the quantitative breakdown of the LAREs categories and participation sequences reveal that while the instructor initiated the majority of instances in which the LAREs occurred, there was a high degree of student participation, as can be seen by the percentages in each category which ranged from approximately 70 to 100% (see Table 5). This analysis reveals that both the instructor

and students contributed to LAREs. The nature of their involvement in LAREs will be discussed in in greater detail in Chapters 7 and 8.

LAREs Proximal Contexts

The curricular narrative is a key element within the classroom environment, contributing to the proximal contexts in which affordances for Language Awareness occur. Thus, I also collected data on the topics being discussed during the LAREs. In all 119 instances, the topics in which LAREs occurred were generated from the texts used in the class. During the times that LAREs occurred, the class was generally working through the assigned texts. In the next section, I will discuss the sequence of topics and curriculum covered during the data collection period. In providing a situated account that captures the contexts in which LAREs occurred, my concern is with the environment or proximal contexts in which affordances for Language Awareness occur.

The curricular narrative during my data collection included: *Harriet Tubman: Conductor on the Underground Railroad* by Ann Petry; "Mrs. Flowers," an excerpt from *I Know Why the Caged Bird Sings* by Maya Angelou; "A Shot at It" from *When I was Puerto Rican* by Esmeralda Santiago; *The Secret Annex,* a play by Francis Goodrich and Albert Hacket based on *The Diary of Anne Frank; Number the Stars* by Lois Lowery; and *Reality Readings.* All the texts are part of the grade-eight state-adopted anthology except for *Number the Stars* by Lois Lowery and *Reality Readings. Number the Stars* was a supplemental text chosen by the instructor as a

thematic extension to the Anne Frank unit, because *Number the Stars* provides a

fictional account of the rescue of a Jewish family during World War II in Denmark.

Reality Readings, a collection of non-fiction, high-interest readings, was adopted by

the district to comply with directives issued by the ELD consultant hired by the

district to administer curriculum. Because the majority of students read well below

the reading level of the eighth grade anthology, the LAREs may have helped students

better understand the texts in the anthology. That is to say, the story settings were in

different parts of the country and the world---places the students may never have

heard about. The stories also took place at different points in history with cultural

practices which differ from those within the local community. Building the schema

to understand these situational contexts was important as evidenced by the fact that

the LAREs generally occurred within the context of these multimodal discussions. As

the historical events and places represented within the narratives were unfamiliar to

the students, both language and content required various kinds of mediating scaffolds

which I discuss below. Some LAREs exchanges also occurred around the anti-

bullying curriculum which was presented once a week during home room *advisory*

announcements.[14]

A second level of analysis included a summary of the multimodal scaffolds

used to mediate the language and content of the texts. These multimodal scaffolds

contributed to the proximal contexts within which the LAREs data were collected.

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[14] All first-period instructors were home room teachers who discussed the weekly
administrative reminders with students. As part of the home room duties, instructors read letters
provided within the curriculum with the class and discussed issues related to preventing bullying in the
middle school.

For example, images of the textbook, including text and illustrations, were projected on the board through the SMARTboard. Audio CDs of the text the students were reading on the board provided a listening component. Students also used Interactive Readers (IR), a type of workbook accompanying the text. The IR were consumable, meaning that each child had her own book which was discarded at the end of the year. The IR contained a selection of the readings from the anthology. The children wrote in the IR, and highlighted and underlined key words and phrases in the text. The class also worked through the questions written in the margin notes of the IR which included comprehension and vocabulary questions about the reading. These multimodal tools contributed to the semiotic potential within the classroom.

These various scaffolds were used on a daily basis in the following ways. The document camera and LDC projector features on the SMARTboard were used to project the text and ancillary readings. Images or films which contributed to the conceptual schema of the text were also projected daily through the LDC projector feature of the SMARTboard. For example, a short film depicting a day in the life of an abolitionist was shown during the reading on the Underground Railroad. In addition to the texts, the Interactive Reader (IR) was used with every reading the instructor selected from the anthology. As a matter of fact, the instructor reported that she selected the readings from the anthology because these readings were in the IR, giving the students a text to mark-up and make notes in. The instructor also routinely projected her IR, modeling what she highlighted, underlined, and circled. She also transcribed students' contributions to the margin notes. Students observed and also

copied notes as she wrote. At the end of a unit, she assigned students to take the IR home to reread and study the text and vocabulary before a unit quiz. In summary, the daily use of mediating factors was a part of the classroom language ecology contributing to the proximal contexts in which the LAREs occurred.

While the instructor used the SMARTboard in a variety of ways, including to take screen shots of the marked up text for class review, the instructor indicated that the simple ability to "project the enlarged text and images on the wall for the students is indispensable" (Mrs. Balboa, personal communication, April 2013). According to the instructor, by projecting text and images on the SMARTboard, the instructor was able to focus the students' attention on the task at hand. The instructor had begun projecting text on the board for students 5 years earlier when her husband had bought her a document projector. Her husband, an ESL teacher in a local high school, decided to have students read authentic literature by projecting the text on the board for the class to study and have whole class discussions. The instructor believed that the IR was as necessary as the document projector feature of the SMARTboard, "I had the SMARTboard last year but didn't have the Interactive Reader. It wasn't the same." While the district had purchased the SMARTboards the year before the study, the instructor insisted that it is the ability to project the text and read with the students that made her job possible.

The following table summarizes the activities and mediating factors in the classroom contributing to affordances for Language Awareness. These activities

contributed to the proximal context of the classroom ecology. The top left column

represents the texts read which were often accompanied by audio CD. The text was

routinely projected upon a SMARTboard where the children could read along, on the

board or in their text, with the audio CD.

The second column represents the maps or tactile realia that students and

teacher utilized. Students maintained a map of the U.S. tracking the states in which

the participants on the Underground Railroad traveled. The map of the United States

was also used to link the states from the Underground Railroad reading to the states

where the protagonists of "Mrs. Flowers" and "A Shot at It" lived and traveled.

Finally, a map of Europe was used to track the progression of World War II as the

students studied the life of Anne Frank and considered the impact of World War II on

Denmark, while reading *Number the Stars,* and in Italy, while watching *Life is*

Beautiful.

The third column represents the art and film used to provide visual images

from the readings. The instructor showed a film about the abolitionists during the

Underground Railroad reading. She also showed students images of a gourd, the Big

Dipper and the song lyrics from "Follow the drinking gourd" by Peg Leg Joe to

explain how the song signifies that the Big Dipper can be used as a coded map so that

slaves could be directed by the stars in the night sky on their journey north. Finally, in

order to contextualize the play *The Secret Annex*, the instructor showed the film, *Anne*

Frank: The Whole Story which documents the life of Anne Frank's family before,

during, and after World War II. She also showed the children the film *Life is Beautiful* in Italian with English subtitles to provide the children with an example of life in Italy during World War II.

Table 6 Summary of Mediating Factors

Readings:	Related map activities:	Related art/music/film:	Related writing activities:
Harriet Tubman: Conductor on the Underground Railroad	Students traced Underground Rail-road on U.S. map	Film: Abolitionist Music: Follow the drinking gourd Images: gourd & Big Dipper	Margin notes in IR Timed Writing KWL charts
Mrs. Flowers	U.S. map linked to Maya Angelou's story		Margin notes in IR Venn diagram: Margarita & Esmeralda Comparison & contrast essay
A Shot at It	U.S. map linked to Esmeralda Santiago's story		
The Secret Annex	Europe map tracing progression of WWII	Film: Anne Frank, the whole story Film: Life is Beautiful (Italian) Diary of Anne Frank, bilingual	Margin notes in IR Journal entries following each day of story from perspective of characters
Number the Stars	Europe map used to link impact of WWII		Reading response logs
Reality Readings			Consultant's workbook exercises

Finally, the fourth column represents the writing activities used to mediate understanding which included the students' marginal notes in the Interactive Reader about all of the readings from the eighth grade anthology. The students also maintained KWL (*what you know, what you want to know, and what you learned*) charts as they discussed aspects of each reading. The teacher routinely scaffolded the KWL chart by providing students with a variety of opening activities. For example, the class would discuss what they knew about a topic. Then she would write the sentence in the chart for the K (what you KNOW) column as the students dictated their discussion with her. Then she would turn it over to them, "I want you to write two more sentences about what you know in the W column. What do you WANT to know?" Or she would provide a starter, open sentence frame for the children to complete, for example asking a question which often came from one of the students' suggestions. Or for example, when they discussed the concept of a *synagogue,* she directed every child to write what they had learned about this as no one knew what a *synagogue* was at the start of the class. During the film, *Anne Frank: The Whole Story*, which was shown in short sequences over the course of two weeks, the students kept a journal describing the scenes of the film or play from the perspective of one of the characters in the film and play. Finally, the students compared a diary entry from The Diary of Anne Frank written in English and Spanish, looking for cognates and reflecting on the relative difficulty of reading the text in two languages. In summary, these multimodal and multisensory activities provided the proximal contexts within

which the LAREs occurred. I now shift to tracing the sources of the mediating

factors.

Policy played a role in the use of the aforementioned mediating factors.

Because Sandy Shores was a year five Program Improvement school some of the

curriculum and instructional approaches were a result of NCLB directives. For

example, in order to comply with NCLB, the district made the choice to hire the

outside consultant, who was brought in to advise the district on their ELD curriculum.

She recommended the use of the non-fiction, *Reality Readings,* and accompanying

workbook, which she wrote. The state had adopted the anthology and required that

publishers include ancillary materials. Therefore, the audio CD, and the consumable

Interactive Reader (IR) came with the state adopted text. Another policy influence

was the Williams case, which requires that all students must have equal access to

textbooks (California Department of Education, 2013b). Thus the state issues

materials for study both at home and at school. The Interactive Readers were the

books which the students took home with them. Because the Interactive Reader is a

consumable, each class receives a new set every year, allowing students to draw,

underline, highlight, and answer marginal comprehension and vocabulary questions.

Students took the IR home to reread before the chapter assessments and the instructor

evaluated students on their marginal notes.

The non-fiction text *Reality Readings* and the consultant's accompanying

workbook presented topics for debate which were unrelated to the themes in the

textbook. While the students were engaged by the elaborate thematic units around the anthology readings, the consultant's non-fiction text was not popular. As Yahyah said, "this is not my style" when the non-fiction books and workbooks were distributed. Mrs. Balboa offered reading together from *Number the Stars,* as a means to engage the students in the district consultant's workbook. In retrospect, Mrs. Balboa commented that a non-fiction thematic extension of Anne Frank would likely have engaged the students more than the *Reality Readings* which were on a variety of topics.

While the supplementary materials, texts, and technology were available to all the instructors in the school, not all instructors used them. In observing other classes, I noted that Mrs. B. chose to use these materials---other instructors which I observed did not use the ancillary materials. Furthermore, the instructor supplemented the instruction with additional tools. She brought in the maps, pictures, films, songs, and bilingual text to mediate understanding of the text .The instructor also selected the companion text, *Number the Stars*, as an extension on the Anne Frank unit.

In terms of research question one: how are affordances for Language Awareness constructed within the school context; the quantitative analysis in this chapter showed that the LAREs occurred between students and their instructor discussing the text in tandem. While the LAREs reflecting affordances for metalinguistic awareness were the most common, LAREs reflecting affordances for analeptic and proleptic awareness resulted in more interactive discussions.

Furthermore, in terms of examining research question two: what affordances for Language Awareness are available to students and what mediating factors aid potential affordances for Language Awareness; within the proximal contexts of the LAREs, I noted many multimodal and multisensory mediating factors were present to schematize the language and content of the text. The state adopted text comes with a selection of materials such as the audio CD and IR. The use of these supplementary materials is up to the instructor's discretion. This instructor chose not only to include these materials in her pedagogy, but also consistently chose to project the text on the SMARTboard, selected additional thematically relevant films, songs and visual imagery to schematize the language of the text. Within this proximal context of highly schematized language instruction, I documented the Language Awareness Related Episodes which I will examine in the next chapter.

Chapter 7: Affordances for Language Awareness

I examined each student's and teacher's participation in LAREs in order to better understand how students construct affordances for Language Awareness within the classroom. In Chapter 6, I reported that the participation structures showed that LAREs were largely initiated by the instructor, but that these structures also revealed a high level of activity among the students. In this chapter, I will examine patterns in the way students and teachers engaged in LAREs. Because the majority of LARES I found were affordances for metalinguistic awareness, I begin with this category. Within this category, I found three trends:

1. I observed a practice I describe using the term *flood of definitions*, in which students simultaneously vocalized their meaningful definition or connections, when providing affordances for Language Awareness.

2. I found evidence of affordances for Language Awareness around exploring polysemous words which I titled *tripping on polysemy.*

3. I found evidence of affordances for cross-linguistic awareness initiated by the instructor.

Next I examined LAREs reflecting affordances for analeptic awareness. Within this category, I considered practices in which affordances for Language Awareness occurred through analeptic clues which allowed for joint awareness or shared understanding drawing on students' background knowledge or a shared classroom, school, or community experience. I argue that affordances for Language

Awareness occur through analeptic linking of jointly constructed school experiences and of shared cultural knowledge. The third LAREs category was affordances for proleptic awareness, which occurred when the instructor would pause while talking, and allow students to finish her verbal contributions. The final LAREs category I describe is affordances for awareness of register shifts, which occurred while students participated in register shifts. Examining the LAREs to discover the practices of the multi-competent L1/L2 learners illuminates how students and the teacher engage in affordances for Language Awareness within the classroom collaboratively and help address research question one: how are affordances for Language Awareness constructed within school context by multi-competent L1/L2 users?

Affordances for Metalinguistic Awareness

I began by examining LAREs that I had categorized as affordances for metalinguistic awareness, to uncover patterns characterizing participants' engagement. One practice I observed was a *flood of definitions* between metalinguistic elements. *A flood of definitions* is a the term I use to describe the process in which one person would offer an observation about language in question and then several others would offer what they noticed about language. In so doing, participants provided a *flood of definitions, connections* or *associations*. This practice was one in which both students and the instructor participated. In the following example, the instructor and students examined the context clues in a sentence containing the word *leisure* to explore the meaning of that word. In so doing, they

jointly produced three definitions or synonyms. Ultimately, six definitions were

offered for *leisure,* the word in question in the following example:

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11/9/2010

Tony: (continues reading struggling with the word *leisure*) *leisure to arrange everything ourselves*.

Mrs. B (reassuring him): You can pronounce it leisure [liʒur] or [leʒsur]. Can I have someone read the question please?

Nikko: *Using context clues about Mr. Frank's plans write a definition of leisure*.

Mrs. B: Well, we don't know much about Mr. Frank's plans. Let's see if there are any context clues. Leisure would be down time. Time to relax. Plenty of leisure . . . So it is plenty of time and its time that is not busy or filled. Ok. Time to relax.

Jafar: Time that is not used.

Mrs. B: Yeah, so on vacation; you have plenty of time to relax.

Riccardo: time to chill.

Mrs. B: So if I say, "At your leisure" It means, take your time. Be relaxed about it.

</div>

In this LARE, participants' contributions enabled them to explore the meaning of the

word *leisure.*   Students also provided synonyms in an informal register such as "time

to chill," and a formal spoken register "time that is not used", while the instructor

offered several other examples as well.[15] The range of registers and ways of

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[15] "time to chill" was analyzed as an affordance for metalinguistic awareness and not an affordance for awareness social purpose because within the context, the register shift is an example of *transregistering* albeit *translanguaging* , i.e. the use of multiple discursive practices for the construction of meaning around the word *leisure.*

explaining offered by both the instructor and the students illustrated the range of expression used in constructing LAREs.

In some cases, a student exploring an idea lacked the word to encompass the concept and the instructor working in tandem with the student would fill in the gap as in the following example:

> **10/18/2010**
>
> **Riccardo**: Why didn't slaves kill their owners?
>
> **Mrs. B:** Yeah, kill? Or in some way rebel?
>
> **Riccardo**: Or like tie him up and make him suffer?
>
> **Mrs. B:** Oh, ok. Why didn't slaves rebel? (She writes this co-constructed question on the board.)

Riccardo, who wondered why the slaves did not "kill their owners," was asking about the situational context. Mrs. B. took this opportunity to connect his query to the word *rebel* which was one of the key vocabulary words in the chapter. While *torture* might have been a more exact synonym, expressing Riccardo's concern, Mrs. B suggested *rebel*. *Rebel* as an abstract verb is a superordinate which semantically encompasses concepts of *kill* and *suffer* or the hyponyms which Riccardo suggested. Writing their co-constructed sentence on the board, she then engaged the class in exploring the ramifications of "Why didn't slaves rebel?" Riccardo and Mrs. B's co-constructed dialog provided an extended schema contextualizing both the concepts and the academic register of the text.

The practice of *flooding definitions* extended the range of word schemas available to students regardless of whether they were contributing to or observing the conversation. While several registers were offered, the tendency in the LAREs data may indicate that students preferred a more formal register. This seems to be corroborated by data from the Academic Language survey (discussed in Chapter 5). In the survey, students described school language using phrases such as "sounds better" and "it's a higher level".

Students' participation in LAREs reflecting affordances for metalinguistic awareness revealed variations in their understanding around polysemy, and the need to explore multiple meanings in words. The instructor appeared to be acutely aware of polysemy as a point of confusion because she often provided little puzzles to check students' awareness as in the following example. Here Mrs. B. offered an alternate semantic sense for *flight* to determine whether the students understood the semantic sense of the word in the text. Several students corrected her, contributing several synonyms and paraphrases while exploring the meaning of *flight* represented in the context of the narrative.

10/20/2010

Mrs. B: (reading) *She told them stories of her own first flight.* Like a United Airlines flight?

Riccardo (correcting her): like a voyage

Jafar: Her first experience.

Mrs. B: What kind of experience? Her first flight. Miguel, what was the first

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sentence you said about Harriet Tubman?

Miguel: She escaped.

Mrs. B: Yes, so her first flight.

Note that all of the students' contributions showed a preference for more text-based academic register including the word *escaped*[16] which had been introduced and discussed two days earlier in the classroom data. The students' multiple contributions demonstrated their willingness to explore or play with the language. In other words, they were not simply content to provide *an answer* but strove to consider several examples. Many of these examples reflected the students' preference for more formal language such as *voyage* and *her first experience*, as opposed to, for example, *trip,* which would be more typical of informal oral language usage (Biber & Vásquez, 2008).

Students also demonstrated their willingness to question understandings around polysemy as in the following example where Niko had stopped the instructor because he was confused by the term *guidance counselor:*

10/29/2011

Mrs. B.: So a counselor, a guidance counselor, uhm Miguel, you'll be talking to one more in high school. They guide you to your career . . . make sure you are taking classes for college if you want to go to college.

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[16] *Escaped* is analyzed in this context following Biber and colleagues' (Biber et al., 1999; Biber & Vásquez, 2008) corpus study which provides evidence that a verb plus particle, for example, in this case *run away*, is more frequently occurring in spoken register than *escaped*.

> **Niko**: I thought a counselor was like someone who helps you with your problems.
>
> **Mrs. B:** Your social problems? Yes, a guidance counselor is a little different . . . (it's) someone in school who helps with your career.

In this LARE, Nico understood a meaning for *counselor* that differed with the definition discussed in the text. Niko shared his understanding of the word *counselor,* and Mrs. B. offered another meaning. By exploring both his understanding and his confusion about the other use of this term with the instructor and the rest of the class, the affordance for Language Awareness occurred. Furthermore, Niko was also demonstrating his tolerance for publicly taking risks within the classroom community to construct affordances for Language Awareness[17].

Finally, LAREs reflecting affordances for metalinguistic awareness also included practices which helped students become aware of what they may not have noticed. In the following example, Maria attributed the wrong semantic sense to the adjective *rich,* which caused her to misinterpret the contextual meaning. In the context of the reading, *rich* is attributed to color, not wealth. Mrs. B. noticed Maria's confusion and delicately asked her to explain how she had arrived at her conclusion, asking the class to explore the attributes of *skin* with her. Following Gibbons's (2006) technique of analyzing the contributions offered by different participants in a class discussion, I illustrate the different semantic senses of *rich* offered by the different class participants below. Prompting the students to consider the semantic context of

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[17] I observed that students were willing to talk among themselves but were very self-conscious about participating in open class discussions. When the principal or substitute conducted the class, the students did not respond to questions asked of the class unless the adult authority called directly on a specific student. In fact, the classes in which students contributed to discussions, as in Mrs. B's class, stood in contrast to my observations of several other classes.

the text, Mrs. B asked the students to consider whether "Skin can have money?"

which was the semantic sense Maria had attributed to *rich*. Within the LARE example

below, the transcript shows the different semantic senses attributed to *rich* which

emerged from the students' exploration of the attributes of *skin*.

10/26/2010
Maria: She is <u>rich</u>.
Mrs. B: Ah, and why do you think that? Quotes go over here (this is demonstrated physically by pointing on the document which is visible on the document projector on the SB.)
Maria: Her skin was <u>rich</u>
Mrs. B: Oh, nice. So when we talk about someone's skin being rich what is that? <u>Can skin have money</u>?
Jafar: <u>Beautiful</u>
Riccardo: <u>Saggy, wrinkly</u>
Mrs. B: Ok, I heard <u>beautiful, wrinkly</u> . . . and you said what?
Riccardo: <u>Saggy</u>. (The other boys laugh)
Mrs. B: <u>Saggy? Wrinkled</u>? Hmm, Melissa which do you like?
Maria: <u>Beautiful</u>.
Mrs. B: It is more like "<u>her skin was a rich what</u>? "
Jafar: <u>black</u>
Mrs. B: Ok so <u>rich is like deep and yeah, beautiful</u>.

Jafar responded to Mrs. B. with "beautiful" adding the attribute "beautiful" to *skin*.

But Riccardo chimed in with a little divergent humor, "saggy, wrinkly", playing with

other attributes of *skin,* though "saggy" and "wrinkly" are not attributes of *rich* in

this context. Through this exchange, Melissa gained an affordance for Language Awareness which was co-constructed with the help of her instructor and peers. Although Riccardo's playful interlude digressed from the focus of the topic, Mrs. B. accepted his humor, shifting the authority to Melissa to decide on an appropriate meaning. The significance of this LARE was three fold: first, Melissa was not initially aware of her confusion in applying the wrong semantic sense to the context. Second, she arrived at the solution through exploring the meaning guided by the instructor but also prompted by the contributions of her peers. Third, Riccardo, in his mischievous language play, contributed distracters to the problem which may have actually clarified the solution for Melissa because *rich* as in 'wealth' is not *saggy* and *wrinkly.* In other words, the narrative description was to focus the reader's attention on the status of Mrs. Flowers as "royalty" within the Black community, emphasizing the richness of her black skin and not that she was old. Not only did this example show how the instructor included Riccardo's distracter, but it also showed how Riccardo's distracter provided an analytical clue for Melissa. In the end, Melissa was the authority locating the true meaning within the LARE, allowing her to explore meaning by coming to an awareness of the semantic sense of *rich* attributed to Mrs. Flowers.

This LARE example illustrated several points which may have contributed to a climate within which an affordance for Language Awareness could occur. First, knowing one semantic sense of a word did not necessarily lead students to the other senses of a word and could result in confusion. Second, the text analysis where

students in tandem with the instructor and their peers explored the meaning around multiple semantic senses of a word contributed an affordance for Language Awareness. In this situation, the instructor listened and observed students' contributions, and provided support for their language practice. However, the instructor did not, in general, give students the answers. She consistently set up a language puzzle for students to arrive at an affordance for Language Awareness, filling in their understanding through their own exploration and reasoning.

This practice of co-constructing meaning as if one is solving a puzzle was even more evident in LAREs reflecting cross-linguistic awareness, another domain of affordances for metalinguistic awareness. As I mentioned in Chapter 5, students did not tend to use Spanish when participating in LAREs. Although 22 out of 30 students reported speaking Spanish in the home on the surveys, students seldom used Spanish in LAREs unless prompted by their instructor. Yet in personal, aside conversations, I observed students using Spanish or code switching, often whispered within earshot of an adult. Perhaps the English-only instructional milieu of the school constrained students' choice of language use. The instructor, on the other hand, indicated that she wanted them to see their language as "academic" and prompted students to draw on their bilingual resources quite frequently. LAREs reflecting cross-linguistic awareness through instructor initiated participation structures was prevalent in 25% of the LAREs reflecting affordances for metalinguistic awareness. A closer look at the language practices within these LAREs illustrated that while students were able to

translate individual words, they did not readily volunteer cognate relationships unless prompted by the instructor. The following LARE is an example:

> **10/20/2010**
>
> **Mrs. B:** vivid. Sounds like a Latin word. What is it?
>
> **Jafar**: vivir
>
> **Mrs. B**: vivir—living. So it if is alive it must be very (pause) colorful, very lively.

While Jafar made the connection between *vivid* and *vivir,* Mrs. B. further expanded on his contribution by drawing on the semantic connection between *living, colorful* and *lively.*

Again, in the following example, Mrs. B prompted the students to make a link drawing on the students' knowledge of their "Latin" language. Zico volunteered the connection between *content* and *happy*. But Mrs. B elaborated by providing the noun forms — *happiness* and *contentment*.

> **10/21/2010**
>
> **Mrs. B:** Ok, so Latin root. Many of you already speaking a Latin based language may know what content means?
>
> **Zico**: Happy
>
> **Mrs. B:** Ok, happy. So contentment means? (Extended pause with no response) Happiness? Good. Use your bilingual biceps.

In both of these LAREs sequences, not only did the instructor draw out the metalinguistic knowledge of the students but she prompted an affordance for metalingustic awareness of the extended word families, building on the students'

metalinguistic knowledge of their L1 and extending their word schema awareness.

Word schemas are the semantic patterns with which speakers connect words.

Examples of word schemas may be in morphology; for example, words which share

the same prefix, root, or suffix (Nagy & Scott, 2000). Cognates or words which share

etymological origin between languages, may also contribute to word schemas. While

the students themselves may have been aware of the noun forms of content and

happy, the instructor's contributions reinforced this information for them and for

those who may not have made this connection.

In the next example, the instructor prompted students to break down the

morphological parts of *contradict*. Students seemed to arrive at the connection

between languages fairly simply.

10/29/2010

Mrs. B: Let's look at this. *Contradict* If you have a Latin based language, you can probably figure it out. We said that contra means what? Contra means ?

Ss: against

Mrs. B: ahah, and decir means? (pause—students not responding. Instructor offers . . .) To say? So to say something against someone is?

Riccardo: argue

Mrs. B: Yes, if you have two languages, use your bilingual muscles to figure it out. Use it as a tool. You can figure out more than the kid who doesn't have that tool.

Note that in the LAREs which drew on cross-linguistic awareness, the instructor

frequently supported students in making connections between words and encouraged

students to draw on their own strengths to observe the connections between

languages, as is illustrated in the following example. Here the LARE had the potential

to support students' understanding of both English academic register and

corresponding Spanish academic register. In the following example, the word which

Mrs. B. is explaining in English exists in an academic register of Spanish as well.

However, the students do not initially recognize it.

10/27/2011

Mrs. B: So *primordial* has to do with something which has been around since the earliest times. (Writing *primordial* on the SMARTboard and reading at the same time) Since earliest times or days, since the dawn of time. Like the first morning that ever existed on earth. That would be what, everyone? What is our word? Let's say it together . . . (class)

Zico & Marco: Primordial (They pronounce it slowly with Mrs. B)

Mrs. B: And you know you can use the first part (Using the SMARTboard high lighting feature, she highlights *primo*) You Spanish speakers, you guys have an advantage. Use those bilingual biceps. What is the Latin root?

Zico: Ohhh, (said with falling intonation like he has just had an epiphany) primo!

Me: There you go.

Mrs. B: Oh, yes primo, sounds like you got it. "*Primero*" So what does that mean?

Ss: one

Mrs. B: So one or the first (pause) what guys? The first . . . (pause)?

Zico: primo

(The students are not getting her hint. She makes another attempt . . .)

Mrs. B: Sounds familiar, huh? Ok. So even if the second part of the word is not

---

> familiar the first part has something to do with . . . . (says it in a meditative way as if trying to figure it out too.) first, since the beginning of time.
>
> **Zico**: primo
>
> **Zico** : Since the first day!

As the instructor broke down the morphemes which are cognates in Spanish, the students initiated the translation after some exploration. Again, this LARE illustrated how an affordance for Language Awareness could occur in which students were prompted to stretch and draw on their bilingual abilities, although they did not initiate these connections themselves.

Lubliner and Hiebert (2008) suggest that cognates are more transparent in orthography than phonology (in other words students in their study could identify cognate relationships between languages in written words more easily than in the pronunciation of related cognates). The LAREs data demonstrated that written cognates were not always easier to identify than spoken. In the following example, Zico who drew on affordances for cross-linguistic awareness more frequently than other students, required a lot of scaffolding to recognize a word that he clearly knew. For Zico, the frequent queries provided by the instructor to "flex your bilingual biceps" were an opportunity for him to contribute both to his own knowledge and also provide an affordance for Language Awareness for the other students in class, as the following example demonstrates:

> **11/2/2010**
>
> **Mrs. B:** You (Jafar) are going to tell me what this other word meant. (Reading the text which is projected on the SMARTboard as the students read along.) "*Her*

> *warm embrace,* (ss: echoing her pronunciation 'embrace') *fragrance of expensive perfume, took me by surprise.*" Ah-ha. So you have a word in Spanish that is similar? You have a cognate (hinting).
>
> **Zico**: Embrace? (repeating the word after Mrs. B. with a puzzled tone)
>
> **Mrs. B:** Because when you sign a letter, or when I sign a letter anyway, I might say *abrazos,* (diverts attention to classroom management) girls this goes..and gets tacked on to here . . . .(comes back to topic) *abrazos*
>
> **Zico**: ahhhhhh (epiphany) *abrazos*
>
> **Mrs. B:** Ah hah!
>
> **Zico**: no more reading.
>
> **Mrs. B:** No more reading? You tired of reading for today? (laughs)
>
> **Mrs. B:** So, tell me what embrace means?
>
> **Zico**: hug
>
> **Mrs. B**: so lots of great words in here. Some of them are cognates. So some of you have an advantage if you have a Latin based language.

The hint providing a context for *abrazos* was used to create an affordance in which Zico was able to unlock the connection between the cognates. Furthermore, Zico's desire to quit for the day illustrated that these deep text analyses while providing affordances for Language Awareness may sometimes have been taxing on the students. Nevertheless, Mrs. B. pushed him further to share his discovery with the class.

In summary, the LAREs reflecting affordances for metalinguistic awareness illustrated three key practices which contributed to Affordances for Language Awareness:

1. A *flood of definitions* in a range of registers contributed by the students and their instructor provided several options for exploring a range of definitions and opportunities to extend word schemas for students.

2. Students explored a range of understanding around polysemy which provided the opportunity to examine nuances and details which students may not have noticed independently. As noted in Boers's (2011) investigation of polysemy, the range of usage is quite complicated and may be confusing for students. The LAREs data illustrated the value of exploring polysemy in text, as discussions provided opportunities to assess students' understanding, explicitly explore the range of possible meanings, and notice contextual usages. Additionally, as evident in their participation in exchanges containing LAREs, students were willing to explore more formal registers and contribute their interpretations, though they often needed assistance from peers and their instructor.

3. LAREs data showed that students participated in co-constructing meaning between English and Spanish cognates especially when the instructor provided contextual hints and meaningful links.

I now turn to a discussion of LAREs reflecting affordances for analeptic awareness.

Affordances for Analeptic Awareness

LAREs reflecting affordances for analeptic awareness were the second largest data category. These were defined as practices involving shared understanding, also known as "analeptic discourse" (van Lier, 2004). Van Lier describes analeptic discourse as relying on intersubjectivity or shared experiences between interlocutors. LAREs reflecting affordances for analeptic awareness in this study are practices in which students reference a shared understanding. The students and their teacher contributed to 93% of the LAREs which provided affordances for analeptic awareness. The following LARE provides an example of this type of discussion. Romina asked about the meaning of the word *façade*. While the instructor could have simply said, "The outside of a building", she did not. Instead, she prompted students to puzzle through the different pieces of information available on this word, and draw on analeptic discourse.

11/1/2011

Mrs. B: Ok curiosity, if you have curiosity you want to know.

Romina: (questioning) [fased]?

Mrs. B (pronouncing the word): façade, let me zoom in on it. It looks like it should be fasade [fasayd], you are right. If there is an 'e' at the end it should be "ay". You are right. However, what is this? (pause) You know what it is? (pause) It is from French. It is a c with a little tail on it and it is called a Cedilla. In French this is pronounced like an . . .

Zico: s

Mrs. B: So if I say façade what does this part sound like?

Ss: face

Mrs. B: oh, the face of a building. What is the face of a building?

Ss: and Zico loudly: the front

Mrs. B: The front of a building (in a tone like she just figured it out.) What does the façade of Sandy shores Middle school look like?

Romina: It is plain.

Ss: It is beige.

Jafar: It is dirty.

Mrs. B: Oh, you think it is dirty? Ok. So the façade. So what do you call a painting on the outside of a building?

Ss: Mural

Mrs. B: (nods to students) ok, This is a façade (pointing to the image on the screen). It is the front of a building ok.

The analeptic discourse sequence began when Mrs. B asked students to identify anything about which they were curious, thereby locating the discussion within an intersubjective domain. In other words, the students initiated the discussion with their own curiosity about the language of the text. As a result, the students brought the instructor into their domain of understanding. For example, Romina asked about the word *façade.* The instructor began by zooming in on the language when she asked the students to consider available information with which they might draw a connection to the word facade. First, they explored the graphemic features and the uniqueness of the spelling, pointing out the cedilla and its linguistic origin. Then they explored the

morphological features, thinking through the familiar meaningful morphological unit "face" within the word. They then considered conceptual analepsis, by visualizing the face of a building and drawing a comparison to the façade of their school. Finally, they compared a façade to a mural.

In another example of LAREs reflecting an affordance for analeptic awareness, the students were unfamiliar with the word *synagogue*. This is not surprising given the children's religious backgrounds and the fact that the closest synagogues are more than two towns away. The instructor, who was aware of the children's experiences with religion, focused the students' attention and signaled the students to notice the clues which their experiential knowledge might support:

11/16/2011

Nikko: (sounding out struggling) synagogue

Mrs. B: yes, it says (reading) *before the Nazi's the children lived like this*. (comment) They show you the schools here. (pointing to the picture. Then she reads again) *and prayed in synagogues like this*. (She stops and looks at the students).. so even if you don't know what a synagogue is, what <u>clues</u> are there to help you figure it out?

Jafar: pray

Ss: pray

Mrs. B: Thank you for not shouting it out. Kelly had her hand up

Kelly: It says they went to church and they . . .

Mrs. B: Well, it doesn't say they went to church but how do you know?

Maria: The word pray

> **Kelly**: the word pray
>
> **Mrs. B:** The word *pray* is a context clue. So it must be something like a church. A church is where you pray in the Christian religion. This is not Christian this is . . . (pause)
>
> **Ss**: Jewish
>
> **Mrs. B**: Judaism. So they don't call it a church they call it a (pause)
>
> **Ss**: synagogue
>
> **Mrs. B:** synagogue. So if that is a new word for you like it is for most of us, where would you put it?
>
> **Kelly**: L (i.e. in the Learned column of the KWL chart)
>
> **Mrs. B:** Something under L and I should see most of you writing that because when you came in this morning that was not part of what you already knew. Has anybody heard that word before? Ok so a couple people have heard that word. Sometimes they call it temple as well. Now we have a very good idea that it must be someplace they (pause)
>
> **Ss**: pray

Because Mrs. B knew that the dominant religion in the community is Christianity, she was able to use the analeptic shared understanding of her students to prompt them to arrive at the conclusion that the context clue "pray" must be something "like a church". However, since the class had just finished reading the play *The Secret Annex* about Anne Frank, she knew that the children understood that Anne had a different religion and that Anne's family was persecuted because of their religion. Although Judaism was not a familiar religion to students, they arrive at an affordance for Language Awareness through their shared understanding of *The Secret Annex* by answering that a synagogue must be associated with being "Jewish." Mrs. B. interceded by providing the abstract noun form "Judaism." By co-constructing

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meaning and drawing on analeptic discourse, students engaged in a rich analeptic discourse practice allowing for affordances for Language Awareness exploring several evidential clues.

LAREs indicating analeptic discourse were not always initiated by the instructor. In fact, the students often provided the cues to stimulate affordances for Language Awareness, as in the following LARE in which Miguel was helped by his classmates. Miguel had emigrated from South America in sixth grade and had less developed English; nevertheless, he came to class regularly but appeared less comfortable answering questions out loud when it was his turn to participate. Mrs. B asked him to stand up and elicited the class's help:

10/20/2010

Mrs. B.: Miguel, can you stand up. Can somebody else help Miguel out? What do we already know? Melissa?

Melissa: She escaped.

Mrs. B: Esteban, can you add to that?

Esteban: She escaped and helped other people.

Mrs. B: Ok, so that was a part of our concept of an Underground Railroad. What word did we use for that?

Jafar: Conductor.

Mrs. B: Nice.

Mrs. B.: So Miguel, What can you say about it? One thing?

Miguel: She escaped.

Mrs. B: Yes, so she escaped not from prison? (echo question) Where did she

---

> escape from?
>
> **Ss** (in chorus): Slavery.
>
> **Mrs. B.:** So can you say that in a complete sentence?
>
> **Riccardo**: Muttering under his breath enunciating for Miguel in a supportive way, "Sla-ver-y"
>
> **Miguel**: She escaped slavery.

The instructor prompted the students to help Miguel through an affordance for analeptic awareness asking, "What do we already know?" Each student contributed retracing their knowledge and building upon the class's shared knowledge while reading the classroom text. When Miguel contributed, "She escaped," Mrs. B queried with the most frequent semantic sense for the verb *escaped* (Fellbaum, 1998)[18], by asking "so she escaped not from prison?" The students drew on their prior knowledge and corrected her, "slavery". Riccardo tried to assist Miguel, enunciating the answer. Garnering students' support through analeptic discourse assisted Miguel in getting over the hurdle of answering publicly. This LARE reflected an affordance for Language Awareness by drawing on analepsis regarding the class's jointly constructed schema around the reading on the Underground Railroad.

In a final example, the class recounted the previous day's activity through analeptic discourse but in the process the instructor discovered that the students did not know the term, *compass rose*. Using analeptic discourse for another purpose, they

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[18] I determined ranking of semantic sense for *escaped* using the WordNet program, a corpus linguistics program developed by the Princeton computational linguist Christine Felbaum.

explored the concept of a compass rose, as a gauge to orient their map of Europe but also as a measure to orient any map by locating directions within California.

11/16/2011

Mrs B.: On our map we learned that . . . hmm . . . but look at all the ones they are fighting against? On our map we talked about this a little bit yesterday. What did we add to our map yesterday?

Nikko: We added Germany, France, Holland, the Netherlands, Europe

Mrs B.: Ok, so yesterday we looked at . . . I think we forgot to put a compass rose, and Up is always what, guys? It looks like up. So up is (pause) north and you can finish that up. You know the opposite of north is . . . (pause)

Kelly: West

Mrs B.: South, north and south. And off to the left is . . . (pause)

Jafar: West

Mrs B.: let's see California is on the (pause)

Maria: West

Mrs B.: Ok, California is on the west coast and opposite the east coast. So as long as you have north you can work out what the other directions are. I put little wiggly lines here because . . . (pause) come on guys?

Nikko: water

Jafar: water

I observed that the instructor appeared a little surprised when the students did not know the four cardinal directions which defined the compass rose. However, she did not reveal her surprise to the students. Instead, she respectfully drew on co-constructed analeptic discourse to elicit the names of the directions from the students so that they could construct the meaning for themselves. First, she framed the

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discussion with known concepts, guiding the students to be successful in completing the map, though she provided many of the cardinal directions for them. Her tone while asking students for a link to each direction was very positive, using language such as "you know" with rising intonation and "California is on the . . . (pause)", providing hints. Her final statement, "So as long as you have north you can work out what the other directions are", conveyed the idea that they can do this, themselves, by applying the knowledge they already possessed. This particular LARE exemplified much of the general tone she regularly communicated to students. Through pauses and hints, the processes of gaining affordances for Language Awareness allowed students to examine the symbolic meaning of a *compass rose.*

In summary, student participation within LAREs reflecting affordances for analeptic awareness indicated that the students in tandem with the instructor co-constructed concepts which provided opportunities for Language Awareness. When engaging in these LAREs, participants focused on a common experience often characterized by the instructor drawing on her knowledge of the students' experience. In other instances, these LAREs were characterized by drawing on shared classroom experience to support an affordance which helped students support one another in coming to an affordance for language awareness. In these ways, affordances for analeptic awareness provided the semiotic potential to promote Language Awareness. In the next section, I address affordances for proleptic awareness.

Affordances for Proleptic Awareness

LAREs reflecting affordances for proleptic awareness were less common in the data. The infrequency of proleptic discourse was not surprising. Prolepsis "involves leaving things out and inviting the speaker to step into the enlarged common space" (van Lier, 1996, p 161). Because proleptic discourse involves ellipsis, it requires that the listener/reader fill in the ellipted space, often with implied meaning. Constructing the intended, implied meaning may require topic-related background knowledge which children may not have experienced yet (Clark, 2003), or cultural knowledge which the listener/reader must fill in to make meaning of the ellipted discourse. For this reason, affordances for proleptic awareness are perhaps the most difficult, especially for children who may not have the shared culture, language, or knowledge background of a speaker or author of a text.

LAREs reflecting affordances for proleptic awareness showed evidence of students making inferences. Within my data, the most common way in which students engaged in the proleptic discourse was through pauses, wh-questions or echo questions. For example, in the following LARE, the instructor stopped and paraphrased what the students had just read. Riccardo jumped in and finished Mrs. B's sentence:

> **10/19/2010**
>
> **Mrs. B:** Harriet Tubman, as <u>we</u> know, she was born into slavery. From the time she was little, it turns out she was determined to get away from there. She tried a couple times when she was little and when she was an adult. It said that she was a slave but it turns out she was married to a freed man, they call him a freeman. It said, "in early October Harriet wanted to escape North. She wanted to take John her- her (pause)
>
> **Riccardo**: "husband"
>
> **Mrs. B:** Yeah, her husband but he wouldn't go. She walked out the gate and she kept on going.

While pauses are a common technique in the pedagogy of ESL teachers to allow for language learner processing time (Blau, 1990), the practice of pausing in my LAREs data appeared to have a different purpose. I identified two patterns in LAREs of this type. The first were occasions when students finished the instructor's sentences when she paused while they read out loud as a class. Although finishing an instructor's sentence while reading together would not constitute proleptic discourse, the practice of finishing the instructor's sentences became routine. Eventually, whether the instructor's pauses were a result of her pausing to determine who was with her while reading, pausing because she was determining whether the class was following her explanation, or pausing simply to collect her thoughts, students' practice of finishing the instructor's sentences became routine. During this routine practice, the second pattern in which affordances for proleptic awareness emerged. In this case, Mrs. B's pauses opened spaced for students to make inferences.

The following LAREs data illustrate an affordance for proleptic awareness in the teacher's attempt to review a line from the text. Here the instructor began by reading from a passage, and then paraphrased the idea of the passage, pausing for the students to finish her sentence:

10/19/2010

Mrs. B. repeating the line from the text: *born on the wind*. (commenting to students) You can barely hear it but it was . . . (pause)

Ss: soft.

The student finished her sentence with "soft," providing a synonym for the metaphor which the text, "born on the wind", implied. The instructor had given a little hint, "you barely hear it but it was . . . " leaving space for the students to step in and finish the utterance.

The teacher opened space for students to explore understanding in other instances of LAREs reflecting affordances for proleptic awareness as well. In the following, the class and teacher discussed the morning advisory reading on bullying.

11/3/2011

Mrs. B: (discussing the meaning of *imperfections*) . . . .meaning not perfect. We all have imperfections or flaws and that is what *this kind of bully preys on* (quoting the text and then clarifying . . .)This kind of *prey* sounds like what you might do in a church or a synagogue but **Romina**, say your answer in a sentence---This kind of prey is . . . .

Riccardo: This kind of prey is animals.

Mrs. B: Yes, it has something to do with animals. Kelly?

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> **Kelly**: Looking for animals.
>
> **Mrs. B:** Yes, looking for or hunting animals. What is the prey for cats?
>
> **Ss**: mice
>
> **Mrs. B:** mice or birds, how about lions?
>
> **Ss**: deer
>
> **Zico**: Humans

Zico follows Mrs. B's inference linking *prey* to humans, bringing the conversation full circle back to the origin of the discussion, i.e. that this kind of bully preyed on humans. This LARE category demonstrated how the exploration of possible meanings within the LAREs reflecting affordances for proleptic awareness provided a scaffold for students to tap into the implied meaning of the text. While Riccardo defined this type of *prey* as having to do with animals, and some of the other students were able to follow Mrs. B's clues by answering, *the prey for cats* and *lions,* Zico brought the conversation back to the topic of bullies preying on humans. This oral exploration provided the opportunity for all students to benefit from this affordance either as active contributors or listeners of the exchange.

In some LAREs reflecting affordances for proleptic awareness, the students arrived at an alternate inference which may not have exactly fit the teacher's intention. In the following example, Maria, made an "incorrect" inference and had difficulty with the implication:

> **10/29/2011** (The students are listening to the audio CD from "A Shot at it" which begins with code switching. The author mentions *codfish or bakala*.)
>
> **Mrs. B:** A codfish, even if you hadn't heard it before you can guess it is a kind of . . . (pause)
>
> **Maria**: Saying
>
> **Mrs. B**: No, a kind of fish? And it is salty . . . (pause)
>
> **Niko**: from the ocean.

Maria's answer, that a *codfish* was "a saying" demonstrates that she came to an alternate conclusion. Niko responded to Mrs. B's hints, by filling in "from the ocean". Although Niko is correct, the hint "it is salty" refers to the preservation process of the fish, which was not discussed. These examples illustrated that the practice of finishing an instructor's sentence could provide opportunities for students to step into the proleptic space. However, these examples also show situations where the students may approximate but not move into the exact proleptic space to identify the inference within a text.

Another pattern of practices supporting affordances for proleptic awareness occurred in situations where the instructor would admit her own ignorance and share her curiosity, engaging students in her own effort to gain an affordance for proleptic awareness. The following LARE exchange included a discussion about the sound of the whippoorwill's call, a bird call used as a code to signify the presence of the Underground Railroad passengers. Mrs. B had been asking students to circle the key vocabulary but she stopped to discuss this bird, which was not a local species with which she or the students had experience:

In this example, the instructor admitted that she did not know and had guessed that it was a kind of animal. The students chimed in that it was a bird. Mrs. B related that she learned a little about the whippoorwill from Mr. H, a visiting community member. In this LARE, there was a co-construction of knowledge in which the instructor exhibited her own ignorance. Sharing how she had gained some of the ellipted information, together she and the students relied on the audio CD example to gain the pronunciation of the word "whippoorwill" and learn the sound the bird makes. The students and the instructor entered into the affordance for proleptic awareness together trying to fill-in the implied information provided by the author of the text. Though the instructor had taught this text before and was familiar with the situational context of the term, she admitted to the children, "Yeah, we don't have

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them around here. I'm not familiar with it." In this case, both the instructor and the

students shared the potential affordance for proleptic awareness.

Noticing, questioning and discussing proleptic discourse or the ellipted

information was also a practice which contributed to affordances for proleptic

awareness. In the following example, the instructor praised Riccardo for asking

questions and sharing his curiosity with the class:

10/18/2010

Mrs. B: (Showing the pictures, Riccardo starts asking questions. Mrs B looks to class and says.): Riccardo is asking questions. That is what I'd hoped you'd do. Good. Where do the questions go?

Riccardo: In the question box (referring to the KWL chart).

 Mrs. **B:** Very nice, Riccardo! So if you know something, I want you to write it. If you are one of the kids that already knows quite a bit, let's see! (i.e., Let's find out.) Then write it down. If you know a little and want to know a little, you are like most of us. I have studied this 10 or 20 times, and every time I study it, I learn something new and there are more things I want to know.

Positioning herself with the students, "If you know a little and want to know a little,

you are like most of us." She then shared her own experience, "I have studied this 10

or 20 times, and every time I study it, I learn something new and there are more

things I want to know." Drawing students into her own curiosity, she opened up the

space which created affordances for exploring the proleptic discourse encountered in

the text.

Noticing, questioning, and discussing became routine practices where students

were invited to explore incongruences in their understanding. In the following LARE,

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students discussed an observation made while watching a film on the life of Anne

Frank:

> **11/8/2011**
>
> **Riccardo:** Why isn't Anne wearing her Jewish star?
>
> **Mrs. B:** uhhhh . . . let's see. They are indoors. Good question. Well I think the rules are . . . you have to wear it when you go outside and they are inside at the party.
>
> **Riccardo**: Hello (character's name) is wearing it.
>
> **Lucca**: He was outside and just came in
>
> **Jafar**: Yeah
>
> **Mrs. B.:** Good question. Very observant.

In this LARE, Riccardo has made an observation about the mandate for Jews in

Holland under Nazi occupation during World War II to wear the yellow Star of David

symbol. In constructing meaning around this observation, the boys considered the

social boundaries and social significance of wearing sign of the yellow Star of David.

This data exemplified practices which may create an affordance for proleptic

awareness as students notice, question and discuss their understanding.

In the following LARE, an affordance for proleptic awareness was created as

the instructor brought students' attention to the metaphoric use of the verb *sopped* in

the short story "Mrs. Flowers" by Maya Angelou:

> **10/26/2010**
>
> **Mrs. B:** So she says *I sopped around the house for a year like an old biscuit, dirty and inedible.* So if a biscuit is old and dirty, do you want to eat it?
>
> **Zico**: Yes

Ss: No

Mrs. B: So inedible means not . . . (Jamal had already shared with the class that prefix *in-* meant not.)

Ss: Dirty

Mrs. B: No, do you want to eat an old biscuit? So inedible means, NOT EDIBLE. You don't want to EAT it. And like plastic fruit, is it edible? No, not for eating. It is not EDIBLE. It is Inedible. That is what she is comparing herself to, a dirty old biscuit. And a biscuit, what do you do with it? Do you know what soaking up the gravy means?

Romina: sop.

Mrs. B: Yeah, sop. So I've never heard it used like this before, I'd never heard it like this before, I sopped around the house. I guess she is saying, like after you soak your biscuit in gravy. Then your biscuit is all kind of heavy. (pause)

Kelly: She is sad.

Mrs. B: Yes, exactly. She feels heavy and (pause)

Ss: sad

Mrs. B: I've never heard of someone sopping around the house. She is playing with language. So instead of circling the word, I would underline it. Usually you would use it to sop up gravy. But she said, *I sopped around the house* here. As you said, it shows she is sad.. .so Kelly . . . .You can tell that she is sad. Like body language.

In the discussion of the metaphor, Kelly provides the affordance for Language Awareness that *sopped,* rather than meaning to soak up liquid, was reflecting the heaviness of a biscuit. A soaking heavy biscuit metaphorically captured the sadness that Maya Angelou was expressing. As I have demonstrated, the practice of students filling in the space of the instructor's pauses lead to the routine of making inferences about implied meaning. In this case, an affordance for proleptic awareness occured as

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Kelly and the other students considered the metaphoric use of the word *sopped* in the context of the narrative.

Finally, LAREs reflecting affordances for proleptic awareness also provided opportunities to build on language and expand ideas. In this LARE, the students discussed characters in the text.

10/19/2011

Mrs. B: So over here I'm going to write, "I can infer" means what we can tell about the character. "I can infer that she was . . . " (pause)

Jafar: Brave.

Mrs. B: Yes, and since she went alone. I'm going to say she was brave and she was independent. She wanted her husband to go with her, but she didn't wait for him to change his mind, she just went. It doesn't say she was independent but I can infer by her actions her character.

Here the instructor was modeling for the students how to build a character sketch through the inferred meaning in the text. She built on Jafar's contribution to embellish on the character analysis by adding the other qualities which the class had experienced within the reading and modeling how she arrived at this conclusion. By connecting the evidence in the text which exemplified the characteristics of Harriet Tubman, they co-constructed the information through *proleptic discourse.*

In summary, LAREs reflecting affordances for proleptic awareness were not frequent in my data. However, Mrs. B.'s practice of pausing while reading and talking created space in which students revealed their curiosity. This routine practice

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enabled children to enter this shared learning space when they finished instructor

sentences and noticed, questioned and discussed implied meanings.

Affordances for Awareness of Register Shifts

I define LAREs reflecting affordances for awareness of register shifts as

conversations where interlocutors attempted to shift register for the purpose of

shifting social purposes. Register is defined, following Biber & Vásquez (2008), as

"a cover term to refer to a language variety that is defined by [the] situational

characteristics and communicative purposes" (p. 536) of the users. Many of these

discussions reflect the influence the outside consultant had on the teacher's practice.

The instructor had participated in a series of trainings with the consultant which

emphasized the importance of oral language development with some attention to

instruction focused on what the consultant called "language functions." For example,

functions such as "Expressing an opinion" and "Acknowledging [others] ideas" were

terms the consultant used that Ms. B used in the classroom. In addition, following the

methods of this consultant, Ms. B made a distinction between "Casual Conversational

English" and "Formal Spoken English". In contrast with "Casual Conversational

English," "Formal Spoken English" was characterized by "more explicit" or "fancy"

words and answering questions in "complete sentences." The effect of this training

was evident in the instructional practices.

Mrs. B had made an effort to implement the consultant's recommendations by

providing students with a bank of sentence frames for various language functions on a

flip chart. One sheet focused on various ways of asking for clarification, and another for acknowledging and building on another student's contribution. In following the consultant's recommendation to track student participation, Ms. B. also used *equity cards* or a computerized random name selector to ensure all students participated equally in the class discussions.

The following LARE providing affordances for awareness of register shifts demonstrated the practice of shifting to a more formal register and students supporting each other in their effort. Mrs. B. chimed in when necessary offering "wings" (a reward given reflecting the school mascot) for contributions and providing additional motivation:

11/2/2010

(**Mrs. B**. asks students to listen to each other and restate what the person has said before him/her as they recount the story they had read in review for an exam.)

Riccardo: They both moved to different places.

Mrs. B.: Jema, first repeat what Riccardo said and add to it. Do you need some help? (pause)

Jema: (mumbles—inaudible to mic)

Mrs. B.: I'm hearing it but I don't think the people in the back did.

Paola: I didn't hear it.

Jema: They are both girls

Paola: She said they are both girls . . . and they (inaudible)

Jafar: They have a mentor that guides them..

Mrs. B.: Jafar wings for you, Mariam, can you talk about a difference?

Mariam: (pause)

Mrs. B.: Want some help? Ok, you stand up and how about some help from Romina

Romina: Esmeralda moved out from Brooklyn

Mrs. B.: She wants to . . . so you want to make a contrast. Tell us something different between the two girls using "but or however".

Romina: and Esmeralda is from Puerto Rico.

Mrs. B.: ok, good. But you used the word 'and" can you use a word to show contrast like 'but'. Say it with 'but'.

Romina: Esmeralda is from Puerto Rico but Margarite is from the South.

Mrs. B: good. And you can use some of this fancy language for a plus. (directing students to flip chart with alternate sentence frames)

You can say, Romina *indicated that . . .*   or Romina *pointed out that . . .*

Jema: Esmeralda could be . . .

Mrs. B: Did you hear that Josephina? (pause) Well, you are looking out the window. Who can help her?

Armando: She just said what I was I going to say.

Mrs. B: Ok, how could you say that using one of these fancy words?

Armando: My idea is similar to Jema's

Mrs. B: very nice. Wings for Armando.

Yolanda: Margarita got to choose a poem; however, Esmeralda had to recite what they gave her.

Mrs. B: You get a plus on here and wings because she used what everybody?

Ss: however

Mrs. B: Jafar?

> **Jafar**: Margarite doesn't want to talk, however Esmeralda does.
>
> **Mrs. B :** Zico? Do you have something different?
>
> **Zico**: Margarita doesn't want to talk; however, Esmeralda is bilingual.
>
> **Mrs. B:** Wings for you, Zico, but Jafar, is it that she doesn't know how to talk. Can you give us a detail Jafar? She refused to speak or she wasn't able to? Which was it? Josephina can you give us an answer now?
>
> **Josephina**: Margarita is from the South, and Esmeralda is from Puerto Rico.
>
> **Mrs. B:** Ok good. You did a contrast. Though. What word does she need, Romina?
>
> **Romina**: but
>
> **Mrs. B:** Ok, give it to us again with but or however.
>
> **Josephina:** Margarita is from the South, but Esmeralda is from Puerto Rico.

Within this LARE type, the students contributed their understanding of the comparison between two texts but shifted the register of their responses to the sentence frames provided by the district consultant which were on the flipchart. The students referred to the sentence frame chart to express the language function "Acknowledging [others] ideas" while using what the consultant identified as "Formal Spoken English". The task demanded two levels of difficulty. First, students must attend to the truth value of the statement while comparing and contrasting the texts they had read, and second they must structure the sentence in a more formal register. While students were able to provide details about the texts, some students made a couple of attempts to reframe their responses using the more formal language. For example, Jafar produced the more formal language frame but his answer, "Margarite doesn't want to talk, however Esmeralda does" did not attend the truth

value of the statement. Zico's contribution, "Margarita doesn't want to talk; however, Esmeralda is bilingual" achieved the truth value of the statement in which Esmeralda spoke in two languages. Furthermore, students needed to make several repeated tries, as evidenced by Josephina, who was unable to answer when she was first called upon but was successful after a second chance with the help of Romina, "Margarita is from the South, but Esmeralda is from Puerto Rico." This LARE illustrated the complexity within this dialog where students discussed comparison and contrast truth values from their reading presented in a formal spoken English register.

During trainings, the consultant encouraged teachers to use language in ways that she portrayed as "academic". These included encouraging students to follow a discussion and respond to a request for information either by indicating agreement with a prior student's answer or offering a new idea. Agreeing with or acknowledging another student's answer was sometimes a means of contributing to classroom activities for students who would otherwise not volunteer to participate in a discussion. For the students who did not volunteer, the sentence frames facilitated their participation in class discussions. One such example occurred on a day when Jose reentered class after a prolonged absence and was unfamiliar with the class's activities. The sentence frame pattern in which students contributed by agreeing or disagreeing with a classmate's answer allowed Jose to contribute an answer supported by the instructor.

10/18/2010
Mrs. B: Yes. (Calls on another student.) Jose? (Directs her attention to the class.)

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> Jose has something to contribute but his classmates need to pay attention and Jose, can you speak up a little? (He speaks.) I can't hear you sweetie. Would you like to stand up?
>
> [Student answers but is inaudible to my mic]
>
> **Mrs. B.** Ok, good. So you had a similar question to Jafar. So you can say, "My question is similar to Jafar's question." If you like.

The response, "My question is similar to . . . " was one of the sentence frames provided by the consultant who defined it as "Formal Conversational English". I identified the above example as a LARE reflecting affordances for awareness of register shifts because Mrs. B prompted Jose to make a register shift.

LAREs categorized as affordances for awareness of register shifts also included occasions when the teacher requested that students use whole or complete sentences. For most students, their preference was to provide single word contributions which are more typical of an informal oral personal communication mode. This activity reflected the influence of the district consultant, whose curriculum included a script for teachers to elicit students to use sentences even though speaking in complete sentences is not typical of oral language usage, even for academic tasks (McWhorter, 2013). By requesting students to produce responses in complete sentences, the students' oral language shifted toward written-like language (Biber & Vásquez, 2008)[19].

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[19] The question of whether enforcing a written mode of communication in students' oral language helps students engage in academic tasks can be challenged; in fact, students' "language of ideas" using less formal English is often crucial for engaging in academic tasks and can be

In the following example, the students and instructor co-constructed a character description. Riccardo was asked to cast his answer in a "complete sentence".

10/26/2010

Mrs. B: Good! You don't have to write down the whole sentence. Riccardo, Can you say your inference to me in a complete sentence?

Riccardo: I can infer that she is a happy lady.

Riccardo spontaneously drew from his notes and stated his inference in a complete sentence, "I can infer that she is a happy lady."

Although the consultant's approach to defining "Formal Spoken English" as talking in complete sentences may not be consistent with how knowledge is constructed and discussed in academic settings, this approach did demand a register shift and therefore provided a potential affordance for awareness of register shifts. In shifting to complete sentences, students were prompted to focus on features of written text and to use these in the oral descriptions which they gave in class.

Another observation was that students' showed preference for what they perceived to be a more academic register. This observation was evident in the LAREs data as well as in the survey data where students described academic language as having more status (e.g. " . . . Academic language is a higher level" and "It sounds

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subsequently transformed into a more formal "language of display" for particular audiences and purposes (Bunch, 2006).

better"). In the following LARE, the students were in the process of writing a

persuasive letter to the principal, justifying the educational value of watching a film.

Mrs. B began the lesson by modeling the letter format for the students as it was

projected onto the SMARTboard. She elicited sample sentences from the class. As

Mrs. B was writing the word "however" offered by another student, Jafar interjected:

11/23/2010

Jafar: "However" (repeating what another student just offered) That is not a
fancy word.

Mrs. B: "Perhaps" you are concerned that this film is not appropriate?

(Jafar, nods approving 'perhaps' over 'however')

Jafar's emphasis on the need to use a more "fancy word" illustrated his awareness of

the social value of choosing "perhaps" which he perceived as more "fancy" than

"however" for the discourse purpose of writing a persuasive letter to the principal.

Furthermore, he revealed his judgment about what qualified as more "fancy." In this

sense, Jafar's judgment about language appeared to be aligned with students' survey

responses (See Chapter 5) indicating that students believed that academic language

"sounds better" to them or has more social value. While students, such as Jafar,

preferred to use language they perceived to be more "fancy"; at the same time, they

did not always have the facility to use this language independently. Considering that

the intended audience for the letter was the principal and the purpose was to convince

her that watching a film was educational, Jafar would appear to be aiming for a more formal register which "sounds better" to him for this social context.

In summary, LAREs reflecting affordances for awareness of register shifts demonstrated how the instructor supported students in shifting to "formal spoken English" as defined by the professional development consultant. Second, students participating in these LARES often shifted registers when complying with the teachers' request that they produce complete sentences (Biber & Vásquez, 2008). Students also showed a preference for altering their choice of language use to what they perceived to be more "fancy language". Taken together, LAREs data reflecting affordances for awareness of register shifts show how the students in tandem with the instructor and their classmates chose language associated with higher social status. According to the data from the Academic Language survey discussed in Chapter 5, students both understood that the language valued in school had a higher social value and they perceived this register to sound better. In sum, affordances for awareness of register shifts illustrated students exploring register shifts for a variety of social purposes.

In conclusion, the data described in this chapter provided evidence of ways that students gained access to and participated in affordances for Language Awareness through discussions of metalinguistic features of language; through discussions which provided analeptic links to concepts; through opportunities which engaged students in proleptic discourse; and through the activities in which students

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practiced shifts in register. As my analysis illustrates, students engaged in the short stories about Anne Frank, Maya Angelou, and Esmeralda Santiago as a class through reading together and exploring the language of the texts. The thematic multimodal and multisensory resources (e.g., maps, films, pictures, etc.) used to contextualize events described in the texts appear to support students' affordances for Language Awareness. Students participated in the difficult task of reading these grade appropriate texts using a more formal text-based discourse of schooling. While students demonstrated judgments about language choice, they drew heavily on the knowledge base of the instructor as a link connecting the students' language experience to larger world systems as represented by the language of the texts. Though the instructor intervened, I observed that she consistently encouraged all students to participate, she was respectful of their contributions to the conversation, and she acknowledged the relevance of their ideas and personal experiences. Furthermore, she modeled a participation style respectful of one anothers' contributions to class discussions. She also supported the students as they drew on their own language resources. Students also engaged in affordances for Language Awareness as they experimented and adopted different registers.

Addressing my first research question, how are affordances for Language Awareness constructed within the school context, each category of LARE revealed patterns in the way participants constructed LARE. First and foremost, the students in tandem with their instructor co-constructed these affordances for Language Awareness. While affordances for metalinguistic awareness were most prevalent,

affordances for analeptic awareness, affordances for proleptic awareness, and affordances for awareness of register shifts showed the most student participation. By examining the patterns in how the students and instructor constructed affordances for Language Awareness, I noted that students constructed meaning with their instructor in many different ways. They contributed a flood of definitions, alternate definitions in a range of registers, and called attention to polysemy. While some students engaged in cross-linguistic meaning through cognates, the exploration of related cognates were primarily offered by the instructor. One important element within the all of the LAREs would appear to be the routine of reading and contextualizing the narratives in such a way that the discussions about the text provided opportunities to engage in analeptic and proleptic discourse practices. In this way, students engaged in affordances for Language Awareness through shared experiences with the whole class, with some students actively producing language, and others who appeared to be receptively following. Through the support and the encouragement of their instructor and classmates, students also explored meaning in text. Finally, when engaging in affordances for awareness of register shifts, both the teacher and students used language in ways that reflected the influence of the consultant. The qualitative analysis of the LAREs categories illustrates how each subcategory of LARE is enacted. In the next Chapter, I will examine these practices as they relate to the individual case students in this study to examine how each child engaged in a range of practices.

Chapter 8: Case Analyses

Introduction

Having discussed the types of episodes that constituted affordances for Language Awareness in the target classroom in Chapter 7, I now turn to examining the practices of six students in Mrs. B's class. I define practices within this chapter as the semiotic processes used by individual students for arriving at affordances for Language Awareness within a particular class setting. By zeroing in on individual student practices, my aim is to consider the LAREs from the vantage point of the student, in order to understand individual student activity in constructing affordances for Language Awareness in a classroom context. To achieve this goal, I selected six students from Mrs. B's transitional class who had been part of the initial whole class study and arranged to shadow each student for a two week period. Students carried recorders while in Mrs. B's class so that I could capture their classroom participation. I also followed them through their other classes during the day and observed their participation in other classroom settings. I then interviewed each student to consider the practices they believed contributed to their understanding. The data I draw on in this chapter includes the students' participation within the LAREs, examples of the students' written classwork and field note memos of the students' participation in classes throughout their school day. I also considered the interview data in which I inquired about students' own perspectives on their language learning processes and their language practices both in and outside of school.

I approached my analysis by first assembling the data on each student and considering the themes relevant to research question one: How are affordances for Language Awareness constructed within the school context by multi-competent L1/L2 users? The cases in this study provided a vantage point for focusing in depth upon individual students in constructing affordances for Language Awareness. This chapter explores a range of salient themes present in six students' classroom activity. One theme focuses on students' relative participation within the learning community during affordances for Language Awareness. This theme, which I titled affordances for Language Awareness through *language foraging,* illustrates how both Maria and Yahyah constructed affordances for Language Awareness seeking out the informational language they needed through attentive listening, and determined reading. The second theme, which I titled affordances for Language Awareness through *dynamic exchanges,* describes how Riccardo and Zico construct Language Awareness through verbal exchanges with both the instructor and classmates. The third theme, affordances for Language Awareness through *drawing out*, describes how Yasmine and Lucca, in particular, were drawn into affordances for Language Awareness through encouragement within the classroom community. In the next section, I turn to these themes to discuss the students' language practices.

Affordances for Language Awareness Through Foraging

After reviewing the case study data, one theme was particularly evident within the participation practices of both Maria and Yahyah. While both students were very

serious about their classwork, both students actively foraged for opportunities to construct meaning around the language and content in their classes through active listening and determined reading. In examining the LAREs data, both Maria and Yahyah mostly listened to the verbal exchanges within the LAREs data. I will first discuss Maria's case.

Maria. I looked specifically at Maria's participation in the data collected while shadowing her in both the transitional ELA class and the honors class as well as during the time I shadowed her in other classes. I noted that while Maria showed remarkable diligence when engaging in classwork, she was very reserved and did not draw attention to herself in any class. Her verbal exchanges within the LAREs data were few; however, her foraging through keen listening to the LAREs exchanges in class was evident in her classwork. First, Maria was keenly attentive to the directives of her instructors. Second, she also told me in the interview that she enjoyed the discussions around the contextualized presentation of the text projected upon the board because, "I just understand everything".

Closer examination of LAREs classroom data revealed Maria to be particularly aware of the language resources presented to her by the teacher during instructional sequences. Maria had access to opportunities for Language Awareness through co-constructing text with her classmates and the instructor even though she did not offer many contributions to class discussions. Maria's practices are apparent

within the following sequence of episodes where Maria appears to build her understanding through class participation.

The following sequence of LAREs data was collected during the period when Maria remained in the transitional ELA class, as the class read two narratives in sequence, "Mrs. Flowers", by Maya Angelou, and "A Shot at It" by Esmeralda Santiago. The students began the unit on "Mrs. Flowers" on October 28 by listening to the audio recording of the story while they read along from the text projected on the SMARTboard. As they read they made notes in their interactive readers. They discussed at length what Mrs. B described as Angelou's poetic descriptions. In this sequence, Angelou characterizes Mrs. Flowers as the royalty of the African American community and provides a lengthy description of Mrs. Flowers's formal dress style. In the class discussion of Mrs. Flowers, Mrs. B. emphasized Angelou's language characterizing Mrs. Flowers as a highly educated and sophisticated community elder, who had especially influenced the girl in the story.

On November 1, the class began another story, "A Shot at It" by Esmeralda Santiago. In both stories, "Mrs. Flower" and "A Shot at It", the class discussed the theme of older women mentoring younger women. While Maria's voice is not audible during the whole class discussion of either story, she was in attendance during the following LAREs sequence in which the word *impeccable* was presented.

11/1/2011 [Mrs. B. reviews vocabulary with whole class]

Mrs. B: What was the word we said, if you were dressed perfectly you were

dressed . . .

Jafar: impeccably

Mrs. B: So everybody just one more time?

Students: impeccably

Mrs. B: So impeccably is just like perfectly. And what is flawless? Without?

Students: flaws

Mrs. B: yes, perfect

Jafar: (echoes enunciating the flaw) flawless

In another episode, a few days later, evidence that Maria had been listening to the discussion of *impeccably* appears as the class reviewed vocabulary in preparation for their unit exam. In the following LAREs sequence, Maria explained to the class that Mrs. Flowers was a "fancy lady". Mrs. B. asked her to elaborate in a complete sentence which was co-constructed with her classmates:

11/4/2012

Maria: The fancy lady . . .

Mrs. B: (giggling a little) The fancy lady? Can you give me that in a complete sentence? You got it, just a second . . . .

Maria: (struggling a bit with the pronunciation of the word *impeccably*): Esmeralda's mentor was the impeccably lady.

Mrs. B: The impeccably groomed? Like her hair was perfect?

Jafar (offers): Dressed

Mrs B (incorporating Jafar's answer but giving Maria the last say) Or the

> impeccably dressed? So that lady . . . (pause)
>
> **Maria:** That lady was impeccably groomed.
>
> **Mrs. B** (nodding in agreement): Ok

In this LARE sequence, Maria replaced her first effort "fancy lady*"* with

"impeccable" as she drew on Mrs. B. as a resource in building her response, clearly

demonstrating that Maria was receptively aware of the discussion about *impeccable* a

few days earlier.

Again, the word, *impeccably,* later appeared in Maria's chapter test essay.

However, this time she was using it to describe Mrs. Flowers as she responded to a

prompt which asked her to compare the two narratives:

> Maria Chapter test November 7, 2010:
>
> They have things in common but they also have their differences. Mrs. Flowers
> is a impeccably groomed woman, that lives in Arkansas. Mr. Barone is the
> guidance counselor at the school in Brooklyn, New York. She is the richest
> woman in her neighborhood. He helps the students decide what they are going to
> be in the future.

This sequence of events provided evidence of Maria constructing affordances for

Language Awareness around the word *impeccable/impeccably* by *foraging through*

keen listening.   Within the LAREs exchanges, on October 2, the class discussed

impeccable during the study of "A Shot at It".   Though Maria was in class, it was not

clear whether Maria participated in that discussion.   Yet on November 4, she

demonstrated her conceptual awareness of the sophistication of Mrs. Flowers's style of dress, using "fancy lady". When asked to reframe this statement in a complete sentence, she chose to use *impeccable.* Finally, on November 7, she made an analysis of the characters in both "Mrs. Flowers" and "A Shot at It", describing their similarities and differences where she used *impeccable* in her written response. This sequence illustrated Maria's drawing upon the language resources provided by the instructor during a discussion involving the whole class in coming to an affordance for Language Awareness through *foraging through keen listening.*

Maria's attention to the affordances for Language Awareness by *foraging through keen listening* in her environment was also demonstrated during math. In her algebra class, the instructor expected students to talk through the problem using the appropriate math vocabulary. I noted that other students would jump in and correct the speaker if he/she was not explaining the problem with the specific mathematical vocabulary. If no one were able to explain the problem, the instructor would intervene and provide an explanation. Maria attended to these discussions and quietly corrected the other students, "No, five is not the solution for the inequality" drawing on the formal math vocabulary. Maria's quiet correction of her classmates was made before the instructor intervened. She finished the instructor's sentence, appropriating the instructor's exact words. However, Maria replied quietly. Her choice not to volunteer to draw attention to herself was also evident in math challenges where the instructor would pose a question and two students would volunteer to challenge each other in a timed match. While sitting beside Maria, I observed her smiling and watching the

math challenges carefully. Furthermore, I could hear her whisper the solutions often before other students, but she never volunteered to participate in a challenge against another student.

As I have mentioned, I observed Maria was among the first students to follow the directives in her classes, which included the science teacher's directive to set up experiments. I also observed her get up and obtain the interactive reader with the periodic table in order to figure out the problems on a science work sheet. She physically traced her finger over and over a problem, apparently rereading it until she found a solution. I also observed her do the same on a day when her partner in honors English ignored Maria despite Mrs. B's directive that students work together. Rather than interact with her partner who was not on task, Maria reread the questions about the poem. Then she read poem to herself over and over until she began to write. As she explained to me later, rereading was how she figured things out. In fact she stated explicitly, "I use context clues" and "I just read the directions over and over until I understand them". Maria's use of the term *context clues* illustrated her awareness of both the term and the process of use. She had been placed initially in transitional ELA when she should have been in a Core ELA, yet she attended class, maintained a positive attitude, and worked steadfastly in class whether she was given a partner or not. I noted that she conducted her school work independently with little help from classmates. In sum, by comparing evidence within the LAREs data and the case study data, Maria showed that affordances for Language Awareness could be taken up by students even if they were not active verbal participants in the LAREs themselves.

Yahyah. Yahyah, like Maria, also foraged for Language Awareness through keen listening and determined reading. Yahyah, too, was reserved in his classroom participation and often joked with me when I singled him out as having the potential to become a future mayor. Although he did not choose to stand apart from the class, among his friends he was quite talkative and comical. Yahyah's sense of humor also revealed how he foraged for Language Awareness by making connections between everyday events and academic subject matter or content. For example, when I had returned after missing a day, he and the other boys recounted some trouble the class had gotten into. Yahyah said to me, "Mrs. Balboa got mad at the class! Mrs. Balboa was on fire! Her red hair was a flame! (laughs) That's a metaphor!" Yahyah demonstrated foraging for Language Awareness through keen listening in his appropriation of the conceptual understanding and application of the word *metaphor* which had been a focal point in the curriculum of the literature anthology two months prior. As I was the intended audience of this discourse, Yahyah appeared to be demonstrating somewhat ironically that he was referring to the class discussions of metaphor.

Data from Yahyah's classwork also showed that he drew on affordances for Language Awareness through foraging information while reading during the activities around the district writing assessment. On January 25, the class took a district writing assessment in which students were asked to read and retell a story. The story used for the assessment was *The Ransom of Red Chief*, written by O. Henry in 1907. Before Mrs. B. introduced the assessment, she reviewed with the class the term *irony*, which

students had studied in December within the context of the film and text about Anne Frank. At that time, the students were coming to class with many examples of irony. Therefore, before reading the O. Henry text during the January assessment, Mrs. B. drew on an affordance for analeptic discourse by making a connection with their prior exploration of irony. She explained that the author, O. Henry, was famous for stories with "a twist," suggesting that they might look for or expect irony in this story. Then without assistance, the students read the story which is written in dialect, using archaic terminology. For example, the thieves describe themselves as having "a moment of temporary mental apparition" and the setting is described as "There was a town down there, as flat as a flannel-cake[20], and called Summit, of course. It contained inhabitants of as undeleterious and self-satisfied a class of peasantry as ever clustered around a Maypole" (Henry, 1907, para. 2). Mrs. B. had remarked to me before administering the assessment that she believed this archaic language would be very challenging for the students. However, Yahyah's written response to the story shows his foraging through determined reading in the first draft of the response to literature:

> In the story The Ransom of Red Chief, the character Bill Driscoll had an idea of kidnapping. They all said that they will get Ebenezer Dorset to kidnap. First they asked the little kid If he would like a bag of candy and a nice ride. Then they told the kid they were playing a game called Indian, Old Hank, was the Trapper. After

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[20] A "flannel-cake" is dialect for a pancake.

> that Sam sended a letter to Summit. The man that came to deliver the mail on his bike gave letter to them but at the end Ebenezer, tells them to bring Johnny back and pay two - hundred and fifty dollars, and they should come at night for the neighbors believe that he is lost.

Yahyah's comprehension of this narrative, which used archaic language and was set over a hundred years ago, was remarkably accurate. While Yahyah had some trouble in the first draft recognizing that Summit was the name of a town and also who was to pay the money to whom, his response represented considerable comprehension. He even noted the irony that the kidnappers must pay the father the money so that the father would accept Johnny back. His comprehension showed considerable sophistication as only a few other students in the class were able to notice the "twist" in the story. Clearly, Yahyah was receptively foraging and paying attention to Mrs. B's clue to look for the irony in the story as evidenced by his written response.

Furthermore, the following text illustrates Yahyah's corrections to the second draft of his essay. This revision showed the choices he made when revising the essay after the class discussion and further demonstrated foraging by his choices in revising his essay as follows:

> In the story The Ransom of Red Chief, the character Bill Driscoll had an idea of kidnapping. They all said that they will ~~get~~ **kidnap** Ebenezer Dorset**s son** ~~to kidnap~~. First they asked the little kid If he would like a bag of candy and a nice ride. Then they told the kid they were playing a game called Indian, Old Hank,

was the Trapper. After that Sam sended a letter to Summit, **the city where the boy is from.** The man that came to deliver the mail on his bike gave **Ebenezer the** letter to them. ~~but~~ **A**t the end Ebenezer, tells them to bring Johnny back and pay **Ebenezer, dad** two - hundred and fifty dollars, and they should come at night for the neighbors believe that he is lost, **because the neighbors are happy that he's gone and they would do something to someone that brings him back.**

In this second draft, Yahyah demonstrated his attendance to foraging after discussing the story with the class in his revision. This second draft reflects his deeper understanding of the text as well as his preference for communicating his understanding through the use of a more formal written register. For example, he replaced the more conversational *get* with the active verb *kidnap,* reflecting an awareness of written register in his choice of voice to describe the story context. He also clarified that Ebenezer Dorset was the father of the boy being kidnapped and he chose to expand the sentence and provide a relative clause to define the town of Summit.

Like Maria, Yahyah's oral contributions to the LAREs discussions were rare unless he was called upon by the instructor. However, his reserved but resourceful foraging for Language Awareness through keen listening and determined reading were evident in that he was always prepared and could answer questions about the class activity when asked by Mrs. B, me or his classmates. In one conceptual memo

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from four months into the data collection, I observed Yahyah had written a definition of a word in his book but refused to publicly share his answer. When Mrs. B asked the class to show four fingers if they knew a word and could use it in a sentence, three fingers if they could name words related to the word, and two fingers if they recognized the word but did not know the meaning, I watched Yahyah show two fingers. He looked around the class. Most of the students were showing two fingers. Although Yahyah had written an answer on the page, he showed two fingers. Had he shown that he knew the answer, Mrs. B would have asked him to publicly share his answer with the class. When I asked him why he only showed two fingers, he shrugged, "That's not my style, Ms. Gage." Like Maria, he actively participated in collaboration with the class, yet chose not to stand out in class. However, he appeared to be drawing on affordances for Language Awareness by seeking out and foraging though keen listening and determined reading. His written work indicated that, like Maria, he paid attention to the instructional directives of his teachers. He did well in school, was proud of his grades and often reminded other students of due dates on assignments.

While many other students in the class may have drawn on affordances for Language Awareness by foraging though keen listening and determined reading, these practices were more apparent with Maria and Yahyah because of the contrast between their reserve in vocal exchanges and their school work. In other words, both students were very diligent students who admittedly paid attention to the class discussions and benefitted through their keen listening and determined reading.

Affordances for Language Awareness Through Dynamic Exchanges

In contrast to the students discussed in the last section, Riccardo and Zico figured prominently as participating in the class discussions of language and content where they both contribute and respond to the discussion topics. The themes within their classroom contributions illustrate their engagement in *dynamic exchanges* which I define as verbal exchanges between students and the instructor for engaging in affordances for Language Awareness.

Riccardo. From the beginning of my time in the classroom, I noted Riccardo was a very vocal presence in Mrs. B's class. He was an active participant contributing questions, answers, trial attempts at new language, humorous comments, and polite corrections of Mrs. B. He also modeled for others confident and diplomatic responses to discipline. The evidence of Riccardo's participation in class demonstrated that he engaged in a range of conversational moves with Mrs. B, contributing to and drawing on the feedback he received in class. At times, he often appropriated Mrs. B's own language in the process as well as assumed an authoritative adult tone in his contributions.

Riccardo had been a student with Mrs. B for 3 years, which may explain both his comfort with Mrs. B and his familiarity with her language use. For example, in the following exchange, Mrs. B. placed three rubber ducks in a line on the document projector. Riccardo demonstrated his facility in remembering the idiom which Mrs. B.

had used as a metaphor for organizational skills which she had introduced during the prior school year:

10/21/2010

Mrs. B: When you have everything organized, what do we call it?

Riccardo: Ducks in a row.

Mrs. B: Yes, what does that idiom mean?

Riccardo: That you have everything good.

Mrs. B: Yes, that you have everything organized, that you have everything ready to go.

In particular, Mrs. B. observed him to be what she described as a "language sponge" or a child who noticed aspects of language in class and who could be relied upon to "always ask really good questions." She noted his ability to pay attention and remember things she had said, and relied upon Riccardo to ask good questions. In the following example, students had read quietly from a text and were asked to circle words they did not know for discussion.

10/26/2011 [Student volunteers]

Riccardo: What is [ekspurt] Ms. Balboa?

Mrs. B.: Nice Riccardo, Circle excerpt. EXCERPT . . . So each time we come into a story, it has been taken from a larger story.

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In this exchange, Riccardo shows his comfort in taking risks by asking for clarification, and by openly drawing on the opportunity for feedback provided by the instructor in gaining an affordance for Language Awareness.

In another example, Riccardo was also willing to experiment, very publicly, with the sounds in the word as he made a trial attempt to sound out a word. He exuberantly discovered the sounds in a word even though the other students had begun to laugh at his eagerness.

11/8/2010

Mrs. B.: If you are done like Jafar, you are right, it (spelling the letters of the word 'conspicuous' with the children, she writes in her notebook which is projected via the document projector onto the SMARTboard) starts with C O N, con — (pause)

Riccardo: — spiculous (attempting to echo but mispronounces it)

Jafar: S P

Riccardo: S P

Romina: I

Mrs. B.: yes, I

Riccardo: Q

Mrs. B.: yes, it is a q sound

Riccardo: but it is a C, (sounding it out) /kwu/ (pause) /u/ /u/ It's a U!

Ss: (laugh)

Riccardo showed his enthusiasm in figuring out the pronunciation shouting, "[u] [u] It's a U!" This example illustrated Riccardo's willingness to explore sounds of the

word in his effort to spell *conspicuous* and draw on the feedback he received from the group discussion in the process.

Riccardo also actively engaged in an affordance for Language Awareness by interacting and negotiating his understanding with the instructor more than any other student during my study. He was even comfortable interjecting and correcting the instructor as in the following example:

10/19/2011

Riccardo: You spelled that wrong, Ms. Balboa, it says "Quotes that showed me character"

Mrs. B: (rereads what she wrote) Quotes that show me char ac ter (sounding out each syllable and modeling checking her work) What did I misspell?

Riccardo: Me character

Kelly: MY (emphasizing the possessive adjective)

Mrs. B: They are quotes that are showing me or us character. How about show us character? They aren't quotes that show my character but quotes that show us, the reader, about the character.

Although Riccardo had misunderstood what Mrs. B was saying, his question was taken seriously. Mrs. B questioned her own language use in the event that the confusion had arisen over her own error. Their discussion was collegial in the sense that Mrs. B. questioned her own usage and Riccardo confidently insisted on his correction, until Kelly interjected, identifying the source of the communication gap, *my.* At this point, Mrs. B. reframed her sentence, clarifying her intention with *us.*

Mrs. B. then followed up by adding more information to elucidate her statement which allowed Riccardo to understand that she had intended a use other than what he had understood. This verbal exchange illustrates Riccardo taking the opportunity to gain feedback in the negotiation of meaning within the LAREs. The sequence of turns between Riccardo's initial correction, Mrs. B's effort to monitor her own language, and Kelly's intervening provided four different paraphrases to clarify meaning for Riccardo. In the first paraphrase, she conjoined her original "quotes that are showing me" with "showing us character." Second, she posed a question, asking Riccardo whether he prefered her clarifying convention: "How about show us character?" Third, she stated what the meaning was not: "They aren't quotes that show my character." Finally, she provided the referential noun for *us* (*the reader)* intended in reframing "quotes that show us, the reader, about the character.*"* This episode illustrated the respectful exploration of a range of definitions to clarify understanding. The feedback was collegial and allowed space for Riccardo to modify his understanding, providing an affordance for Language Awareness.

In the following LARE, Riccardo can also be seen drawing on another student's contributions as he experimented with the clarification of understanding:

11/1 /2010 transcript data

Mrs. B: Ok, Why would she be mesmerized? Can you make a sentence? (pause) ok. Jafar?

Jafar: Because something got her attention.

Mrs. B: And why would it get her attention. (Riccardo raising his hand) Ok

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> Riccardo?
>
> **Riccardo:** (spoken with rising intonation as if he isn't quite certain about his contribution): because she was surprised that she never seen it before?
>
> **Mrs. B:** Ok, can you put it in a sentence and use the word?
>
> **Riccardo:** (pause)
>
> **Mrs. B**: (provides scaffold) I think she was mesmerized because . . .
>
> **Riccardo:** oh, I think she got mesmerized cause she got surprised.
>
> **Mrs. B:** She was surprised because she hadn't seen it before?
>
> **Riccardo:** (nods)
>
> **Mrs. B.:** Very nice. Let's give him the wings this time. (Wings are the school mascot and classroom rewards)

In this example, Riccardo showed his interest in participating in the discussion. His contribution reflected a contact variety (Fought, 2003) in which the auxiliary *had* was omitted from *She was surprised that she [had] never seen it before.* Mrs. B. did not focus on his use of the contact variety, but instead supported his contribution by providing an open ended sentence frame, "I think she was mesmerized because . . . " that offered a contextualized use of the vocabulary word *mesmerized*. Riccardo contributed his use of this term by completing the frame, "Oh, I think she got mesmerized cause she got surprised." While he used a more colloquial auxiliary *got* for constructing the passive (Biber et al., 1999), he incorporated the new word, *mesmerized*, in the sentence and provided evidence to support his statement "got surprised" which demonstrated his Language Awareness of the semantic value of the statement. Although the instructor emphasized Riccardo's use of a complete sentence and the accuracy of his contribution, his register use of *got* and *cause* were acceptable

usage. Mrs. B. reframed her understanding of his contribution "She was surprised because she hadn't seen it before?" and then applauded his contribution. This sequence contributed to affordances for Language Awareness and demonstrated the students' co-construction of semiotic understanding.

Riccardo also showed his evolving Language Awareness in regard to exploring the impact of register shifts for negotiating a reprimand. Riccardo would assume the vocabulary used by Mrs. B. and often a very particular tone of voice and style of speech. He would shift his voice to a lower tone, imitating the instructor, and hyper-enunciate his reply with a staccato rhythm setting a very serious tone to his speech. In the following example, Riccardo uses this staccato intonation when he proposed that his contribution is a "more advanced word*"*.

10/19/2011

SS2: Harriet Tubman, she helped slaves escaped to freedom.

Riccardo: I put a more advanced word. (Said with pride and in a somewhat staccato tone as if imitating an adult.)

Mrs. B: Ohhhhh . . . ! .(class laughs). Wings for SS2 and wings for Riccardo. What did you put?

Riccardo: The Underground Railroad wasn't <u>actually</u> (emphasis) a railroad.

Mrs. B: So the underground railroad wasn't actually a railroad for trains, was it?

The seriousness of Riccardo's interjection halted Mrs. B who replied "Ohhhhh!...Wings for Riccardo," rewarding his contribution. Not only did Riccardo choose vocabulary which might make him notable but he also commanded authority by using a lowered voice.

Even within the following simple reprimand, Riccardo answers with a lowered voice, as he had done in the response above, which implied that he had taken Mrs. B's reprimand seriously and intended to stay on task.

10/19/2010

Mrs. B to Riccardo: Riccardo, Is your pencil out?

Riccardo: (Enunciating in a slightly lower tone with staccato imitation of adult speech) Y-e-s, it is.

11/8/2010 transcript data

Mrs. B: so . . . (at Riccardo) Boys are you paying attention?

Riccardo: (using a very confident adult tone of voice enunciating each word.) Yes, I am.

These responses to the reprimand, though simple replies, are notable because of his choice of a lowered voice and staccato enunciation which replicated the intonation that he used in the example above when he said, "The Underground Railroad wasn't actually a railroad." In these examples, Riccardo appears to take on the intonation of his instructor. In the following example, Riccardo appropriated not only the tone and seriousness of the instructor but also borrowed her exact words which appeared to defuse a reprimand.

12/8 /2010

Mrs. B: (asks ss for challenging words from the reading which she writes on the board)

> **Niko** (yells): Outburst
>
> **Mrs. B:** ok, Niko, "outburst" (writing the word). Something you are familiar with.
>
> **Kelly:** Mrs. B, you misspelled "outburst"
>
> **Mrs. B.:** oh yes, Mrs. B, "What are you thinking?" (she corrects herself)
>
> **Joseph**: (raising his hand volunteering a simile which had been discussed the day before and earlier in the class) Did an ostrich bury his head in the sand?
>
> **Mrs. B:** Oh, Joseph, just brought up an animal, 'ostrich'(but Riccardo is fooling around and interrupting Joseph's contribution)
>
> **Mrs. B:** (to Riccardo) What did you just do?
>
> **Riccardo**: Oh, I outburst.

Riccardo's use of "Oh, I outburst" reflected his observation of a word used in the reading which the class had been discussing. This LARE demonstrated that Riccardo noticed the word in question and mimicked the word placing *outburst* within the context of the situation. Riccardo, aware that Mrs. B habitually praised students for experimentation with language, appeared to leverage the displeasure at his interruption by using the exact word the class had been discussing. Mrs. B. was speechless at his response. Furthermore, his use of *outburst* as a verb instead of a noun gave evidence to the novelty of this word in his own usage. In fact, it could be argued that his choice of more formal or "challenging" usage framed by lowering his voice and using the word the class had been discussing allowed him to experiment with her reaction. His response did in fact shift the conversation; Mrs. B. resumed the class discussion.

Furthermore, Riccardo was exceptionally public in expressing his engagement with the historical relevance of the narratives which they read in class. Several episodes discussed in Chapter 7 document his engagement in the historical narratives. For example, he gained an affordance for metalinguistic awareness through his questions about the institution of slavery during the reading of the Underground Railroad. He gained an affordance for analeptic awareness through his queries about when Anne must wear the Star of David, in *The Secret Annex*. Field notes also showed that he was very curious about the timelines separating World War II and the Vietnam War. These examples of Riccardo engaging in the narratives illustrated both his micro analytic exploration of meaning around language and content, as well as his more global conceptual schematizing of historical events. In fact, Riccardo's exchanges within the classroom discussions allowed for a better understanding of the nature of the feedback which the whole class dialogs provide. For example, in the following discussion about slavery Riccardo asks:

10/20/2010

Riccardo: Is there still slavery in other states?

Mrs. B.: No, not like this. That is a good question. Not like this anymore. But there are still some situations around the world that are pretty similar. You know what Riccardo just did is connect it to our world. It is hard to image how people could do things like this. Connecting to the world is one way people can understand the story very well. So connection to the text to the world, very nice Riccardo.

Riccardo's contribution in this example illustrates how his questions often served to extend themes, and make connections to real world examples, which supported both his understanding as well as provided examples for other students.

In summary, Riccardo's participation contributed vocal exchanges with the instructor and his classmates which contained questions, answers, trial attempts at new language, humorous comments, and polite corrections of Mrs. B. These exchanges allowed for affordances for Language Awareness in constructing classroom dialogs around text not only for himself but also for his peers and the instructor. Evidence that Riccardo looked to Mrs. B as a resource in providing affordances for Language Awareness were found in the practice of a range of conversational strategies including his imitation of her adult intonation in the classroom. His willingness to contribute ideas, ask questions, deliver answers, correct the instructor and repair conflicts demonstrated the range of conversational strategies which he explored. Additionally, these examples illustrate how he participated in a dynamic exchanges both responding and contributing as well as modeling for others his process of constructing affordances for Language Awareness within classroom discourse. I now turn to Zico whose language practices contributed to the dynamic exchanges through cross-linguistic awareness.

Zico "La grand manzana." While Zico was not as vocal as Riccardo, he could be heard orally processing language cross-linguistically and contributing to the class's feedback in constructing Language Awareness. Like Riccardo, he was more

willing to participate verbally in class than either Maria or Yahyah. At the beginning

of the year, his participation in class was uneven. He reported to the instructor and his

friends that he did not want to be in U.S. schools. He complained to Mrs. B. that he

had wanted to stay in Mexico with his grandmother. However, when he chose to

attend to class, I observed that he frequently responded to Mrs. B's statements,

echoing things she said both in English and Spanish, sometimes playfully. At the

beginning of the year, he frequently verbalized a translation, using his Spanish in a

kind of language play, as in the following example:

10/29/2011

Mrs. B: And a lot of people from Puerto Rico come and live in the East and a lot of people go live in . . . (pause)

Riccardo: New York City.

Mrs. B: They go to the Big Apple which is a nickname for . . . (pause)

Zico: La grand Manzana

Mrs. B. : New York City. So some of you might have been there.

Although he was absent a lot in the beginning and never did his homework,

when he did come to class, he appeared to enjoy the class discussions as evidenced by

his participation.

11/17/2011

Mrs. B: (writing it) We'll do one more. So what's happening? The languages are influencing each other. How about the word 'fate'. Comes from Latin, meaning what has been spoken. Today it means the circumstances or the situation which befalls on a person. So what happened to Anne?

Ss: the Nazis

Ss: The war

Mrs. B: ok, so which word up here kind of means happened to you?

Zico: Fate

Mrs. B: Yes, that is right that is the word we are aiming for and your fate is what (pause)

Romina: befalls

Mrs. B: Yes, befalls you. Like she said, "It fell on you."

In this dialog, the students and the instructor were matching word meanings. Zico was clearly following the conversation as evidenced by his correct response to the topic of the dialog.

Zico's greater ease in drawing on his Spanish was perhaps because he was the most recent immigrant or most recent visitor of Mexico where he had spent the summer with his grandmother. Of all the students in the class, he appeared to use his Spanish more publicly to make connections to English, especially when Mrs. B incorporated opportunities for the students to notice and make connections between Latin-based languages and the Latin loan words in English. His contributions set him apart from the other students which he appeared to take pride in.

In the following example, Zico was the first to translate when Mrs. B. pointed out the possibility of a relationship between the cognates.

10/19/2011

Mrs. B: Ok so vicinity again Latin root= *vecindad* for Spanish speakers. Means . . . (pause)

Zico : Area.

> **Mrs. B:** Yes, Area.

In the following example, Zico is willing to contribute when Mrs. B provided the connection to a Spanish word.

> 10/21/2010
>
> **Mrs. B:** Ok, so Latin root. Many of you are already speaking a Latin based language may know what content means?
>
> **Zico:** Happy
>
> **Mrs. B:** Ok, happy. So content<u>ment</u> (stressing the suffix) means, happiness. Good. Use your bilingual biceps.

In the following example, Zico and Marco corrected the instructor's Spanish:

> **10/19/2011** transcript data
>
> (Ss ask for help with word *constellation*.)
>
> **Mrs. B:** Oh that is a good word, *constellation*. Spanish speakers what word is inside of this word?
>
> **Romina:** stella?
>
> **Mrs. B:** hey, wait a second, that isn't a Spanish speaker. Good for you! Good job! Yeah, has to do with stars. Is it one 'l' or two Ms Gage?
>
> **Kelly:** Stella means stars? I didn't know that. I have a cousin named Stella.
>
> **Zico:** (mumbles incredulously to Marco who says out loud)
>
> **Marco:** *Stella*? *Estrella*! (correcting the Spanish-but on my mic which is inaudible to the instructor)

In this example, Romina, who was not a Spanish speaker, was the first to volunteer the connection that the root of the word *constellation* means "star". Zico and Marco mumble incredulously as Mrs. B has mixed up the Italian *stella* with the Spanish *estrella,* which demonstrated Zico's attention to the correct Spanish form.

While examples in the data indicate that Zico was more capable of noticing the relationships between the English and Spanish cognates, this awareness often required the support of classmates such as Marco as in the following example.

11/2/2011

Mrs. B: She comes back to the school, how many years later?

Ss: 10

Mrs. B: What do they call it?

Ss: decade

Mrs. B: Circle that word

Me: They call it a decade

Marco (turns and looks at me): *decada*

Zico (repeating): *decada*

Furthermore, in the following example Zico does not initially notice the connection between the English and Spanish words. Mrs. B. helps him to explore the relationship between "embrace" and *abrazos.*

11/2/2010 transcript data

Mrs. B: You (Jafar) are going to tell me what this other word meant. "*Her warm embrace*, (ss: echoing her pronunciation 'embrace') *fragrant of expensive perfume, took me by surprise*." Ah-ha! So you have a word in Spanish that is similar. You have a cognate.

Zico: Embrace? (repeating it with a puzzling tone)

Mrs. B: Because when you sign a letter, or when I sign a letter anyway, I might say *abrazos*, (diverts attention to classroom management) girls this goes..and gets tacked on to here . . . .(comes back to topic) *abrazos*

Zico: Ahhhhhh (epiphany) *abrazos*

Mrs. B: Ah hah!

Zico: no, more reading?

Mrs. B: No more reading? You tired of reading for today? (laughs)

Mrs. B: So, tell me what embrace means?

Zico: Hug

Mrs. B: so lots of great words in here. Some of them are cognates. So some of you have an advantage if you have a Latin based language. Remind me . . .

In this LARE, Zico seeking out the connection, repeated the word "embrace," considering the relationship of this cognate to a Spanish word. When Mrs. B. provided the hint by explaining how she signs her letters in Spanish with *abrazos,* Zico made the connection and translated for his classmates.

As I have discussed in Chapter 5, the policy context constrained the use of Spanish in the classroom. However, Mrs. B. took the opportunity to support students such as Zico, who enjoyed figuring out the connections between languages, to engage

students in noticing the relationship from English to Latin and Latinate languages such as Spanish. For students like Zico, who enjoyed playing with translations, the opportunity to draw on his multi-competent L1/L2 abilities, supported him seeking out the relationships between language and engaging in dynamic cross-linguistic exchanges. Like Riccardo, he both contributed and responded, as he modeled his construction of affordances for Language Awareness. Furthermore, while all the case study students spoke Spanish at home, Zico was most responsive to affordances for constructing cross-linguistic awareness. The opportunity to draw on his knowledge in both languages appeared to allow him a certain expertise, as did Riccardo's exploration of questions.

Affordances for Language Awareness Through Drawing In

In the first section of this chapter, I argued that both Maria and Yahyah were reserved in their classroom participation, yet they appeared to construct Language Awareness by foraging through keen listening and determined reading. In contrast, other students' participation was reserved, but at the same time these others did not appear to forage for affordances for Language Awareness as Maria and Yahyah did. I now turn to the cases of Yasmine and Lucca whose classroom participation was less active, but they also did not employ the language practices which appeared to benefit both Maria and Yahyah. As I will illustrate, both Yasmine and Lucca evolved in their language practices over the course of the year by learning to seek out and *draw in* affordances for Language Awareness. Being drawn into community participation by

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their friends and teacher, they appeared to be guided into "learning to perceive the relationships of possibility" (van Lier, 2007, p. 45) for gaining affordances for Language Awareness in the classroom.

Yasmine. Like Riccardo, Yasmine had been in Mrs. B's class for 3 years. Early in the study, Mrs. B had suggested Yasmine as a case study student because Mrs. B. was particularly concerned about Yasmine. Yasmine had begun the year somewhat distracted in class. Mrs. B. was concerned that the transitional level was too challenging for Yasmine, as Yasmine had been in ESL classes during the 2 years prior to the study. While Yasmine was by her own admission very shy, and lacked confidence, she had made a lot of growth in school as her 80-point gain in CELDT scores over 2 years demonstrated (i.e., she had advanced from a 476 overall score in sixth grade defining her as Early Intermediate, to 561 overall score in eighth grade achieving early advanced [California Department of Education, 2013a]). Gauging from the research which shows students are often retained at the intermediate CELDT level and fail to move beyond (Gándara et al., 2003), Yasmine had made considerable progress. By her own admission, at the end of the study, she noted that she had "confidence." None the less, at the beginning of the study, which coincided with the preparations for Yasmine's elaborate Quinceañera, she was very distracted in school. Mrs. B had been invited to the Quinceañera and had expressed some concern over Yasmine's preoccupation with the festivities as she was not participating in class.

Despite having made considerable growth in English, Yasmine was very reserved in class and did not seek out affordances for Language Awareness as Maria and Yahyah had by foraging, or seeking out affordances for Language Awareness while engaging in verbal exchanges, like Riccardo and Zico. In fact, as I came to know Yasmine, I realized that when she did not understand, she withdrew and often daydreamed.

An example of Yasmine's lack of participation from early in the study is demonstrated in the following transcript. Yasmine did not answer the instructor's questions, even if she knew the answers. This was evident when Yasmine was working in close proximity to her cousin, Marco, who also attended Mrs. B's class.

10/27/2010 transcript data

Mrs. B: Yesterday, Mrs. Gage's group was talking about when "when she chose to smile on me, I always wanted to thank her" Yasmine? (calling on Yasmine)

Me: (whispering to Yasmine or Samuel) raise your hand so you can get wings.

Yasmine: I don't want to.

Me: Come on

Yasmine: I don't want to.

Me: Look it's in italics.

Yasmine: No.

Mrs. B: I'm going to come back to you later.

(Yasmine doesn't answer.)

> **Me:** (laughing) She knows.
>
> **Marco** her cousin: (probes her in Spanish asking why she won't give an answer which was not audible to mic.)
>
> **Yasmine** (looking out the window): *está frío*.

The data above was collected on a day after I had worked with Yasmine in a group when she had read and understood the material that Mrs. B. had asked her about in the above excerpt. When I had worked with her in the group, I noted that part of her apparent disengagement appeared to occur when she did not understand what to do. However, rather than ask questions as Riccardo or even Zico might have done or seek out clarification as Maria and Yahyah might have done, Yasmine would stare out the window. On that day, I asked her whether she understood and she shook her head. I then explained the directions to her and asked her questions to clarify that she understood me. After I had explained what she did not understand, she immediately got to work. My memo from late October noted that her activity following our discussion was in striking contrast to her routine activity in class, where she often stared out the window. At that time, she also generally forgot her glasses, which made classroom participation impossible. Even more striking was the simple fact that she appeared to be very uncomfortable asking questions when she did not understand.

Over the course of the study, I often asked her whether she understood. In this context with one-on-one assistance, she took advantage of my presence. When I

asked her to be one of the case students in the study, she agreed and was one of the few students who wanted me to sit beside her in all her classes.

About the time I had decided to select her as a case student, coincidently, Mrs. B assigned Yasmine the job of keeping records of Wings, the symbolic tokens given as prizes discussed earlier. Mrs. B rotated the record keeping job among the better students in class, primarily because the job required that students pay attention to the class discussions and record the wings given for participation. When Mrs. B first decided to give the job to Yasmine, she feared that Yasmine would not be able to concentrate on the class discussion and perform the extra duty of record keeping. On the contrary, Yasmine was devoted to the task and she also began to consistently remember her glasses. The job of documenting Wings afforded the record keeper some prestige in the class, both as an aid to the instructor and as the go-to person when students wanted an account of their Wings.

In addition to Yasmine engaging in her duty as Wings recorder and taking advantage of my presence for one-on-one assistance, Mrs. B. had moved Yasmine to the front of the class[21] and partnered her with Jemal. Jemal had not initially agreed to sign the consent forms to be a part of this study; therefore, I had not collected any data on him. However, he approached me half way through the study with the consent form, and later asked to be a case student when he was partnered with

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[21] Mrs. B rotated the assigned seating and partners once a month selecting partners from a private list, requested by the students with names of classmates students felt they could work with well. Mrs. B was very responsive to students' input regarding choice of classroom partner, as student buy-in supported the learning environment.

Yasmine. I welcomed his participation especially when I noted that both Jemal and Yasmine appeared to help each other. In total, Mrs. B. bestowing the Wings recorder job to Yasmine, my giving Yasmine guidance when she was unclear and the collaboration with Jamal coalesced to *draw* Yasmine into participation. These subtle but notable changes within Yasmine's proximal context seemed to avail Yasmine the opportunity to learn to seek out affordances for Language Awareness.

The change in Yasmine was most notable when during the final interview I conducted with both Yasmine and Jemal, I observed how they supported one another. When I asked them both what they remembered of the Academic Word of the Day task from the beginning of the year, Yasmine answered with confidence and somewhat competitively, giving more answers than Jamal.

2/21/2011 transcript data

Me: Quality

Yasmine: The quality of something

Jemal: I don't know what quality is.

Me: Maybe Yasmine can help you?

Yasmine: *la calidad* in Spanish

Jemal: Oh, o.k.

Me: Does she do that (translate) for you in class?

Jemal: Yeah.

Me: Do you help him that way in class?

Yasmine: Yeah.

> **Me**: Does a TV have a quality? Can you give me an example?
>
> **Yasmine:** Yes, you can have HD or 3D
>
> **Me:** Could a light have a quality?
>
> **Yasmine**: Yes, it could be bright.

Yasmine's provided a context for all of her answers and she even translated for Jemal, offering an affordance for Language Awareness through a cross-linguistic comparison. This activity led me to probe them further on how they might draw on their multi-competent L1/L2 abilities within the classroom.

I began by asking Yasmine whether she got confused going back and forth between Spanish and English, she answered:

> **2/21/2011**
>
> **Yasmine** answered, "I don't . . . it's easier."
>
> And **Jemal** chimed in, "Yeah."
>
> Then I asked, "But how do you feel about doing that in the classroom?"
>
> **Yasmine** answered, "uhhh".
>
> **Me:** Do you talk about that when you are trying to figure things out in school?
>
> **Yasmine:** No.
>
> **Me**: Why not?
>
> **Yasmine:** I don't know. (laughs nervously)
>
> **Me**: But if you are outside the class would you do that?

> **Yasmine:** Yes.
>
> **Me**: A lot?
>
> **Jemal:** Sometimes
>
> **Me**: But the other day when we were doing math and I was trying to help you . . . .
>
> (Yasmine interrupts)
>
> **Yasmine:** *Siempre*
>
> **Me**: You remember, don't you? Still don't you . . .
>
> **Yasmine:** It helps.
>
> **Me**: It helps a lot?
>
> **Yasmine**: Yes.

Our discussion was striking for several reasons. First, both children found drawing on both languages "easier." Second, Yasmine, unlike other students who reported drawing on their bilingual abilities to problem solve in class, did not employ her bilingual abilities in the classroom. Yet she did when not in school. Third, mentioning "math" to her triggered my use of *siempre* to help her understand the math concept of a *constant* earlier in the week. As I had seen before, Yasmine was very eager to learn and worked very hard when she understood what to do. Both she and Jemal indicated that in Mrs. B. made the students "pay attention so we can learn" and that English was their favorite class. Although at the outset of the study, she had been clearly reserved and refrained from articulating when she needed help. Her

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access to me during the study appeared to provide the extra help she needed to draw her into participation.

While shadowing her in math class, my presence appeared to draw Yasmine out as she had been among the students who had had a very unfortunate academic experience in math the prior year. She was very behind in math and somewhat overwhelmed in class. Her math instructor had complained to me that "She won't ask questions." One day Yasmine had told me that she did not understand how to determine where the x and y axis was for the homework. I suggested she ask the teacher, but she refused, so I asked the teacher for her. The next day Yasmine showed up in class with the notes she had written and the steps describing how to find the solution to the problem:

2/28/2011

(I sat with Yasmine who was reviewing her notes trying to remember what she learned before.)

Me: So use what you learned before. Can you tell me if this is directly or inversely proportional?

Yasmine: hmm . . . I need my notes. (She pulls out the sheet of paper which she had used when I helped her before to review the solution and looks at them)

Me: ok, look at your notes. I understand.

Yasmine: ___ [inaudible to mic] (She found the correct answer.)

Me: Good job good job, So that is the first question. Look at what they are asking.

When Yasmine knew what to do, she appeared to attend to the task diligently. Unlike Maria and Yahyah who drew on *keen listening and determined reading to forage* for

the understanding, Yasmine's participation was different. Given the opportunities in Mrs. B's class, Yasmine appeared to be drawn out as a learner, learning how to seek out the affordances for Language Awareness available to her. Furthermore, she in turn appeared to both learn from and assist others as was evidenced in her work with Jamal.

Yasmine had grown tremendously during her time in Mrs. B's class. As she told me in the final interview, "I'm not shy anymore". She also wrote to me with pride after she left Sandy Shores, that she had been told she had the highest reading level in her English class upon entering high school and enjoyed helping another boy who was a recent immigrant from Mexico.

In total, Yasmine's engagement with me as part of the study, Mrs. B's prolonged investment of her as a student, Mrs. B's confidence in Yasmine as the Wings record keeper appeared to draw her into participation where she began to actively seek out and more fully employ the affordances for Language Awareness available in the classroom. Yasmine appeared to attend more and make the effort to pay attention in class. Yasmine's use of Language Awareness stood in contrast to the language practices of other students, like Maria and Yahyah, who foraged for affordances for Language Awareness, and other students like Riccardo and Zico who took the opportunity to engage in dynamic feedback exchanges gaining affordances for Language Awareness. For Yasmine, the coalescing of proximal contexts

appeared to draw her out, mediating her engagement in constructing the available affordances for Language Awareness within the classroom.

Lucca. Lastly, I describe Lucca, who was similar to Yasmine in that throughout the course of the year Lucca's participation seemed to grow. I had initially selected Lucca to be in the study because of his relationship with both Yahyah and Riccardo. The three boys collaborated frequently in class and often spent their breaks in Mrs. B's classroom, where they often enjoyed chatting with Mrs. B and me. As I got to know Lucca during the course of the study, I noted that his relationship with the boys was complex. Each boy drew on affordances for Language Awareness very differently. As I have argued, Yahyah foraged for Language Awareness through keen listening and determined reading. Yahyah's language practices appeared to be conducive to his drive to go to college. He often shared his academic strategies with Riccardo and Yahyah. Riccardo's language practices drew on affordances for Language Awareness through dynamic exchanges. Riccardo enjoyed talking and sharing ideas with his classmates and the instructors. Riccardo and Yahyah completed homework together but Lucca did not spend time with the others after school. Like Yasmine, Lucca generally did not complete or forgot about the homework assignments. Over the course of the study, Lucca listened to the strategies presented by Yahyah and was reminded to attend to his school work by Riccardo. Through the mentorship of his classmates, Mrs. B. and myself, Lucca began to be drawn into the LAREs exchanges over the course of the study.

Lucca's participation in affordances for Language Awareness within the classroom community was connected to the relationship he had with the other boys. Lucca had been Mrs. B's student in sixth grade with Riccardo. Lucca was the nexus between Riccardo and Yahyah. Both Yahyah and Lucca had attended the K–8 for seventh grade and had transferred together in eighth grade when Sandy Shores reopened. Riccardo and Lucca had known each other since infancy as Riccardo's grandmother had been Lucca's baby sitter. All three boys were on the soccer team which required a certain GPA. Observational memos at the end of the first quarter document both Riccardo and Yahyah's asking Mrs. B. for their grades to determine whether they could attend the ice cream social. Lucca who accompanied the boys was upset because he did not have the grades to attend. The other boys and Mrs. B. explained to him that he must do his homework and contribute in class to gain the Wings for the ice cream social. His disappointment at not having the opportunity to join his friends appeared to alert him to necessary changes in his classroom participation.

At the beginning of the year, because Lucca was not initially driven in school, his lack of participation often underplayed his knowledge. He also had broken his glasses and had to rely on classmates to read the board for him. Mrs. B initially sat Lucca in front with Riccardo, but their long sibling-like relationship gave Riccardo the upper-hand when helping Lucca read the board. Riccardo often treated Lucca as a sidekick, baiting him with his ability to see when Lucca required someone to read the board for him. However, they discussed the academic content together and

contributed to class discussions as in the following passage. Lucca was willing to ask

questions, and contribute answers, in tandem with Riccardo. In the unit on the

Underground Railroad, Mrs. B. elicits questions from students which she writes on a

What you Know, What you Want to know, and What you Learned (KWL) Chart.

Lucca asked a question demonstrating his critical awareness:

10/18/2010

Mrs. B: Does anyone have any more questions?

Lucca and Riccardo: (Whispering together)

Lucca: Why slaves were only black?

Mrs. B: (Writes on the KWL chart which projects on the Smart Board and read
out loud) Why were slaves only black? I changed the order because it
sounds . . . .(stops and rereads it again mutters it under her breath). Oh, I wrote
'where' and I wanted "Why" (makes the correction in front of the students) OK.
Anyone else?

In this LARE, field notes documented that Riccardo had been encouraging Lucca to

ask the question inquiring why slavery was limited to black people. Mrs. B recast the

question as she wrote it down.

In another discussion, Mrs. B. has brought in a gourd to show the children

the symbolism in the song "Follow the Drinking Gourd." The gourd signified the Big

Dipper for the slaves who were running away on the Underground Railroad. In this

LARE, Lucca drew on an affordance for Analeptic Awareness as he connected the

instructor's discussion of the drinking gourd as a squash used by indigenous people

and then shared his knowledge of the stars as a means of guiding people at night:

10/21/2010

Mrs. B: It is a kind of squash and what do we use it for?

Lucca: Maybe that is what the Indians did?

Mrs. B: So without a map, how did they make their way up north?

Lucca: the stars

Mrs. B: yeah the stars. Which star in particular?

Lucca: The north star.

Mrs. B.: (Showing a picture on the web of a gourd made into a ladle) Ok, so here is one a little similar to the one that we have. Part of the gourd actually has a handle. And if you dry it out or carve it out is like a . . .

Riccardo: a spoon

Mrs. B.: Yes, and you can get some water from a well or some soup. And they called the big dipper the drinking gourd. It was a code word so the white masters wouldn't know what they were talking about. So instead of calling it the big dipper, they called it the drinking gourd, dipper a ladle.

(Mrs. B shows a photo of the constellation Ursa Major and the photo of the gourd made into a ladle side-by-side.)

Lucca's contributing an affordance for Language Awareness was also a resource for

his classmates. In this episode, Lucca participated with Riccardo in wondering about

the gourd.

In another example, Lucca participated in proleptic discourse with the

instructor, by finishing her sentences.

10/26/2011 transcript data

Mrs. B: [Riccardo had asked what a lifeline was. Pointing to the word *lifeline* on the SMARTboard] . . . And then so you are on a boat and the boat sinks and Riccardo's boat comes along and throws you a rope to save you when you are . . .

Ss: drowning.

Mrs. B: so what is a life line folks?

Ss: a rope

Mrs. B: something that comes by and saves you when you are . . .

Lucca: drowning

In the following example, Mrs. B explored the prefix *fore-* with the students, comparing *before* to *forehead* to *foreshadow*. This example gives evidence that Lucca follows Mrs. B's analeptic discourse applying his knowledge as the class explored the relationship of meaning.

11/19/2010

Mrs. B: Think of the word *before*. The meaning is before and you can see that prefix right insight (writing this)

on the smart board). Like your forehead. The front part of your head. So not trans, not ab, but FORE. Like the

front part of your head. Ebony, you said you knew it? Starts with fore-?

Ebony: foreshadowing

Mrs. B: Very nice. When do we see a shadow, Lucca?

Lucca: when it is sunny.

Ebony: when your hand goes over the light

Mrs. B: That's right, when your hand or any part of your body goes over the light it

casts a shadow. When don't we see shadows?

Romina: When it is raining.

Mrs. B: Ok, when it is raining.

Lucca: In the dark

Mrs. B: What is this part of the word? So we know this part means fore- and this part?

Ss: shad

Mrs. B: What if I put an –e at the end

Lucca: Shade

Mrs. B: So the sun is shining and you can sit under the tree in the shade. Is that a shadow?

These examples illustrate Lucca's potential to participate in affordances for Language Awareness in which he shared his knowledge, curiosity and a willingness to participate in tandem with his classmates.

While Lucca desired to do well in school like his friends, Yahyah and Riccardo, at the beginning of the year, he had not made the connection between the effort he put into school and his performance. Lucca relied on the instructor or his friends to draw him into the discussion topics in class but did little outside of class. In the last weeks of the study, Lucca had become more and more serious with his school work. One day when I had been absent, Mrs. B. dropped a card by my house from Lucca which read, "Dear Ms. Gage, I am on track. I finished all my work in class today. Your friend, Lucca." She said he was very proud of himself and wanted me to

know. Mrs. B. had made a point of sharing Lucca's letter with me showing that Lucca, like Yasmine, had begun to seek out affordances for Language Awareness within the classroom. He had even appropriated Mrs. B's terminology, "on track".

During the interviews at the conclusion of the study, Lucca shared how he had been inspired by a poem the class had read:

1/28/2011

Lucca: I like the poem from one of Mrs. B's books.

Riccardo: The one that we read?

Lucca: It went something like . . .

Riccardo (finishes Lucca's sentence): *I won, I won the prize. Right before their eyes*.

Lucca: Yeah, *I won the prize right before their eyes*. Then it said, *my life will never be the same*.

Riccardo: *I'll never be like this the same*, was it like that?

Lucca: Yeah

Riccardo: Then it said, "*I won it*."

(Mrs. B has pulled the book off the shelf.)

Riccardo: You wanna read it, Lucca? (He refuses)

Yahyah (takes the book and reads): *I won! I won! I won the prize right before their eyes. I was the best kid in the class. I came out first instead of last. I studied hard. I won the game. My life will never be the same. I won! I won! I won the prize right before their eyes.*

Zico: That is good.

> **Lucca**: I almost memorized it.
>
> **Mrs. B:** Yeah, it was after that that he decided <u>he</u> was gonna be the guy and turn it around.
>
> **Me:** Do you ever write poems?
>
> **Lucca** (tells in in an excited voice): You know when I was in like 4th grade we like write a lot of poems and it gets to be like a book.
>
> Yahyah (In a very adult tone, Yahyah explains): They are called creative writing.
>
> **Lucca**: You have to write a poem. And the ones that are like more writing, or rhymes, they get to be in the book.
>
> **Me:** Did you save this? Can you bring it to class?
>
> **Lucca**: uh-uh (no)

In this interview, Lucca has recalled the importance of the poem but he was hesitant to read it, despite Riccardo's encouragement. Yahyah relieved Lucca by reading the poem for him and Lucca responded, "I almost memorized it." Mrs. B then implied that the poem had been an inspiration when she said that he could "be the guy" who "won the prize". This dialog reflected both the support of the other boys as well as Mrs. B through which Lucca had been drawn into participating and into seeking out affordances for Language Awareness within the classroom.

At the conclusion of the interview, the boys provided each other with opportunities for affordances for Language Awareness within their play with words as they explain some of the vocabulary words given at the beginning of the year. While the boys answered me, they also made a game out of the topic both providing definitions and creatively directing their answers in support of Lucca's accomplishments.

1/28/2011

Riccardo: He (Lucca) is really making a change. He got a proficiency in math in the

 benchmark

Lucca: I passed my quiz.

 . . . .

(Later when I asked them to use some of the words from earlier in the year in a sentence, they used each other as the topic of their sentences.)

Me: Do you remember *influence*?

Zico: We all *influence* Lucca to do better.

Me: *advance*?

Yahyah: Lucca is *advanced* in math.

Lucca: I was going to say that about you! (to Yahyah)

Riccardo (to Yahyah): Yeah, Dude! You have algebra!

Zico: I have algebra readiness.

Riccardo: I don't get math that much because for first grade we had Mr. Russian and he didn't teach us much.

Zico: Not in first grade, in sixth grade.

Riccardo: Second grade

Zico: Sixth grade.

Riccardo: Oh, sixth grade. He didn't teach us nothing. He just sat in the chair and when we go by his desk to throw away trash, he was on Myspace and stuff.

Zico: He was always eating.

Riccardo: Then in seventh grade Mrs. Gonzales, she didn't teach us nothing.

Me: But you all seem to have good math teachers now. How about *relate*?

Yahyah: We were *relating* us on our math.

Me: Can you give me a little more detail?

Zico: That they are both *advanced*.

Me: *Explain*.

Lucca: They *explained* me.

Yahyah: How *advanced* we were in math.

Me: *significant*

Zico: They were *significant* so they can get *advanced*.

Me: Can you give me more detail?

Zico: Like when you do something very well.

Me: ok. That is nice. How about *similar*?

Lucca: Me and Yahyah are *similar* in math.

Me: How about *option*?

Lucca: We all have an *option* to go to college.

This dialog illustrated the boys' community support in which Lucca was drawn into participation. Their language play also demonstrated their facility with the Academic Words of the Day as they used the words to create a story about Lucca. Lucca concluded the story with a definition of "option" telling me, "We all have the option to go to college". Participation for Lucca had much to do with being drawn into the classroom engagement within which affordances for Language Awareness occurred. In particular, both Mrs. B and Lucca's peers appeared to be a key in prompting Lucca to be drawn into the classroom community language practice and into participating in the classroom language study, gaining affordances for Language Awareness.

In conclusion, I have examined the language practices of six students in Mrs. B's class in this chapter. I have argued that the themes present in how these six students gain affordances for Language Awareness reflect the individual students' language practices or the ways in which these students approached the semiotic processes for constructing meaning. While some students made limited or no oral contributions to the classroom dialogs, they appeared to forage or seek out the language and content information they needed by foraging for Language Awareness through keen listening and determined reading. These students actively foraged for opportunities to construct meaning around the language and content in their classes through active listening to class discussions, and teachers' directives. They also pursued reading assignments by reviewing and rereading until they gained an affordance for Language Awareness.

Other students, like Riccardo, took the opportunity to engage in language exchanges within the classroom. By wondering about and exploring language topics, Riccardo gained affordances for Language Awareness as he actively questioned and experimented with language usage. Others, like Zico, engaged in affordances for Language Awareness which allowed him to participate in cross-linguistic comparison. Furthermore, others, like Yasmine and Lucca, benefited from the mediating support they found in the classroom where they were *drawn into* the classroom community through peer and instructor prompting. Yasmine and Lucca were students who benefitted from "learning to perceive" the affordances for Language Awareness within the proximal context co-constructed by their instructor

and peers. The language practices explored through the three themes illustrate various kinds of activity within the classroom context whereby affordances for Language Awareness occurred.

Chapter 9: Discussion and Conclusions

Introduction

In Chapter 9, I discuss the findings of this study by examining how the policy (Chapter 5) and analyses (Chapters 6, 7, and 8) inform the research questions of this study. In doing so, I consider how the findings of this study are consistent with and further articulate an understanding of how affordances for Language Awareness are constructed within a classroom context. Then I discuss the limitations and considerations for future research, along with the implications of this study for teachers, schools, and policy makers with a view toward considering the complexities of engaging students in affordances for Language Awareness within a classroom context.

Summary of Findings

The primary goal of this study was to understand how multi-competent L1/L2 users construct affordances for Language Awareness within a school context. Drawing on van Lier's definition, affordances for Language Awareness can be understood as "signs that acquire meaning and relevance as a result of purposeful activity and participation by the learner and the perceptual, cognitive, and emotional engagement that such activity stimulates" (1997, p. 783). Analyses revealed that affordances for Language Awareness occurred as bidirectional semiotic activities between students and their teacher in a language classroom while exploring

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classroom texts. As an ecologically inspired study of situated learning, the study identified processes that contributed to the kinds of affordances for Language Awareness that were available to Ms. B's students. These processes included the many mediating factors which contributed to rich multimodal and multisensory proximal contexts.

The mediating factors included (a) the context which extended the students' experience of reading the text or curricular materials, (b) the students' own contributions or responses to their experiences while engaged in the process of reading text; and (c) the instructor's purposeful extension of these experiences by adding thematically related realia and inviting feedback from the students. For example, reading the text as a class and co-constructing the meaning of the texts contributed affordances for Language Awareness. The students' musings, questions or queries contributed to affordances for Language Awareness. Finally, the instructor sought out relevant images, maps, films, and songs to extend the experience of the text or curriculum which contributed to affordances for Language Awareness. Most importantly, the instructor drew on a range of pedagogical practices which allowed her to listen to and understand how the students were constructing meaning around the text. For example, she asked questions which revealed students' metalinguistic and cross-linguistic awareness; she asked questions relating information to commonly understood or analeptic discourse; and she paused or asked questions which allowed students to fill in the space to determine their understanding of implied or proleptic

discourse. In total, this range of mediating factors contributed to the rich proximal contexts of the classroom for engaging in affordances for Language Awareness.

These rich proximal contexts within which the students explored the narratives would appear to allow students to engage in affordances for Language Awareness by building schema around both the language and concepts of the text. For example, within each unit, students built understandings around both events and the language to describe events like the Underground Railroad and the abolitionist movement. The process of reading the excerpt from the Underground Railroad, while exploring the language describing these historically distant events, and watching the film simulating an abolitionist hiding slaves from bounty hunters, allowed for students to engage in affordances for Language Awareness.

As I will explore in the next section, the study also provides insights into how language policy at a number of levels (school, district, state, and federal government) impacted affordances for Language Awareness in the classroom. Most notably I found that the policy climate privileging monolingual English constrained the classroom discourse practices of both the students and teacher. Despite this policy environment, the instructor was able to support students' Language Awareness through her practices reflecting language diversity as a resource which she revealed through her practices and comments indicating a value of the students' language diversity. In what follows, I address the specific findings of each chapter.

Language policy and Language Awareness. I began in Chapter 5 to describe how the teacher and students in this study were embedded within the larger federal-

and state-level language education policy context under NCLB which impacted the district and school site. Because the policies under NCLB focused exclusively on test scores, primarily in math and English, the school and district administration had implemented drastic measures to release Sandy Shores from Program Improvement school status. The school had been restructured and enlarged to accommodate an additional 300 students. The majority of faculty and administrative staff had been replaced. The ELA classes had been reorganized by reading levels, which often resulted in ELs and SPED students placed together, following a trend found in many PI schools (Harper et al., 2008). Moreover, the ELA teachers attended in-service workshops with an outside language consultant who promised to bolster Academic Language growth in students through an instructional protocol which included additional non-fiction readings (unrelated to the themes in the grade level state adopted anthology) and workbook exercises. Additionally, these changes also included devoting more time to math and English instruction which narrowed curricular choices. As a result, students had limited access to science and social science, and no access to alternative electives such as heritage literacy or language classes.

Despite the constraining curricular environment, this study uncovered the ways in which the instructor was able to negotiate the policy environment to support affordances for Language Awareness. Other studies of similar student populations in low track classes (such as transitional classes) reported students' sense of alienation and isolation which was attributed to students not feeling respected by the teachers

(Callahan, 2005; Oakes, 1985; Valenzuela, 1999).   Although the students in this study were in the lowest academic track, they were optimistic about English language study. In the academic language survey, they seemed to value academic English, and enjoyed the academic word of the day activity. In the LAREs data, students made an effort to contribute words which they perceived were "fancy". All the case students reported enjoying their English class and expressed that Mrs. B's class was an environment in which they could learn. Given these findings, how might the teacher's practice have contributed to the proximal contexts within which affordances for Language Awareness occurred?

First, she elected not to teach ESL, which at this school included curriculum prescribed by pacing and instructional mandates, but instead requested to teach ELA, which used an anthology of literature around which to develop instructional activities. Assigned three levels of ELA, using the same literature anthology, she employed her pedagogical expertise and adapted instructional strategies to better meet the needs of individual learners. Classroom management was a top priority, as she admitted, "When I lose control of the class, I feel terribly guilty for the students who want to learn. It only takes one or two students to throw everyone off track. I feel responsible when I lose them."

The teacher appeared to go to great measures to establish a respectful classroom environment. She attempted to consider the students' interests, their comfort in working with specific classmates, the respect which they showed one and other, and their desire to learn. She took an interest in students' curiosity, drawing the

class's attention to students' questions and musings during the discussion of the text. She made an effort to balance student contributions to class discussions equitably. She framed all classroom interactions with the importance of showing one another respect for all contributions to class discussions. She insisted that classroom contributions were audible to other classmates, and likewise that classmates were an attentive audience. She frequently rewarded questions and musing with Wings, tokens for participating in quarterly ice cream socials. Pointing out that the honors students get everything, she said "I want my (transitional) students to get in on this (opportunity, like the ice cream socials) too." Her encouragement of the transitional students may have also translated her confidence in their ability to engage in proximal contexts towards affordances for Language Awareness.

The teacher, who has an interest in and speaks several languages, appeared to attempt to counter the effects of NCLB and its ideological thrust by enacting her own commitments to an orientation that conceived of language diversity as a resource. This orientation was evident in a variety of her classroom practices. She revealed her ideologies to students by her willingness to learn Spanish well and speak Spanish when needed. For example, she offered to speak Spanish with parents when she made calls home, respectful of which language parents were most comfortable using. She often translated for the principal and clarified notes in Spanish that went home to families. She encouraged students to do well in school, even using Spanish in a "nurturing" role when engaging in side conversations. She also expressed a preference to make "good news" calls home to the parents (often in Spanish) to extoll

the students' academic successes. Furthermore, she practiced her language diversity as a resource orientation by encouraging students to "flex their bilingual biceps" and tap into their cross-linguistic knowledge during curricular instruction. As she said in the interview, I want them to see that "Spanish is academic". In total, this instructor revealed her ideologies which conceive of language diversity as a resource through her everyday practices both in and outside the classroom in spite of the constraining policy climate of NCLB.

Engaging Language Awareness. Within the quantitative analysis of the LAREs data in Chapter 6, the qualitative analysis of LAREs data in Chapter 7 and the case study analysis in Chapter 8, I explored how the students and their instructor engaged in affordances for Language Awareness. I will now turn to each LARE category to examine the relevant findings in these chapters.

In the quantitative account provided in Chapter 6, the LAREs reflecting affordances for metalinguistic awareness were the most common. Chapter 7 illustrated in detail how these LAREs included students contributing alternate definitions of words, focusing on morphological parts of words, and exploring polysemy. Moreover, these discussions contributing to affordances for metalinguistic awareness often compared known elements, such as when students chimed in to the discussion with their understanding using a range of synonyms, including cognates. Other times, students contributed contrasting information such as when Niko asked about the polysemy of "counselor" as in therapist, from "counselor" as in academic

counselor.   Furthermore, evidence given in Chapter 8 under the theme of *foraging* for Language Awareness, demonstrated that students such as Maria who did not participate in the classroom discussion of *impeccable* or *impeccably* may have gained an affordance for metalinguistic awareness through foraging as Maria later uses *impeccable* in her unit review essay. While Chapter 6 provided the quantitative analysis examining the frequency and make-up of affordances for metalinguistic awareness, the qualitative analysis in Chapter 7 demonstrated how affordances for metalinguistic awareness were enacted within rich proximal contexts where students as well as the instructor explored metalinguistic elements of the texts. Furthermore, Chapter 8 provided an analysis of the various practices of individual students. For example, while Riccardo participated dynamically, eliciting feedback and vocally exploring words like "inconspicuous," Maria appeared to be receptively foraging during class discussions.

The second most common LAREs category analyzed in Chapter 6 was affordances for analeptic awareness (or drawing on shared understanding). Analeptic LAREs resulted in 93% interactive discussions. The qualitative analysis in Chapter 7 also showed how both the instructor's knowledge of the students and the students' co-construction of concepts in tandem through analepsis provided affordances for Language Awareness. Experiencing the narratives as a class dialog engaged in rich multimodal and multisensory proximal contexts appeared to have provided a bridge for the students to connect meaning in the narratives to their cultural experiences. Evidence that students related these culturally and historically distant themes was

found in several of the children's musings. For example, when the students explored

the context cue of "pray" in the description of the *synagogue,* the children drew on

analeptic discourse "like in a church" to conceptualize a place where Jewish people

pray. The class discussion which connected the word *façade* to something on the

outside of a building such as the mural on their school building, provided another

example of the students drawing on shared experience to conceptualize a new word

and novel concept. Furthermore, even the cross-linguistic exploration of

constellation, connecting *stella* to "star" engaged Kelly who came to an affordance

for Language Awareness connecting her cousin's name "Stella" to the word "star".

Moreover, Chapter 8's analysis of various practices, such as Riccardo's eliciting

dynamic feedback, illustrated how a more vocal practice such as Riccardo's

contributing "César Chávez" as someone who "stood up for something" might

contribute an analeptic bridge for the entire class. These musings by the children,

within the class discussions, illustrate how multimodal proximal contexts may offer

bridges for the students to make connections with their own personal experiences or

general schema through which an affordance for Language Awareness may occur.

Affordances for proleptic awareness (or prompting inferences) were the third

most frequent LAREs category. All of these affordances resulted in an interactive

discussion. Chapter 7 presented the qualitative analysis illustrating how affordances

for proleptic awareness occurred within the practice of students finishing the

instructor's sentence, answering a question, or following an inference. Affordances

for proleptic awareness contributed to both the students' construction of inference, as

well as helped inform the instructor as to how the class might understand aspects of a text. For example, when the instructor repeats the phrase from the text, "born on the wind", she provides students with a little hint, "you barely hear it but it was_____". This open sentence provides space for students to step in and finish the utterance, "soft"; however, it also offers a little language puzzle for students to determine the inference. Affordances for proleptic awareness such as those described above provide semiotic information in which students and their teacher engage in affordances for Language Awareness. First, the students were gaining practices for interpreting a range of inferences within a narrative context. Second, by listening to how the students followed the inference, the instructor could determine how students understood the inference. This feedback from the students allowed the instructor to inform, modify or enhance the clues. Thirdly, for other students who might have been foraging for the inference, the co-construction of the inference may have provided an affordance for Language Awareness.

Finally, in the Chapter 6 quantitative analysis of affordances for awareness of register shifts, I found very few examples. In the qualitative analysis of affordances for register shifts which I presented in Chapter 7, I noted that the outside language consultant had often prescribed formulaic sentence frames as evidence of register shifts which the consultant described as "Formal Spoken English." In these instances, students produced the formulaic sentence frames following the outside consultant's definition. Although these instances would appear to provide students with more opportunity to practice, albeit unnaturally, the oral production of a more written style

of register, as I have argued earlier, the practice of speaking in complete sentences is not natural (McWhorter, 2013). The question of whether enforcing a written mode of communication in students' oral language helps students engage in academic tasks can be challenged. In fact, Bunch (2006) found students used less formal English which he identified as "language of ideas" while engaging in crucial academic tasks. As I noted in the case study with Yasmine, the language she used to conceptualize a new topic was not the academic term "constant" but an approximation through translanguaging, *siempre.* Bunch also found that the language students use while engaging in crucial academic tasks can be subsequently transformed into a more formal "language of display" for particular audiences and purposes (Bunch, 2006). This was also found in my study when students co-constructed a letter to the principal in order to persuade her to allow them to watch a film. Jafar lobbied for the class to include the word "perhaps" in the following sentence: "Perhaps" you are concerned that this film is not appropriate? Jafar's choice of language illustrates both his desire and his Language Awareness of the more formal "language of display" directed to the principal.

Other findings in which students explored social uses of affordances for register shifts were noted in the Chapter 8 case analyses. In particular, Riccardo appeared to recall and appropriate language used by Mrs. B. He also explored changes in the prosodic (intonation and rhythm) qualities of his speech in ways which appeared to imitate the authoritative positioning of his teacher. In this way, Riccardo whose language practices incorporated eliciting dynamic feedback appeared to

explore the value of his register choices for positioning himself within specific social contexts. For example, he chose this style of speech when contributing language which he perceived as "more advanced". He also chose this adult-like style as a means of leveraging a reprimand.

In this section, I have described findings within Chapters 5, 6, 7, and 8 which address the research questions of this study. In summary, the broader ecology of the school, district, state, and federal government language education policy influenced the construction of affordances for Language Awareness by constraining how language was used in the classroom. Although this study found that affordances for Language Awareness were often constrained by language education policy, the instructor and her students found ways to engage in semiotic activities while exploring classroom texts which contributed to affordances for Language Awareness.

This study shows how the overarching macro policy measures behind NCLB are at odds with our current understanding of learning within language ecologies. Van Lier (2007) had complained that the educational system characterizes learners as "input-consuming and output-producing collectivity of homogeneous (or homogenizable) entities" (p. 47). The overarching message of the macro policies behind NCLB is that that we can treat all learners in the same way. The district's response to NCLB's *Reading First* program was to place students in leveled reading classes which assumed that teachers can, "expose them [students] to the same textbook pages at the same time, and test them in the same way on the same days"

(van Lier, 2007, p. 47) and students will all learn in the same way. As van Lier

critiques, schools play lip service to the diversity of learners but the homogenizing

macro culture is at odds with the ecology within the classroom. This study illustrates

van Lier's (2007) argument that affordances for Language Awareness cannot be

controlled, but emerge organically when the ecological conditions are just right. For

example, evidence in the LAREs where students contribute their responses in a range

of registers, sometimes playfully offering translations, such as "La Grande Manzana",

sometimes asking questions like "Why didn't they kill their masters?" or "Why were

slaves only black?" and sometimes correcting the instructor, illustrate the coalescing

of elements which are meaningful to the students. These practices are such that

students in the case studies all indicated that the classroom was one in which they

could "pay attention and learn."

Finally, the restrictive language and literacy policies promoted by NCLB were

challenged in some ways by the teacher's valuing of bilingualism. The instructor's

ideology around bilingualism also stood in contrast to the larger policy context.

Because the instructor was multilingual herself and consistently drew on bilingualism

as a resource in her classroom, she expressed through her practice a language

diversity as a resource ideology which may have also conveyed   her confidence in

the students' abilities. In this manner, given the findings of this study, the proximal

contexts of this study appear to contribute to both engagement and access for

affordances for Language Awareness in language learning (van Lier, 1996, 2004,

2008).

Limitations and Areas of Research

In this section I discuss the limitations of this study and consider areas of future research. While this study finds that affordances for Language Awareness occurred despite the constraints of the policy context, this study presents a limited portrait of one classroom. As a qualitative study, the findings in this study cannot be generalized to other learning contexts. How affordances for Language Awareness are constructed by other students in other classrooms with other teachers is a necessary area of future research. For example, while I noted several variations in the ways students constructed affordances for Language Awareness, these variations cannot be generalized to other transitional classes. While this was not a study of the honors classes at Sandy Shores, limited case study data collected when Maria transitioned to the honors classes suggest that the honors students engaged in affordances for Language Awareness differently. Maria had reported that they had more confidence to use their multilingual abilities in problem solving. How the honors students might draw on their multilingual abilities as compared to transitional students is another topic for future research.

Furthermore, this study does not present an exhaustive list of ways in which Language Awareness could occur. The LAREs may also occur differently within different learning contexts; therefore, a further examination of the LAREs is another area of future research. Another question is how are affordances for Language Awareness constructed differently by students at different ages? Middle school

students present a wide range in emotional, physical and social development which may stabilize in older students. How does student maturity impact possibilities for affordances for Language Awareness? Would older students demonstrate practices more like the *foraging* observed in Yahyah and Maria? How might older students or adults marshal engagement in affordances for Language Awareness differently from younger students? Likewise, what do affordances for Language Awareness look like in an elementary level classroom? As this study presents a preliminary understanding of how affordances for Language Awareness are constructed in a middle school classroom, there are many other possibilities for future research.

Another limitation of this study was my ability to transcribe and analyze the limited uses of Spanish in the classroom. While students often whispered in Spanish among themselves, they did not use Spanish openly in the classroom. Thus, while translanguaging may have occurred, my inability to capture translanguaging was a limitation within this study. I also was reliant on the teacher or students for translation as I am not a proficient speaker of Spanish. While translanguaging as a pedagogical tool has only begun to be explored (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Sayer, 2013), it would seem to be an area of promising future research, especially for the purposes of contributing to affordances for Language Awareness within bilingual communities. How might the opportunity to translanguage impact the access to cognitively challenging language and concepts? What practices might teachers employ to use translanguaging as a pedagogical tool in providing resources for supporting affordances for Language Awareness? How might translanguaging be a tool which

aids in altering student perspectives about themselves as learners? Future research may bring a better understanding to how translanguaging could be used in building conceptual knowledge in contributing to affordances for Language Awareness. These many questions illustrate both the limitations of this study and much potential for future research.

Implications for Teachers and Policy Makers

There are several implications of this study for teachers and policy makers. Teachers can be a resource in contributing to classroom practices in which affordances for Language Awareness may occur. I consider the complexity of Language Awareness and the notion that students may experience Language Awareness in a variety of ways. I also examine some misconceptions around student learning and consider how even within Program Improvement (PI) schools teachers can resist the dominant discourse and supplant it with teaching practices that provide opportunities for students to draw on their heritage language to learn.

Language Awareness is co-constructed in a variety of ways. This study contributes to explaining the complexity of learners gaining affordances for Language Awareness within a classroom context. The learners in this study came to an affordance for Language Awareness in a variety of ways. Students participating in this study did not engage in LAREs in a uniform way. For example, Yahyah and Maria foraged for affordances for Language Awareness. These findings support van Lier's claim that affordances for Language Awareness occur when the learner is

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actively perceiving, and seeking out information, while engaging with the language environment. Moreover, these findings also illustrate how the coalescing of a classroom community through dynamic feedback, as was the case for Zico and Riccardo, and through being drawn into a community of learners, as was the case for Yasmine and Lucca, contributes to the proximal contexts within which individual learners may seek out information to engage in affordances for Language Awareness.

This study also contributes to understanding how students engage and make connections very differently. First, students may gain an affordance for Language Awareness by *foraging* although their classroom participation is reserved in contributing to the classroom dialogs. Some students, especially more expert learners, may seek out the language and content information they need by *foraging* for Language Awareness through keen listening and determined reading. These practices reflect the action-oriented learners described by van Lier (2004, 2007) in which students marshaled available resources seeking out the proximal contexts necessary to promote affordances for Language Awareness. Both Yahyah and Maria identified themselves as college-bound students; their activity in class reflects this determination, although both were reserved in their contributions to class discussions. In contrast, Yasmine and Lucca engaged in affordances for Language Awareness through drawing in and "learning to perceive the relationships of possibility" (van Lier, 2007, p. 45). Still others, like Riccardo and Zico, engaged in affordances for Language Awareness through dynamic exchanges — engaging in a constant dialog allowing them to make comparisons, observations and queries. Moreover, others, like

Yasmine and Lucca, were drawn into the language community of the classroom to engage in affordances for Language Awareness through the attention of classmates and teachers. This study found learners are unique. They construct meaning differently. The implications are that teachers and curricular materials must allow for a range of ability in the classroom around constructing affordances for Language Awareness.

This study also revealed disturbing evidence about the ways that larger societal attitudes impact how children think about their language(s). With this in mind, as teachers and administrators, we must learn to curb assumptions about learners based solely on their oral language production. The students in Mrs. B's classroom had experienced the majority of their education under NCLB and after the implementation of California's Prop 227. As a result, student attitudes about using language in school seemed to reflect the larger societal ideologies which privilege monolingual English speakers. For example, although each of the children described within the cases possessed a range of language abilities in both English, Spanish, and in Maria's case Oaxacan, the students did not publicly access cross-linguistic affordances for Language Awareness. Student responses in the surveys revealed that English held greater prestige, and students viewed English as a more advanced language, while other languages (such as Spanish) were not viewed as "academic." Maria believed that the transitional students did not have the confidence to draw on Spanish for problem solving while the honors students did. Maria's belief reflected the transitional students' survey responses that Spanish "is not appropriate for

school." Although Yasmine used both languages for problem solving outside of school, she did not in school. These findings have profound implications in terms of the children's opportunities to draw on the language resources that children bring to the classroom.

Furthermore, because of the constraints around language use in the schools, opening the classroom space to allow for the use of two languages as a tool appeared to require the status of an adult (such as Mrs. B or myself) to openly initiate or invite translanguaging (Garcia, 2009) and draw on two languages to conceptualize information. By encouraging Yasmine, I found that she readily drew on her knowledge of Spanish to help her in remembering difficult math concepts. Other students, like Zico, appeared to be more engaged when the classroom conversation offered metalinguistic analysis which drew on Spanish and English cognates. The implication is that adults may counter to some extent these larger societal constraints inhibiting children from drawing upon the range of language resources available to them.

Teachers as Agents of Language Policy: Another implication of this study is that even within PI schools teachers can find ways to counter the effects of NCLB and its ideological thrust. Teachers and administrators can help their students by supporting a language diversity as a resource orientation.

Students' inhibitions around publicly drawing on their multi-competent abilities reflect the constraining monolingual ideology of *language diversity as a*

problem under NCLB and the post-227 policy climate in California, prescribing English only in the classroom. Chapter 5 provided some insight into how the multi-layered policy context impacted the classroom discourse within which affordances for Language Awareness occurred in this study.

While this study shows that, even within PI schools, some teachers may be able to resist the dominant discourse and supplant it with teaching practices that provide opportunities for students to draw on their heritage language to learn, this is not enough. Furthermore, given that 85% of California's English learners speak Spanish at home and that the majority of these students are native born Californians (Hill, 2012), the perception that all English learners are "non-native" speakers of English or immigrants is largely false. Children growing up within communities, such as the one in this study are experiencing, to some degree, simultaneous bilingual acquisition which may be aligned with a view of bilingualism that acknowledges the role translanguaging may play in the process of language acquisition (Garcia, 2009) As I argued in Chapter 2, the monolingual lens which has dominated research in both Second Language Acquisition and bilingualism has been focused on psychometric tests of language proficiency in one or the other language. As Bailey (2007) suggested, tests do not distinguish between academic concepts a child understands and the language they are expected to use to demonstrate this knowledge. The monolingual perspective on learning has ignored the possibility that children within multi-competent communities learn through translanguaging (Garcia, 2009). "The concept of translanguaging makes obvious that there are no clear cut boundaries

between the languages of bilinguals. What we have is a languaging continuum"
(Garcia, 2009, p. 47). This possibility has profound implications on learning which is
largely ignored by policy makers.

Building upon Bunch's (2006) notion of the "language of ideas", what would
the language of ideas look like in a classroom where children were allowed to use
their full language repertoire of language abilities while constructing affordances for
Language Awareness? The monolingual lens in Second Language Acquisition and
Bilingualism has historically been preoccupied with producing bilinguals who are two
monolinguals in one. This view neglects the possibility that growing up using a
"languaging continuum" may be the vehicle through which the "language of ideas"
are generated. In other words, what if the "language of ideas" happens through
translanguaging? Furthermore, what if the "language of display" evolves for the
multi-competent child as the academic language for a particular monolingual
discourse community? The constraints placed on schools and teachers by the current
language diversity as a problem ideology have prevented the possibility of even
considering these questions. What might a classroom look like where students are not
constrained by language policy as found in NCLB?

Taking the perspective of the bilingual whose range of language use is a
languaging continuum also challenges the notion of register within multi-competent
language communities. Register, as I have suggested, between multi-competent
language users may not be limited to a single language. The lines between languages

have been traditionally defined from the monolingual perspective. This study has provided some evidence of students shifting languages in the way one might shift register (as in Riccardo's use of *Está bien* to affirm that the answer he gave his classmate was correct). However, research is needed to study the complexity of translanguaging, and register shifts from a multi-competent L1/L2 user perspective to understand how translanguaging might contribute to affordances for Language Awareness.

In conclusion, this study suggests that despite the constraining policy context under NCLB, the students and their teacher engaged in affordances for Language Awareness through exploring language and content while negotiating text. As a study influenced by the ecological perspective of van Lier, I have aimed to include the macro policy context, the microsystem ecology of the classroom, and to characterize the range of practices which I observed among the case students. While this study presents but a slice of time, the portrait presented illustrates on some level language-as-activity within a classroom as proposed by van Lier's ecological perspective (2007). Furthermore, this portrait provides some insights around what an affordance for Language Awareness might look like within the context of a language classroom and some of the factors which contribute to affordances for Language Awareness so that others may draw on this work.

Where did you go to school in…

Grade	School Name? Your teacher?	City?	Describe a memorable event? Describe something you are most proud of, something very funny or anything about that grade, school or time in your life which stands out in your mind.
7th			
6th			
5th			
4th			
3rd			
2nd			
1st			
Kindergarten			

What do you remember most from the time before you started school? Where were you living? Who did you spend your days with? Describe anything you could say during this time in your life?

Appendix B: Reading Survey

Questions	Response	
How often do you read?	1/30 never, 29/30 did not answer question	Potentially a spacing/font problems as Ss did not appear to notice the question as it was at the top of the page, and majority did not answer question.
What do you read? Rank most to least frequent.	Answers ranged from: texting and instant messaging (IM), reading books for school, text books, novels and SSR (sustained silent reading), magazines, newspapers and comic books, email, notes & letters, homework, directions, labels on supermarket items, song lyrics and poetry.	Text messaging/IMing:24/30 indicated they text message and of the 24, 22 indicated that they text daily or every day, ranked texted as their number 1 most frequent reading activity. The remaining students reported reading texts messages less frequently either 4 times a week or when texted. Books/textbooks: 26/30 indicated reading books with 8 students indicating a textbook or school related reading task as the books they read. The ranking of frequency for reading books on a scale of 1 to 7 with 1 being most frequent or daily to 7 being lest frequent, the mean ranking was 2 or several times a week. The implication is that book reading is primarily done for school. Magazines/Newspapers/Comic strips: 19/30 students indicated that they read magazines, newspapers or comic books. While 3 indicated they did this daily, the remaining reported doing this 3-4 times per week. Email: Only 10 indicated they use email and only 2 of the 10 indicated that they check email daily, while the remaining indicated a few times per week through an email service or

		messaging capabilities on myspace or Facebook. <u>Notes/Letters</u>: 7 indicated reading notes or letters. Only 1 of the 7 reported reading notes or letters "all the time". The rest reported reading notes/letters "sometimes" or "rarely" <u>Homework</u>: 4 reported reading for homework daily or every night. <u>Directions or Instructions</u>: 13 reported reading directions or instructions of the 13, 5 specified reading instructions for video or computer games. <u>Labels on supermarket items</u>: 17 indicated reading labels on supermarket items such as cereal boxes, chip bags at least a couple times a week.
4. What do you think are the most important things to know how to read?	10 reading books and 7 school work or homework 10 reading instructions, directions and forms/contracts 4 reading is important to read forms/contracts 3 reading is important to get a good job 1 to go to college	The purposes students perceive reading as important for reading books and that instructions, directions, school work and forms or contracts are important to know how to read.
5. How much time do you spend reading on the computer every day?	daily 10 min 2 x 15 min 3 x 30 minutes one hour & 2 x 1-2 hours per day 2 hours & 2 x 2-3 hours 3-4 hours	Of the 24 students who answered the questionnaire about reading, 12 reported reading on the computer daily but of the 12 students 6 indicated they spend less than 30 minutes reading the computer while the other 6 reported using the computer for as much as 2 hours a day. Those student who did not use the computer daily, reported

	mostly the whole day 1 or 2 a week 3-4 x wk 5-10 mins 30 minutes or a 1 hour/ 2-3 x wk 4 x 1 hour 2 x week 1 time week sometimes I don't have a computer when I'm bored	using it 1-2 times a week for between 30 min and 1 hour. One student volunteered that he did not have a computer at home.
6. How often do you or your family members read? Who reads to whom? What kinds of things do you read together?	17 Indicated that they do not read with their family or never read at home with family members. 9 indicated that they read to younger siblings. 1 said that a cousin reads letters in Spanish from the family in Mexico. 1 read sports magazines with dad 1 the family reads together every day.	
7. What other languages do you read in besides English? How often do you read in another language with members of your family?	20 family reads in Spanish 1 Pilipino 1 Hindi 3 they don't read in another language	Of the students said that their family readings in another language, 7 specifically volunteered that they speak but do not read in the language.
8. When you don't	13 reread 4 asks friend	The students were also asked what they did when they

understand something your read, list all the ways you try to understand it?	4 asks mom/dad 3 ask a teacher 3 asks someone else 3 skip it/ignore it 1 asks an adult 1 online 6 look in dictionary 4 ask family members 4 stop and think, try to figure it out themselves 2 sound it out	didn't understand something they read. Of the lists of strategies, the most common answer (13) was to reread, 18 ask someone else with 8 students specifically indicating they ask a family member, mom or dad, 4 a friend, 3 a teacher and 1 an adult. 6 student said they look to the dictionary. 4 said they stop and try to think about it and figure it out themselves. 2 reported that they sound it out. 3 indicated they skip or ignore what they don't understand.
9. In your family, who reads the most and what kinds of things does he or she read?	9 they read most in family (reading, school books or novels) 8 mom (majority mail & bills, 1 helps mom with bills) 5 siblings 3 dad (mail, bills, letters) 1 cousin	Corresponds with what is most important to read (10 students reported books) and with macro factor of school-wide zap program prompting ss to read more.

Appendix C: Writing Survey

Questions:	Response: Tally: N= 30	Data Analysis
What do you write? Rank most to least frequent.	<u>Text</u> 19 = daily 2 = 1-2 times per week 2 = sometimes 1 = 'barely' No answer= 6 <u>Email</u> 5 = daily 4 = couple times a week 1 = sometimes 2 = often 19 = did not answer or write email <u>Social Networking sites</u> 12 = no answer 13 = Myspace 8 = Facebook 1 = Mocospace 7= daily 6 = 2-3 x per week 3 = once a week <u>Notes for class</u> 16 did not answer 12 daily 2 sometimes <u>Notes to friends</u> 19 did not answer 3 sometimes 3 Every other day 5 once a week <u>Journal/diary</u> 19 did not answer 4 once in a while 4 once a week 3 2-3 days a week <u>Homework</u> 16 daily 6 three times a week 8 did not answer	19 students reporting texting every day, while 19 student did not include email as a something they write. Many more students use social networking sites which have chat functionality. The significance of 'notes for class' is the students' perceived awareness of 'notes for class' as a writing act since they are all required to take notes and write things in class every day. 16 did not indicate 'notes for class' as a kind of writing habit while 12 did and 2 indicated, sometimes. In contrast, 22 indicated writing homework daily or every other day and 8 did not give homework as an answer. 20 students did not indicate writing letters/birthday cards or thank you notes, though, the instructor frequently requires students to write thank you notes to guest speakers, volunteers and funding sponsors for activities such as the Carmel writer's workshop.

	homework Letters/birthday/thank you cards 20 did not answer 1 wrote daily 3 every other day 5 2-3 per month 2 once a month 1 every few months	
4. What do you think are the most important things to know how to write?	9 forms/contracts 2 texting, 2 myspace&FB, 2 email 5 letters (knowing how to spell because people will laugh at you) 3 spelling 4 Cornel notes & 4 Notes/lesson notes 2 homework 1 summary biography	
5. How much time do you spend writing on the computer every day?	11 daily ranging in time from 15 min- 2 hours 8 2-3 x per week 3 once a week 2 free time 1 only plays games & does not write 1 parents lock computer so limited access 0 did not answer	Correlate with reading question
6. How often do you or your family members write? Who writes to whom? What kinds of	5 indicated helping siblings, cousins, other family members write or do homework. 5 indicated texting and myspace IM with family and one texts to an aunt in Mexico. 1 forms 3 birthday cards/letters 3-1 x per week 1 sometimes	Correlate with reading

things do you write together?	4 never	
7. What other languages do you write in besides English? How often do you write in another language with members of your family?	22 Spanish at home 9 do not know how to write 2 only write a little 4 sometimes 7 write everyday 2 never write in Spanish 2 text with mom in Spanish 1 Hindi speaker	22 indicated that they use Spanish at home but 9 indicated they do not know how to write in Spanish and 2 said they only write a little in Spanish, 4 said they write sometimes, 7 said they write every day and 2 indicated they text with mom in Spanish. 2 said they never write in Spanish. There is one Hindi speaker who does not know how to read in Hindi.
8. When you want to write something, but can't think of how to write it, what do you usually do to think of how to write it?	9 Ask family (mom, dad, cousins, siblings) 7 go online 6 ask friends 4 ask teachers 4 ask someone or adult 2 stop and think 1 message family in Mx 1 dictionary 2 never / none 3 did not answer	
9. Describe as many different ways of writing as you can think of and when people use	21 gave texting and or text symbols. Note all are in English but this may be because they are writing to their audience.	

the different ways of writing?		

Appendix D: Academic Language Survey

Analysis of Academic Language Survey:	Tallied responses	Student quotes
1. Have you ever heard of Academic Language? What does Academic Language mean?	20 yes - 8 specifically indicated studying English 8 no 2 did not answer question	"It means learning about the English language." "to me academic language means using English vocabulary when you're talking." "Academic language means to me a bunch of students struggling in English."
2. Where have you seen or heard the word Academic Language?	16 heard at school	
3. Where do you hear Academic Language?	26 at school 1 in a job or profession 1 written language	
4. Why do you study Academic language?	9 to get better in English	
5. How is Academic Language the same or different from other ways of using language?		"It sounds better." "It is different from Spanish because its English." "I think Academic language is a higher level" "academic language is appropriate for school and the other words are not" "Academic language is a more advance language and other languages are different because they aren't academic."
6. What is the Academic Word of the Day (AWD)?	14 Important words for the day that they study	"It is a word of pride"
7. Write down as many Academic Words of the Day as you can remember? What can you say about these words?		
8. Describe how the AWD is used in your school classes:		

Appendix E: Transcription Conventions

Symbol:	Definition:
Mrs. B.	Mrs. Balboa, the instructor
Ss	Students whose voices were not recognizable
Italics	For words other than English
"*Italics*"	Text begin read
( )	Situational context described by researcher not evident in the words expressed
International Phonemic Alphabet	Used to transcribe language variation. For example, [liʒur] or [leʒsur] is used to show the two pronunciations of *leisure*
Capitals	Emphasis

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