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Editorial
Silencing Students' Voices in an Era of Academic Language

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Fordham University

In one of my professional development sessions on academic language to teachers who work in multilingual public schools, I encountered the following response:

+ **PD facilitator**: *The academic language function serves to identify how students learn in content lessons and how they can use language to learn. Thus, it is important to listen to what students say during lessons.*

+ **Ms. L:** *My 5th graders do not know how to talk. I rather they just listen to me.*

As the presentation continued, my thoughts focused on what I heard the teacher say. To me the phrase *My 5th graders do not know how to talk,* reflected a teacher's theory of practice that devalued not only students' ways of talking but students' ways of thinking. It supported a *silencing* of students voices that countered what we know about the role of language in content learning, in building the academic repertoire of students, and in molding students self-concept as thinkers and knowledgeable learners (Fine, 1987; Solorza, 2019).

Language's role in learning has been underscored in the scholarly literature in recent years. For instance, education in the 21st century calls for the negotiation of multiple forms of information in contemporary societies which requires an enhancement of communication skills (Acedo & Hughes, 2014). Moreover, it is argued that language, both oral and in writing, is central to learning (Lahey, 2017) in an increasingly globalized and digitalized world (de Oliveira & Smith, 2019). Some scholars also explain that the Common Core State Standards focus on developing academic language across core content areas to negotiate the requirements for deeper comprehension of text that are of increasing complexity (Fu et al., 2019; Lesaux & Harris, 2015; O'Hara et al., 2012).

Cognitivism and constructivism theoretical perspectives stress talking and dialogue as key to learning (Darling-Hammond, et al., 2019). They contend that interactions between teachers and learners and among student peers where they

provide one another feedback as well as receive it, promote brain development, enhance metacognitive skills, and offer an increase of opportunities to strengthen learners' self-concept and stimulate their socio-emotional maturity.

Learning in contemporary classrooms should build all students capacities to communicate academic knowledge and understanding in English as well as in students' full range of their linguistic repertoire (García et al., 2017; Jacobson, 2010; Lahey, 2017). As Solorza (2019) argued,

> How we structure the use of language while teaching content in classrooms determines a student's language output. Although such a declaration seems obvious, it highlights the power we hold as teachers, the power to deliberately *invite* or *silence* features from our students' linguistic repertoire as they interact with curricular content (p. 99).

Unfortunately, the power that Ms. L. exerted in judging her multicultural and multilingual students' language that limits their opportunities to think and share their thoughts in her classroom, is not an isolated observation. This form of power, where what is voiced in classrooms is at the expense of the silence of some students, is what Skutnabb-Kangas & Phillipson (1989) denoted as *linguism*, that is the unequal division of power and resources on the basis of language. Also relevant is the construct of *linguistic marginalization* which has been documented as a form of educational oppression (Flores, 2019), that denotes dynamics in multilingual classrooms which promote silencing over valuing students voicing their knowledge. Others connect these constructs to language oppression as a tool to erase minoritized languages from society within and outside the United States (Hartman, 2003; Roche, 2019).

Using a raciolinguistic theoretical lens (Flores & Rosa, 2015) the silencing of students across different content lessons which promotes a loss of learning (Fu et al., 2019) in multilingual classrooms must be contested. The research literature offers some suggestions about what teachers could do to break the silencing of students in learning content through language. For instance, Anstrom's, et al., (2010) research review, showed that students need practice using language that speaks from a less personal to a more public perspective. Teachers should involve students in discussions concerning the identification and uses of academic English in various genres and in recognizing the value of using different *Englishes* to communicate knowledge (Canagarajah, 2013).

Specifically, educators should acquire linguistic knowledge, understand the role of language in learning academic knowledge and language, and develop knowledge in designing instruction that validates the rich and diverse linguistic repertoire of students while augmenting their fluency in acquiring the academic register (Dutro & Moran, 2003; Fillmore & Snow, 2000; Halliday, 1993). Thus, not surprisingly, international researchers as well from the United States call for innovation in the pre-service and in-service of all teachers which should add content and practical experiences in how language supports learning of content. For instance, researchers in Australia have advocated for education and professional development of teachers that focus on Knowledge About Language (KAL) across different content areas (Gleeson & Davidson, 2018). Focusing on the preparation of educators in this nation, Bailey et al. (2007)

argued that teachers need to learn how to *think linguistically*, in order to appreciate the many ways that teaching and learning are embedded in language use. Lindahl & Watkins (2015) proposed the development of *teachers' language awareness*, that is, the enactment of a lens that teachers may use to filter the design of instruction where language is both the medium and the object of instruction. In other words, teachers should be clear about the role of language in creating meaning as it is used to teach content (Fillmore & Snow, 2000).

To counter the oppressive silencing of students voicing of their knowledge several researchers offer instructional strategies for teachers *to listen* (Canagarajah, 2013; de Oliveira & Smith, 2019; Fu et al., 2019; García, 2009; Solorza, 2019). In multilingual classrooms voicing of knowledge could happen in a variety of ways allowing for the rich linguistic repertoires of students. For example, monolingual English speakers as well as emergent bilinguals, may communicate their knowledge or make inquiries using conversational structures in their home languages. When students share ideas about concepts, they may use a combination of conversational and academic language, orally or in writing. Of course, for emergent bilinguals their use of academic language may also happen in any single or combination of the named languages (Otheguy et al., 2015) they know and use to communicate. Thus, to reframe language use to learn content in multilingual classrooms equitably, educators, both teachers and administrators, must assume a language-as-a-resource ideology, that views language as a human right and as an asset to the learning process (Daly & Sharma, 2018; de Jong, 2011; Goldenberg, 2008; Hammer et al., 2020; Planas & Setati-Phakeng, 2014; Ruíz, 1984).

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Investigating the Enactment of Core Teaching Practices for Multilingual Learners Across Teaching Contexts: A Case Study

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Scholarship in language education has produced a specialized knowledge base for educating multilingual learners (MLs) that encompasses what teachers should know, i.e., the knowledge of learning a new language, and what teachers should be able to do with this knowledge in the classroom, i.e., effective pedagogical practices. In this article, we argue that it is important to identify pedagogy that has been proven to be effective in educating MLs and explore ways to engage pre-service and practicing teachers in using it in the classroom. We present examples of two specific core-teaching practices derived from research in language education and explore what they look like in the enacted practice of an individual during her pre-service preparation and first four years of teaching. Findings from this longitudinal case study investigation illustrate how personal and teaching contexts inform instruction over time and can have implications for how teachers are prepared to work with MLs.

Scholarship in language education has produced a specialized knowledge base of teaching practices that are effective in helping multilingual learners (MLs) [1] achieve academically. This knowledge base is built on decades of research in diverse bilingual contexts, including transitional, immersion, and dual language classrooms, as well as second language education contexts such as English as a second language (ESL), content-based, and English language development (ELD) classrooms (August & Shanahan, 2006; Hinkel, 2011; Saunders & Goldenberg, 2010). Supporting teachers to learn how to enact these practices in ways that address the unique needs of their learners is central to the work of teacher educators.

Recent teacher preparation initiatives defining the content of teacher education have not taken into account the specialized knowledge base on educating MLs (Grossman, 2018). Ignoring the existence of a specialized pedagogy for multilingual

learners risks affirming the myth that simply 'good teaching' will meet the needs of unique populations of learners, which will have detrimental impacts in the classroom for some of the most vulnerable learners (de Jong & Harper, 2005). In response to these sentiments, in this article we argue that it is imperative to identify practices proven to be effective in educating MLs and explore how pre-service and practicing teachers use these practices in the classroom.

To study a teacher's practice, research must unearth how a teacher enacts a particular practice to meet her MLs' needs and explore how this teacher justifies the practice. Classroom practice reflects an ongoing negotiation of multiple variables including the teacher's beliefs and personal language learning history brought to the teaching context, as well as the conditions of the teaching context including the school culture and the characteristics of the learners. We refer to this negotiation process as a teacher's theory of practice (Dubetz 2002, 2012). The research reported in this article explores a teacher's theory of practice for MLs in two ways. First, it provides evidence of particular research-based practices for MLs in one teacher's instruction over time. Then, it explores how the teacher's understandings about language learning inform how she enacts these practices in particular ways with her students.

In this article, we present a case study of one teacher, Carmen, who we followed over a six-year period to understand how her theory of practice around language teaching and learning developed, and what her practice might reveal about how she was prepared to be a bilingual teacher. Collected data include Carmen's instructional practice during her pre-service teacher preparation and her first years as a credentialed, practicing teacher. To study how Carmen's pedagogical practice supported her multilingual students' learning, we focus on two research-based practices, referred to as *core-teaching practices,* that Carmen learned in her pre-service preparation.

This study was part of a larger longitudinal investigation of research-based practices introduced to three cohorts of teacher interns participating in a pre-service program. One of the larger program goals was to ensure all teachers were prepared to effectively teach MLs. The two core-teaching practices under investigation were: (a) frontloading and reinforcing academic language, and (b) using multilingual learners' resources to scaffold learning. The following research questions guided data collection and analysis: How does a pre-service intern enact core-teaching practices to support her multilingual learners? How does this same individual enact core-teaching practices to support her multilingual learners as a practicing teacher? What are the changes in how this individual uses these core-teaching practices in the transition from pre-service to practicing teacher?

Literature Review

Educating Multilingual Learners

Prominent language education scholars have constructed models of effective preparation for mainstream teachers of MLs. Examples include the work of de Jong and Harper (2005) as well as Lucas, Villegas, and Freedson-Gonzales (2008). These models weave together general knowledge, skills, and dispositions expected of effective teachers for multilingual learners. For example, in Lucas et al. (2008) *linguistically responsive teaching* model, teachers are expected to identify classroom language demands across particular disciplines, develop an understanding of the principles of second language learning, and know how to apply these second language acquisition (SLA) principles to scaffold instruction. In addition, these teachers must demonstrate particular dispositions to include sociolinguistic consciousness, a valuing of linguistic diversity, and an inclination toward advocacy. The most effective way to help novice teachers develop important knowledge, skills, and dispositions for teaching MLs is to provide teachers with opportunities to learn through carefully scaffolded, practice-based experiences. In other words, novice teachers should learn the practice by 'doing' the practice and reflecting on that experience.

One approach to establishing a practice-based curriculum for teacher preparation is to identify a common set of research-based instructional practices proven effective in meeting students' academic needs. Multiple terms in the teacher education literature have been used to identify a common set of research-based instructional practices including high leverage practices (Ball & Fornazi, 2011), core practices (McDonald et al., 2013), and general pedagogical practices or instructional strategies (Hiebert & Morris, 2012). Despite differences in terminology these research-based instructional practices share a common set of tenets. Central to these tenets is the underlying assumptions that practice is a space where content and pedagogy coexist, and instructional decision-making is guided by a teacher's prior knowledge and experiences in deciding when, how, and where to use an appropriate practice.

We have chosen to use the term *core-teaching practices* in our work. To identify core teaching practices for preparing teachers to work with MLs, we adopted a set of criteria that Grossman, Hammerness, and McDonald (2009) and McDonald et al. (2013) recommend for establishing a set of common practices for teacher preparation in general. First, a core-teaching practice for MLs must be research-based; meaning that second language and bilingual scholars identified the core-teaching practice as having a positive impact on MLs' learning of both language and content. Thus, the core practice must incorporate aspects of language and content learning. A core-teaching practice must respond to varying levels of linguistic proficiency, such that it addresses the language needs of both emergent MLs who are at the earlier stages of linguistic development and more proficient MLs. Moreover, a core-teaching practice must be adaptable across multiple contexts including bilingual and English-medium classrooms. Finally, all teachers, including novice teachers at the early stages of their professional learning, must be able to implement a core-teaching practice. Using these criteria, we identified a set of core-teaching practices that guided our larger six-year investigation

of how effective pre-service candidates were in teaching MLs as they transitioned into classrooms as credentialed teachers.

Core-teaching Practices

This section provides a brief literature review of the two core-teaching practices that are the focus of this case study: (a) frontloading and reinforcing academic and task-related language, and (b) using multilingual learners' resources to scaffold learning in a new language.

Introducing Multilingual Learners to Academic Language

The importance of integrating language and content instruction in the classroom to meet MLs' academic needs has been widely recognized by scholars in language education for over 30 years (Short, 1994; Snow et al., 1989). Without preparation in how to develop what scholars refer to as *pedagogical language knowledge* (Bunch, 2013; Galguera, 2011) novice classroom teachers will tend to focus on content, rather than language in their teaching.

Mastery of academic language is crucial for developing the level of academic literacy MLs need to meet grade-level content standards; language education scholars have consistently underscored the importance of exposing MLs to academic language (DeCerbo et al., 2014; Gibbons, 2009; Schleppegrell, 2004; Short, 1994; Snow & Katz, 2010). Drawing upon the work of Schleppegrell (2004) and Gibbons (2009), we define academic language as the language required to understand and participate in the discourse communities of the academic subjects taught in school. Gibbons (2009) notes "the language associated with academic learning traditionally 'codes' knowledge in ways that are different from everyday ways of expressing what we know" (p. 5). As a result, teachers must incorporate practices that provide MLs with access to this linguistic knowledge.

Schleppegrell (2009) argues the linguistic features of academic registers that characterize discipline-based language tasks in school reveal both a specialized lexicon, or vocabulary, and the use of particular grammars. Effective teachers must expose MLs to this academic language in meaningful ways. Pedagogical approaches recommended in the second language literature include frontloading academic language, as well as focused and repeated practice with this language during instruction.

Frontloading academic language is a strategy recommended for use during English Language Development (ELD), a time allocated during the instructional day to increase MLs' proficiency in the new language (Dutro & Kinsella, 2010; Dutro & Moran, 2002). Frontloading is an instructional routine that exposes MLs to multiple aspects of a given language including grammar, vocabulary, and language functions before the introduction of key concepts, classroom activities, and assignments. It is important to note that frontloading includes vocabulary, as well as important language forms and structures MLs must master in order to access content.

Frontloading is not to be confused with teaching lessons on isolated grammar points or language structures, an approach that has been demonstrated to be ineffective for advancing MLs' language proficiency (Lyster, 2004). Different genres will contain different sets of language functions, language structures, and content-specific

vocabulary that invoke different ways of engaging with a text. Teachers should introduce relevant vocabulary and language structures as part of the instruction around the topic or text under study, and then consistently and deliberately reinforce these structures during instruction. In other words, in any given lesson frontloading can look quite different. For example, in one lesson a teacher may choose to focus on teaching targeted vocabulary and linguistic forms to all students at the beginning of a lesson. While in another lesson that same teacher might introduce linguistic forms to MLs during a period when students are practicing or applying newly learned content and skills.

To participate in academic discourse communities, successful learners must engage in the exchange of ideas across diverse disciplines including mathematics, natural sciences, social studies, and the various genres of literature. Students must be able to access academic content and demonstrate what they know using different language modalities of reading, writing, listening, and speaking for specific academic purposes. For example, these modalities will differ when presenting an argument or when using textual evidence to support an inference. Therefore, frontloading instruction in the academic language associated with particular academic tasks is only effective when supported by continued, focused practice with that language across a lesson. Based on a review of studies from Canadian immersion classrooms, Lyster (2004) outlines how instruction must include opportunities for focused and controlled language practice to help language learners notice and deconstruct complex language structures required to complete the task, and learn how to use language to effectively communicate with others.

Building upon this literature, we define the core-teaching practice of frontloading and reinforcing academic and task-related language as upholding the following characteristics.

- Teaching and reinforcing important academic vocabulary and linguistic forms necessary for MLs to understand the content. Examples of such practice may include: (a) introducing language in a small group prior a whole class lesson, or (b) reinforcing language to a targeted group of learners during practice segments of a lesson.
- Planning and communicating language objectives to learners across a given lesson.
- Deliberately and consistently using targeted academic language throughout a lesson.

Using Multilingual Learners' Linguistic Resources

The practice of using MLs' linguistic resources in the classroom is grounded in sociocultural theories of language learning (García & Kleifgen, 2010). In this section, we substitute "native" with "home" language to reflect the adoption of the term in the standards for language learning in New York State. Strategically using students' home languages during instruction extends beyond simply soliciting prior knowledge, but rather includes providing MLs access to supplementary materials in the home language that might involve using multilingual texts and media, targeted instruction in the home

language to build content knowledge, or review instruction conducted in English to ensure comprehension.

Translanguaging is a self-regulatory mechanism used by MLs when problem solving during academic tasks (Velasco & García, 2014). By recognizing translanguaging as a valid form of communication and a bridge to literacy development in the classroom, teachers convey to students that all forms of language are valued and can serve as a resource for learning. As a pedagogical approach to support MLs, teachers use translanguaging to scaffold learning by incorporating opportunities that engage children in investigating comparisons across languages.

Research identifies important relationships between home and second language literacy development (August & Shanahan, 2006; Riches & Genesse, 2006) and that supporting home language helps develop second language literacy (August & Shanahan, 2010; Escamilla et al., 2007; García, 2009; Goldenberg, 2013). For example, successful learners who are literate in their home language make use of cognates and apply previously learned comprehension skills to facilitate learning to read in their second language (Jiménez et al., 1995). August, Calderón, and Carlo (2002) found that Spanish-speaking students knew significantly more cognates than their English-speaking counterparts, which enhanced their English language acquisition. Lucas and Katz (1994) found that exemplary programs were places where children were encouraged to use their home languages to assist one another, tutor each other, and interact socially. In these programs, teachers also used children's home languages to check for comprehension, translate terminology, and interact socially with children.

New research is yielding recommended practices that assist multilingual learners and their teachers in making strategic connections between home and second languages (Celic & Seltzer, 2013; Escamilla et al., 2007; García et al., 2017; Velasco & García, 2014). Developing metalinguistic awareness by engaging learners in strategic comparisons of the native and second languages, for example emphasizing certain English phonemes and combinations of phonemes that do not exist in Spanish, can serve bilingual learners in their literacy development (August & Shanahan, 2006).

MLs bring a range of linguistic assets that are instructional resources. Effective teachers of MLs use learners' full repertoire of linguistic resources to build bridges to academic content in multiple ways. These may include the following practices.

- Solicit MLs' prior knowledge of content in the home language. English speaking classroom teachers who are not proficient in their students' home language(s) and culture can support students' use of home languages by encouraging children who share a common language to work together (Fassler, 2004; García et al., 2017).
- Promote the use of translanguaging in the classroom (García & Wei, 2013).
- Provide students with multilingual texts and translations across a given lesson. Multilingual texts include using well-written bilingual books and resources, and posting multilingual classroom displays (de Jong & Harper, 2005; de Jong et al., 2013).
- Highlight connections between languages. This may include using cognate charts, multilingual vocabulary, and syntax investigations, as well as promoting

multilingual research by engaging learners in investigations of their languages (Celic & Seltzer, 2013; García et al., 2017).

These two core-teaching practices served as the lens for our investigation of Carmen's teaching practice and the theory of practice that informed her instructional decisions.

Methods

To study how a novice teacher developed an understanding of, and enacted core-teaching practices, we used a case study approach to collect and analyze data of a teacher, Carmen, across a six-year period spanning her pre-service preparation experience and her initial four years of teaching. We return to the research questions guiding the study to frame the methodological approaches used to collect and analyze data. These questions include: How does a pre-service intern enact two core-teaching practices to support her multilingual learners? How does this same individual enact these same core-teaching practices to support her multilingual learners as a practicing teacher? What are the changes in how this individual uses these core-teaching practices in the transition from pre-service to practicing teacher?

Participant

Carmen, a Spanish-English bilingual educator, is the focus of the case study under investigation. Carmen was born in the United States to parents of Puerto Rican descent. Raised in a bilingual home, Carmen decided to pursue her bilingual certification when she entered her teacher preparation program. At this time Carmen was in her early 20s and recently earned her undergraduate degree.

Teacher Preparation Program

Carmen was enrolled in an elementary school teacher-preparation program at an urban public university that included a teacher residency. All teacher candidates enrolled in this program simultaneously completed graduate-level classes and a yearlong residency internship in a local school. As part of their coursework and prior to entering their internship, candidates were required to complete a two-course sequence focusing on multilingual learners. The initial course, *Issues of Bilingualism,* introduced and reinforced aspects of second language development theory as well as practices grounded in research on language learning, biliteracy development, and strategic uses of native or home languages in assessment and instruction (August & Shanahan, 2010; Edelsky, 1986; Escamilla & Coady, 2001; Escamilla et al., 2007; García, 2009; Manyak, 2002). The second course, *English as a Second Language Methods,* focused on classroom practices for teaching grade level content for students learning English as a new language. Candidates identified and analyzed practices in the classroom to support multilingual learners using resources from the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) (Echevarría et al., 2010/2014). While it is important to recognize the criticisms that have been made about the SIOP model (Crawford & Reyes, 2015; Palmer & Martinez, 2013), the SIOP resources include videos and case studies of concrete examples of teachers incorporating academic language practice into instruction. The SIOP rating scales were useful for engaging pre-service teachers in critiquing particular practices. Because we were aware of the SIOP's limited emphasis on the use of MLs

home language in scaffolding instruction, we emphasized practices around home language use in the initial course of the sequence.

Across the two-course sequence candidates were taught methodological practice and theory aligned to supporting the linguistic and academic needs of multilingual learners to help candidates begin to construct a theory of practice on how and when to implement certain core-teaching practices into their pedagogy. Among the core-teaching practices candidates were introduced to across this two-course sequence were the two practices that are the focus of this case study investigation. As noted, these two core-teaching practices include: (a) frontloading and reinforcing academic language, and (b) using MLs' linguistic resources to scaffold learning in a new language.

Data Collection

Data collection occurred during three distinct periods: (a) when Carmen was enrolled in the teacher residency program, referred to as pre-service data, (b) during Carmen's initial two years as a full-time practicing teacher, and (c) during Carmen's fourth year of teaching.

Pre-service data were collected from an electronic program portfolio containing key assignments across Carmen's tenure in the graduate program. There were five artifacts selected for analysis. These artifacts included: (a) one science lesson plan, (b) two edited videos of Carmen teaching, one in math and one in literacy, along with written reflections on those edited videos, (c) a case study from Carmen's bilingualism course, (d) reflective essays on Carmen's practice for a course in ESL methodology and a math practicum course, and (e) three Evidence Collection Records (ECRs). During formal observations, Carmen's supervisor prepared the ECRs where these records became a structured way to document and organize candidates' teaching around areas of effective instruction as identified by Charlotte Danielson's (2007) *Framework for Teaching*.

To document Carmen's classroom practice as she transitioned from the residency program to a full-time credentialed teacher, classroom observations were conducted during her initial two years of teaching. Classroom observations were conducted once during each academic year, where a researcher, the first author of this article, took detailed field notes of a complete lesson.

Analysis of Carmen's pre-service and early teaching showed evidence of the two core-teaching practices under investigation, and, therefore, during Carmen's fourth year of teaching her classroom became the context of a case study. Across one academic year, the authors of this article observed Carmen's practice three times. For these formal observations, one researcher took descriptive field notes on what Carmen said and did, while the other researcher documented Carmen's instruction as well as the participation of Carmen's English as a New Language (ENL)[2] students. Both sets of field notes were combined into one document and then shared with Carmen prior to an interview. During the interview, Carmen reviewed the notes and the work produced by ENL students during the lesson, sharing her reflections on the enacted practice captured through the field notes. In addition to these three formal observations, one of the authors spent two days each month in Carmen's classroom documenting her pedagogy, as well as student participation.

Data collected during Carmen's fourth year of teaching included the field notes from the teaching observations, follow-up interviews with Carmen around the field notes, and a review of the ENL students' work produced during the lessons. By including observation-based data and self-report data, we were able to gain insight into Carmen's theory of practice to understand what she considered when introducing academic language and using MLs' linguistic resources to scaffold their learning.

Data Analysis

All pre-service artifacts, as well as observations from Carmen's first two years of teaching were divided into five lesson segments: the introduction, whole class instruction, guided practice, independent practice, and conclusions. Then, each artifact was analyzed by using a coding manual consisting of 11 descriptive and thematic codes using the qualitative software ATLAS.ti. The codes identified descriptors of each core-teaching practice under investigation. An example of a code used was 'primary language instruction', which identified data where explicit language instruction was something other than English. A practice could only be coded once within a segment. ATLAS.ti was used to provide frequency counts and to organize analyses by core-teaching practice and artifact type. All other pre-service artifacts including teacher reflections, memos, and course assignments were coded with the same set of codes.

During Carmen's fourth year of teaching, when Carmen's classroom became the context of a case study design, a similar coding practice was implemented. Classroom observations were analyzed for instances of the two core-teaching practices. Interviews were coded for factors that might explain why Carmen made these instructional decisions during observed activities. The following section provides findings on the two core-teaching practices for MLs under investigation to include frontloading and reinforcing academic and task related language, and using MLs' linguistic resources to scaffold learning.

Findings

The findings are divided into three sections. In the first section, Carmen's personal language learning history and the language contexts of the classrooms in which she taught is presented. These experiences inform Carmen's theory of practice and can help explain how she enacted the two core-teaching practices in the classroom. In the second and third sections each core-teaching practice is explored through Carmen's theory of practice.

Carmen's Personal and Classroom Language Story

Carmen was born in the United States to two parents born in Puerto Rico. Carmen's mother lived in Puerto Rico until she married Carmen's father who moved to the United States at the age of three. Carmen grew up in a bilingual home where her mother spoke Spanish to Carmen and her siblings while her father spoke English. As a child, despite the fact that Carmen spoke Spanish and English, she used English at home and only spoke Spanish in the summers when visiting cousins in Puerto Rico. In high school she began dating a Spanish-speaking boyfriend, and began speaking Spanish to him and listening to Spanish music. In college she was placed in an upper level Spanish

class that she believed was too advanced, decided to drop it, and took Italian to meet her foreign language requirement.

When Carmen entered the teacher residency program, she pursued her teaching certification in childhood education with a bilingual extension. For her yearlong residency, Carmen was placed in a transitional bilingual fifth-grade classroom co-taught by a bilingual general education teacher and a special education teacher. Although the classroom was designated as bilingual and all students were Spanish speakers, the school did not provide home language instruction or curriculum materials. Rather, teachers in the school-wide bilingual program, and more specifically in Carmen's classroom, spoke Spanish and used Spanish to clarify directions or informally check for understanding. Students would speak Spanish among themselves at times during group work, but all formal instruction occurred in English.

When Carmen began teaching, she was hired to teach fourth grade in a school with a large population of multilingual learners. Carmen noted that this school had a strong commitment to help "English learners achieve". Carmen's fourth grade class was not part of a bilingual program and all texts and materials were in English. During her first year of teaching, ten students were classified as English as a New Language (ENL). In her second year, seven ENLs were enrolled in her class. In her fourth year of teaching[3], seven students were designated as ENLs; she also identified six Spanish-speaking students who were not classified as ENL but were students she believed struggled and needed additional support.

Carmen's Use of Academic Language

During Carmen's pre-service preparation language instruction played a more prominent role in Carmen's planning than in her enacted instruction. Lesson plans she prepared for bilingual course assignments and for observations by her internship supervisor consistently contained language objectives. However, in reviewing the supervisor's field notes of these observations there was no evidence that language objectives were explicitly communicated to students. Analysis of planning artifacts from different methods courses revealed that the work Carmen produced for instructors who were language educators included evidence of planning for language instruction to address gaps in MLs' language proficiency. In contrast, lesson plans she prepared for instructors who were not language educators did not include attention to language instruction. In other words, Carmen made specific modifications for MLs when there was an expectation to do so.

The analysis of teaching artifacts across time demonstrated that Carmen's understanding of academic language development centered on teaching important academic vocabulary. Her approach to teaching vocabulary evolved over the course of her pre-service preparation, and then remained consistent when she began teaching. Early in her internship, it was evident that Carmen was not focused on vocabulary development in her enacted practice even though she identified important vocabulary in her lesson planning. For example, in Carmen's initial observation as a pre-service intern she began a lesson by asking students to write the teaching point in their notebooks. She did not state the teaching point. Then, she displayed content-specific mathematical terminology including definitions and examples. Again, Carmen asked

students to write down these terms and definitions, but did not explain why or how these terms were going to be used across the lesson. Carmen explained that copying definitions was a routine practice used by her mentor teacher. At this stage of her preparation, her theory of practice did not yet reflect an understanding of the importance of frontloading vocabulary and language objectives even though she had been exposed to planning for language instruction in her coursework.

By the final months of her internship there were clear examples in Carmen's instruction of frontloading with an emphasis on teaching content-specific vocabulary at the beginning of the lesson. This change is represented in the data below: an excerpt from the supervisor's evidence collection record from a May observation.

> *The lesson opens with an invitation for students to think about their past learning experiences about graphs. "So I want you to take a second and think about graphs. I want you guys to think about what graphs are and what we use them for. Take a moment to think. Turn to a partner and talk."*
>
> *Carmen asks, "What are graphs?" She documents student responses on the SmartBoard. The first student offers an example of a graph and Carmen asks him, "Do you want to tell us how you use them?" When he cannot offer an answer, another student responds, "to collect data." Additional students' answers include using graphs for height, comparing, and to measure. Carmen clarifies how graphs are used to collect and organize data. She displayed the definition of a graph on the SmartBoard, and to a ML newcomer[4], she says, "Te lo puso en español para que puede ver. [I wrote it in Spanish so you could see it.]" Carmen calls on a child to read the definition of graph in English, "A drawing showing a relationship between a certain set of numbers." She introduces a line plot with a picture and a definition of the word graph to include 'shows frequency of data along a number line.' She instructs students to copy the definition in their math notebooks.*
>
> *Carmen introduces the definition of frequency and asks, "Who can tell me what that is?" A child responds, "The times that something happens." Carmen asks, "Does anyone want to add to that?" She asks a child, "Frequency, what does it make you think of?" He responds, "doubling." She reads the definition displayed on the SmartBoard, "The frequency is how often a certain number appears in a set of data." She asks students to think about when they studied mode and how mode is the number that appears most frequently in a set of data. Referring to a list of numbers written on the SmartBoard - 1,3,4,2,2,5,1,1,1,7,8 – Carmen explains, "The mode would be one and two if it was repeated at the same time but one is repeated most often."*

The emphasis on vocabulary is evident in this example. In multiple instances Carmen used several different techniques to frontload vocabulary for her MLs. In her initial question, "What are graphs?" she draws upon students' prior knowledge before offering an academic definition. She uses a similar strategy when introducing the term *frequency,* connecting the term to a prior learning experience when the students were learning about mode. In addition, Carmen provides definitions of these key terms in

Spanish and English. While visible changes were observed, still absent from her instruction included examples of explicit instruction on language forms.

When Carmen became a credentialed teacher, every observed lesson began with an introduction focusing on important academic vocabulary. She displayed the key vocabulary on the SmartBoard and reviewed the words with her students as the lesson proceeded. This was a consistent practice across content areas. For example, during an observed read aloud she introduced key terms including 'ecstatic' and 'ludicrous' to support students' reading comprehension. In an observed math lesson, she reviewed terms such as 'converting' and 'kilogram' before students independently solved math tasks, and in a writing lesson 'point of view' and 'circumstantial evidence' were key concepts Carmen highlighted before addressing the learning objectives.

Across collected data, Carmen engaged in elements of the core-teaching practices frontloading and reinforcing academic and task-related language; however, she focused on only one dimension of language, which was academic vocabulary. While she intended to communicate language objectives in her teaching as indicated in lesson plans and key artifacts from coursework, this did not translate into her practice as a pre-service and practicing teaching. In addition, teaching and reinforcing linguistic forms by providing students sentence frames to support their syntactic development were not evident. These findings are further discussed in the discussion. The following section will present findings in how Carmen engaged in the core-teaching practice of exploiting her multilingual learners' resources to support their learning.

Carmen's Use of Multilingual Learners' Linguistic Resources

During her pre-service preparation, Carmen's practices and commentaries reflected a commitment to use her students' linguistic resources to scaffold learning. More specifically, she demonstrated this by using the three strategies of translating for individual MLs, translating assignments for MLs, and collaborating with other educators to provide support to Spanish-dominant speakers during independent practice.

One of Carmen's first assignments in her pre-service program was to develop a series of sheltered, content-based lesson plans to address the needs of a fifth-grade bilingual learner, Mari, whom she followed for a case study assignment in her bilingualism course. In an explanation of why she made certain instructional decisions for Mari, Carmen noted how Mari was proficient in her home language, but struggled as an English learner, "particularly in the areas of vocabulary, reading comprehension, and speech." An excerpt from Carmen's assignment where she identified and justified some of the instructional decisions she made regarding the use of the students' home language reveal elements of her theory of practice regarding home language as a teaching resource. In her reflection on her work with Mari Carmen writes:

> *In assessing each of these areas [speaking, reading, and writing] in Spanish it was obvious that Mari was just going through the steps that any English language learner will go through. When I asked her to speak, write, and read in Spanish Mari excelled. When I spoke to her in Spanish, Mari responded with longer sentences and was more confident in her voice. Her writing sample in Spanish had no errors and what she wrote in the sample proved that she felt more comfortable than she felt when she had to write in English. Another suggestion would be for Mari's teacher*

to build more on Mari's native language academic skills, which I believe are strong. I think that having Mari in a bilingual classroom is the first step, seeing as she is surrounded by Spanish speakers, but I feel as though her teacher needs to be building more on Mari's Spanish and English skills simultaneously so that she will learn more. For students such as Mari, who explained to me that she struggled with vocabulary, I thought it was important to translate at least the vocabulary words, which are the base of each lesson.

There are plenty of ways that teachers can advocate for their students and one of the ways that I felt was important was for teachers to create connections between a student's home culture and school by building on their native language academic skills. This is directly related to a feature in the SIOP[5] model, which suggests that concepts be linked to a student's background experiences. Mari's native language skill and knowledge, for example, were very strong and could work as a stepping stone to achieving a clear understanding of concepts in English. If teachers were to take the time to make these connections with their students they would be working to support their students and their education.

This excerpt from Carmen's assignment illustrates key ideas about her theory of practice regarding effective pedagogy to support MLs. First, Carmen clearly identifies Mari's linguistic and academic strengths as she reflects on Mari's Spanish writing sample by indicating how there were "no errors", and how these written literacy skills needed to be leveraged as assets to support Mari's learning. However, Carmen also alludes to the importance of infusing English into Mari's instruction in careful and deliberate ways. Citing how vocabulary is a key construct of any given lesson, Carmen indicates how vocabulary should be translated for Mari. Finally, Carmen recognizes how Mari's cultural resources should be exploited in the classroom by drawing upon Mari's personal or home experiences.

Carmen's pre-service lesson planning and teaching observations provided additional evidence of how she used MLs' linguistic resources to support student learning. Below are two samples of data from a lesson Carmen taught in the bilingual classroom where she completed her internship. The first data point is an excerpt from a lesson plan she prepared in May where Carmen indicates how she plans to support her Spanish-dominant multilingual learners.

Guided Practice: A small group of students will work at the back table with Ms. M, who will offer additional support (Students include: Carmen, Michal, Pedro, Betina). Ms. V. will work with newcomer students and English Language Learners (Students include Victoria, Anthony, and David) for additional support. These students will be working with the same data (students' heights) and be asked to create a line plot on construction paper to display this data.

Differentiation – Translated worksheet will be provided for newcomer students. Students that often require extra help will be given additional support by sitting in a small group with Ms. V. or Ms. M.

It is important to note that Carmen intends to leverage her MLs' linguistic resources in two critical ways. First, she wants to group students by their language needs, specifically collaborating with two teachers, Ms. V and Ms. M, to provide her MLs with

additional support that includes home language support. In addition, Carmen intends to provide supplemental translated documents for her MLs so they perform the necessary tasks and engage in the activities of the lesson.

In Carmen's evaluation of how she taught the aforementioned lesson, supervisor's notes indicate how Carmen put into practice her plans to differentiate instruction for her Spanish-dominant multilingual learners:

> *Several students (i.e. special needs students) were working with Ms. M. and a couple students (i.e. Spanish speaking students) were working with Ms. V. Differentiated planning for Spanish-speaking newcomers and small groups assigned to other teachers for children needing language or learning assistance demonstrated attention to unique learning needs. (Supervisor's Evidence Collection Record)*

In the transition from pre-service to first year of teaching, Carmen increased her emphasis on using MLs' linguistic resources to assist her students' transition to English. She routinely enacted four practices:

1. Translating key vocabulary words through visual displays used during instruction,
2. Translating during lessons for individual students,
3. Developing assignments in Spanish for newcomers, and
4. Using translanguaging to develop students' metalinguistic awareness.

The following example from a classroom observation during her second year of teaching illustrates the first and fourth strategies. More specifically, Carmen provided visuals of Spanish-English translations for key vocabulary words. The excerpt highlights the vocabulary word *disturbance* and students' insights on the Spanish translation.

> *Carmen posts a slide of vocabulary words with coordinating pictures and explains that these are important words that will be used in the chapters she will read aloud today. She introduces "circumstantial evidence", reading the word in Spanish and the definition [in English] from the SmartBoard where each key word has the word in Spanish in parenthesis followed by the definition in English.*

> *Carmen: [Referring to a keyword on the vocabulary list] The last one is "disturbance."*

> *Carmen points to the picture on the slide of a cartoon figure getting out of bed and shares how this is the way she, Carmen, is in the morning because she doesn't like to get up and her alarm causes a disturbance.*

> *Carmen: So usually [referring to story] the cops come because there is a disturbance, there is some noise, or some [one] calls the cops.*
> *Child: You see the Spanish word [referring to the word disburbio in brackets following the word disturbance on the SmartBoard], if you take the o in disturbio and add 'ance' it makes disturbance.*

> *Carmen: It's a cognate. It's the same as Spanish and English.*

In this exchange Carmen made certain instructional decisions to support her MLs. Carmen presented a written definition, as opposed to only an oral/aural translation of the word *disturbance*, as well as provided a picture and a short experience from her personal life to explain the term. These instructional moves created a particular context for a student to make an important metalinguistic observation between the word *disturbance* and *disturbio*. Carmen ends the segment by identifying the student's metalinguistic observation as a cognate. It is clear how Carmen's use of key vocabulary words through visual displays supported students' metalinguistic awareness.

Observations from Carmen's fourth year of teaching also revealed a limitation in how she exploited MLs' linguistic resources in the classroom. During this time Carmen had a large number of multilingual learners, some of whom were designated as ENL and others whom she had concerns about their language fluency even though they did not carry the designation. One student spoke Arabic and the rest spoke Spanish. Carmen used the home language of her Spanish-speaking students, a language she shared with them; however, there was no evidence she included the language of her Arabic-speaking student. Carmen valued bilingualism as evidenced in her post-observation interviews where she was able to review and comment on the field notes from her lessons. On numerous occasions she shared the importance of being bilingual as indicated in her comment, "I also have always thought just the ability to know two languages, it's huge." Despite the fact that she valued the notion of bilingualism, her pedagogy only supported Spanish-English bilingualism.

Interviews revealed that Carmen's theory of practice reflects a preference for using the home language to transition students to English. In the following interview segment Carmen works through her pedagogical decisions as she considered how to support a student transition from Spanish to English on academic tasks.

> *Interviewer: [referring to the lesson transcript] And this was the place that you translated to the child. I couldn't hear but I think you were translating to the child the task. Tell me about your choices as a teacher. Why do you choose to use Spanish, why do you do that?*
>
> *Carmen: I'm just always so torn with her. I'm really not sure what to do with her sometimes. She's very, she's a smart girl, she's articulate in Spanish, she knows her stuff, and I guess in translating, I know that she can do the task, it's just in Spanish. So I have been very torn at what point do I switch to English but I don't want to make it not accessible to her. I think if she's doing it and she's doing it in Spanish and she has people that can communicate with her in Spanish, then I'm going to let her do what she needs to do in Spanish, and when we're ready for English, hopefully we'll get there.*

Carmen alludes to this notion of 'accessibility' in that she wants to make both the content and the act of learning accessible to all students. This is why she chooses to create Spanish-English bilingual opportunities with one student, a newcomer, who is at the earlier stages of her English language development. However, there is a visible tension in how Carmen makes these pedagogical choices as she states, "So I have been very torn at what point do I switch to English." The statement reveals the prominent role that transitioning students to English plays in Carmen's theory of practice. While it

is difficult to determine how Carmen's transitional language stance developed, contributing factors could include her school's emphasis on transitioning students to English, her own personal language learning history in which she preferred to speak in English at home as a child, and/or her socialization into the profession under the mentorship of a teacher whose own practice emphasized English as the language goal.

Discussion

We begin a discussion of the findings by returning to the research questions: How does a pre-service intern enact core-teaching practices to support her multilingual learners? How does this same individual enact core-teaching practices to support her multilingual learners as a practicing teacher? What are the changes in how this individual uses such core-teaching practices in the transition from pre-service to practicing teacher? In analyzing Carmen's data we attempted to demonstrate how two core-teaching practices were enacted in the transition from pre-service candidate to credentialed teacher and to explore what these pedagogical moves revealed about her theory of practice.

In using Carmen as a case study we studied two practices that our pre-service teachers were exposed to during teacher preparation. Analysis of Carmen's theory of practice in relation to the first core practice - *frontloading and reinforcing academic language* - revealed that as a pre-service intern and a practicing teacher Carmen enacted this core-teaching practice by focusing on academic vocabulary development throughout her instruction. Frontloading academic language was accomplished by starting her lessons with a focus on specific words that students would encounter, namely in offering a definition and examples. During her pre-service preparation Carmen included language objectives in her lesson planning, but she did not communicate these objectives to her students when teaching. She also did not focus on teaching linguistic features other than vocabulary. Carmen did not explicitly introduce other linguistic forms needed to complete academic tasks, nor did she provide structured practice of these forms for her MLs. Instead, Carmen supported students' academic participation in lessons by using the second core-teaching practice - *using multilingual learners' linguistic resources to scaffold learning* – by inviting students at the lower levels of English proficiency to communicate in Spanish and produce written work in Spanish.

It appears the practice of frontloading and reinforcing academic vocabulary was not fully embedded in Carmen's theory of practice as a pre-service intern. If the importance of language-focused instruction was not reinforced consistently beyond the two-course sequence she completed early in the program prior to entering her internship, this lack of reinforcement would have limited Carmen's enactment of the core practice across content areas.

Once Carmen became a practicing teacher, opportunities to develop her understanding about language-focused instruction were limited. In the interviews Carmen explained that the content and teaching materials from the observed lessons were developed with colleagues in grade level meetings. If developing language objectives was not a priority in the school's planning process and if an emphasis on language instruction was primarily focused on vocabulary development, it can be

expected that Carmen's instruction might not reflect some of the practices around frontloading and reinforcing academic language she learned in her pre-service program. Carmen's limited attention to language-focused instruction in an English-medium classroom is not uncommon. Bigelow, Ranney, and Dahlman (2006) have observed how difficult it is even for language-instruction teachers to focus on language when the curriculum focus shifts to meeting content learning goals.

An observable change in Carmen's transition from pre-service candidate to classroom teacher was an increased reliance on using MLs' linguistic resources to scaffold learning. As a classroom teacher, Carmen's language stance disrupted the notion that English should be the only language used by teachers and learners in an English-medium classroom. It is clear how Carmen appropriated particular strategies for using students' multilingual resources to support learning. However, her choices revealed a focus on transitioning students to English and a preference for the language she shared with students, as indicated in her Spanish-English translation despite the fact that one student was from an Arabic-speaking home.

By Carmen's fourth year of teaching, she continued to express uncertainty about when and how to transition her multilingual learners at beginning levels of English proficiency from their home language to English. This uncertainty is not uncommon to teachers in both transitional bilingual programs and in programs where English is the medium of instruction. These tensions have important implications for how a teacher preparation program promotes multilingualism and supports their teacher candidates to understand how multilingualism can be exploited in the classroom.

The overall findings in this case study suggest that a teacher's theory of practice, which for Carmen encompasses her Spanish-English bilingual identity, impacts the teacher's approach to language instruction. Multiple factors play a role in a teacher's pedagogical decisions to support their MLs. These findings challenge teacher educators to explore how to support a novice teacher's negotiation of specific core-teaching practices while considering competing factors including the individual's professional identity and the classroom context where the practice is enacted. It suggests, too, that support must continue into the early years of teaching as teaching contexts change and new challenges arise.

Implications

Findings from Carmen's case study have important implications for teacher educators. As a result of lessons learned from Carmen, we are currently modifying our preparation program to: (a) include opportunities for candidates to develop a greater awareness of how multilingualism is related to learning and how this relationship can specifically inform practice; (b) include repeated opportunities for candidates to critically examine the relationship between their theories of practice about language-focused instruction and their instructional choices across content areas; and (c) provide candidates with access to classrooms where effective teachers of MLs are enacting research-based practices.

We position these implications in the literature of teacher language awareness (Andrews, 2003). This literature emphasizes the importance of teachers developing metacognitive awareness of the relationship between instructional content, language of

instruction, and learners' perspectives of the language. Grounded in both empirical studies of teacher language awareness and literature describing the pedagogical content knowledge that constitutes second language teacher expertise, Andrews (2003) argues that a teacher's level of language awareness can have a significant impact on how she addresses language in her instruction. Although this literature focuses on second language teachers, there are important connections to be made to classroom teachers who work with multilingual learners.

Carmen's case indicates that exposure to and practice using effective instructional strategies does not transfer directly into classroom teaching. Lindahl and Watkins (2015) have argued that providing teachers with a toolkit of teaching strategies is not adequate in preparing teachers to help their MLs successfully access academic content. Developing a teacher's awareness of the relationship between language and learning is a necessary ingredient of an effective teacher's theory of practice. As we have seen, Carmen's theory of practice revealed an incomplete awareness of some important dimensions of academic language that can pose challenges to MLs and a limited understanding of how to fully leverage her MLs' home languages in a classroom where the curriculum is in English.

Carmen's story would suggest that, as Bunch (2013) and Andrews (2003) have argued, it is critical to develop teachers' awareness of how language informs MLs' access to learning content. This also suggests that teacher educators must create learning spaces where teachers can develop a theory of practice that integrates content knowledge and language knowledge (Bigelow et al., 2006). Based on our findings we believe that this can only be achieved if pre-service candidates are exposed to these opportunities across disciplines, which will require faculty collaboration across content areas and disciplines.

Lindahl and Watkins (2015) offer helpful suggestions about how teachers might develop language awareness, which we are building into our current preparation program several types of tasks: (a) analyzing transcripts of classroom exchanges as an artifact of lesson enactment, that is, reviewing transcripts of student teacher exchanges during a lesson as a form of evaluating lesson effectiveness for MLs; (b) investigating the language demands of the content area, and planning for ways to address these demands for students at different levels of language proficiency; and (c) engaging teachers in multilingual experiences. We believe these recommendations can be used to prepare content and language teachers.

In Carmen's case, we see how a teacher's theory of practice promotes the use of students' home language to help students gain access to the content and participate in academic tasks. However, we also note how Carmen used only one home language to do this, Spanish. A significant portion of Carmen's pre-service preparation focused on helping her become an effective bilingual teacher. If her preparation created opportunities to help her practice strategies for using the language she shared with her students, in this case Spanish, but did not anchor pedagogy in the knowledge that all students are advantaged when supported in their home languages, then our preparation program needs to revisit how to help novice teachers develop a repertoire of strategies for supporting the use of languages unfamiliar to them during instruction.

Finally, teacher preparation programs must also consider the context of where teacher learning most effectively takes place. Carefully scaffolded field-based learning under the guidance of effective teachers of MLs can, as Clift and Brady (2005) point out, limit the disconnect that pre-service teachers often experience between "advocated practice", which is understood as research-based practices supported in teacher education programs, and "situated practice", the practice that pre-service teachers are exposed to in their field placements. In other words, pre-service candidates need more classroom-based opportunities to study firsthand how and why particular practices impact MLs' language learning. As part of our efforts to incorporate more of these opportunities in teacher preparation, we have worked with local educators to develop a video series of effective practices for MLs enacted in local schools and to identify settings where candidates can work directly with MLs under the mentorship of effective teachers of MLs.

Conclusion

We would like to close by emphasizing the importance of practice-based preparation while also challenging the notion that one common set of core-teaching practices should be used by all teacher education programs to prepare teachers to work with MLs. The practices introduced to novices must be research-based and demonstrate positive impacts on MLs' learning, but they do not need to be static. Perhaps, as is currently being explored by the TESOL International Association, it is more useful to agree upon a set of research-based core *principles*. As noted by the authors of TESOL's *Six Principles for Exemplary Teaching of English Learners* (Short et al., 2018), these principles are not "ground-breaking" but rather outline a vision of exemplary teaching for MLs and identify qualities this teaching should embrace. In doing so these principles connect practice to what teachers need to know about language development in order to effectively plan for teaching MLs. The advantage of a shared vision should apply to teacher education programs, where faculty is vested in preparing teachers for multilingual learners.

As a profession, teacher educators with expertise in bilingual and multilingual pedagogy have an obligation to take a stand against practice-based teacher education models that suggest there are generic practices effective for "all students". This perspective will not create learning environments that support academic success for multilingual learners. Language educators must commit to sharing with colleagues, across all aspects of teacher education, research-based pedagogy that meet the unique needs of MLs. This will help ensure MLs' needs are recognized as the profession continues to formulate and refine models of effective practice.

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End Notes

[1]The term 'multilingual learners' is used to recognize the multiple languages and/or dialects students are learning and using across their lives.

[2]As a credentialed teacher, data collection occurred during Carmen's initial two years in the classroom and then a more in-depth case study approach to data collection occurred during year four.

[3]English as a New Language (ENL) is the term used to identify multilingual learners in New York State. Students classified ENL entered the school district with a home language of something other than English.

[4]The term 'newcomer' indicates that the student is at the nascent stages of developing English.

[5]SIOP refers to Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (Echevarría, Vogt, & Short, 2010/2014), which was introduced to Carmen during her pre-service preparation as a set of practices that support content learning and language development in multilingual learners.

Oral Vocabulary Instruction Practices of Teachers of Nonacademic Adult English Language Learners

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The number of non-academic adults who need English as a second language (ESL) classes is ever increasing, yet little is known about the instructional practices used to teach this population of learners. The focus of this article is to describe an exploratory single case study of the instructional practices used by teachers in a nonacademic adult English as a second language (NAESL) program. Specifically, the study looked at vocabulary instruction teachers employed with beginner-level adult ESL students. The data was collected using questionnaires, classroom observations, and post-observation interviews with the teachers. The findings show that teachers used two categories of activities to teach vocabulary: oral vocabulary activities and written vocabulary activities. It is significant that not only did the participants use twice as many written vocabulary activities as oral vocabulary activities in their NAESL classrooms, but they did not identify written vocabulary activities and oral vocabulary activities as addressing different language skills. Considering the importance of listening and speaking as entry-level language skills, NAESL teachers need to become aware of the importance of the distinction between these two types of instructional activities and the need to focus more instructional time to building and strengthening listening and speaking as these basic, necessary communication skills.

Nearly 600,000 adults participated in English literacy, or English as a second language (ESL), classes in 2016 (U.S. Department of Education. Office of Vocational and Adult Education, 2018) when this study was conducted. These adult learners come from varied educational, socio-economic, ethnic, and cultural backgrounds; some came to the United States to earn a post-secondary degree while others came to find a better way of life for their families and themselves. Unlike the international students who enter university programs to earn a degree, some adult learners enroll in not-for-credit English as second language programs to gain the language skills they need to get a job and survive in their adopted country (Eyring, 2014). These non-academic adult English language learners (NAELLs), regardless of their work experience or educational background, tend to take low-paying jobs (Forrester & Nowrasteh, 2018; Wrigley et al.,

2003), and they have a higher rate of poverty (Batalova & Zong, 2016; Bernstein, 2017; Fogg & Harrington, 2012; Wrigley et al., 2003).

A key fact in adult education is the increasing number of adult immigrants who try to obtain ESL instruction. The National Council of State Directors of Adult Education (2017) reports that 43% of adults currently enrolled in adult education courses are English language learners, but this number does not include those adults on lists waiting to enter adult education programs. According to Wilson (2014), more than 19 million United States adult immigrants are limited English proficient.

Despite this ongoing rise in the numbers of adult immigrants seeking to learn English, Walizer (2016) says that the United States has experienced a decrease of more than 25% in federal and state adult education funding since 2001, and the National Center for Education Statistics (U.S. Department of Education, 2020) reports a steady decrease in funding for state administered adult education programs—Adult Basic Education, Adult Secondary Education, and English as a Second Language—from 2000 to 2017. Early in the past decade, Foster (2012) voiced concern that decreases in federal and state adult education funding will mean that only a fraction of adults in need of basic skills and English language skills will receive these services.

Given national and global demographic trends, it is imperative that the immigrant workforce in the US receive ESL instruction. Regardless of the country's immigration policy, immigrant populations are necessary to prevent a downturn in the adult workforce population. Kosten (2018) says that immigrants currently make up 17% of the United States workforce, while Passel and Cohn (2017) predict that immigrants will play a key role in the United States future workforce. As U. S. born adults age and retire, and birth rates decline, current and future immigrants—both skilled and unskilled—will take up the slack in the workforce (Passel & Cohn, 2017). Furthermore, new immigrants to the United States are just as likely to settle in more geographically diverse locations such as South Dakota, North Dakota, Kentucky, Delaware, and South Carolina in addition to the traditional states of California, Florida, Texas, New York, and New Jersey (Batalova et al., 2021; Zeigler & Camarola, 2018).

Aside from the demographic reality, another issue is that educators must assure that the language programs offered to this adult student education population are effective. In order to achieve this, more information about the instructional practices used in these programs should be available. Of particular interest is the lack of information about teaching vocabulary to adult ESL students. To address this gap, this article describes an investigation of instructional practices used to teach oral vocabulary to adults in a nonacademic ESL program. I begin by reviewing the scholarly literature on vocabulary instruction in general, and more specifically for adults and adult English language learners (ELLs). The methods of data collection and tools used in the study are then described. In the final section of the manuscript, I connect the analysis of findings to the field of adult education and identify some implications for best instructional practices in programs who serve the increasing number of NAELLs.

Vocabulary Instruction

Vocabulary is the entryway to learning any language. As such, it plays an important role in language instruction. Although there is much research with a focus on vocabulary instruction, most of the research found focused on K-12 learners or adults in academic, or for-credit, English language classes. I was surprised at the lack of articles that focus on vocabulary instruction with nonacademic adult learners or that focus on the instructional practices used by teachers of these nonacademic adult English language learners (NAELLs). What was found were articles intended for K-12 instructors but used by language teachers in adult education programs as well (Boyd, 2019; Watts-Taffe et al., 2019). Thus, much of the literature that informs vocabulary instruction in NAELLs programs is based on best practices with learners in K-12 schools.

Whereas vocabulary instruction and development were once seen as a side thought in literacy instruction, they are now generally accepted as important and fundamental components of learning and comprehending a language (Beck et al., 2002; Chung, 2012; DeCarrico, 2001; Lightbown & Spada, 2006; Susanto, 2017). It is a basic necessity to speak, understand, read, and write in any language (Ahmad, 2011; Jacobson & Ianiro, 2007; Susanto, 2017); it is important to survive in an adopted country and actively participate in society (Blachowicz & Fisher, 2004); and improving or growing one's vocabulary is required for success in school (Carrasquillo & Rodríguez, 2002; Graves, 2016; Lightbown & Spada, 2006; Richards & Renandya, 2002) and on the job (Parrish, 2014). Even though vocabulary is considered an essential and fundamental skill for English language learners of all ages (Carasquillo & Rodríguez, 2002; DeCarrio, 2001; Richards & Renandya, 2002), as indicated earlier, most research in this field has been conducted with learners in K-12 programs (Lightbown & Spada, 2006; Manyak & Bauer, 2009; Peregoy & Boyle, 2005; Watts-Taffe et al., 2019).

Although it is believed that findings from K-12 research are valid for adult learners (Curtis, 2010), these groups of learners have very different language needs, specifically those in nonacademic programs. Students in K-12 programs are more likely to be introduced to the content-specific language and critical thinking skills (Boyd, 2019; Watts-Taffe et al, 2019) they need to succeed in academic settings. Conversely, nonacademic adult ELLs are more likely to learn conversational English for employment or basic literacy for survival in a new country (Bailey, 2010). While these adult ELLs may benefit from a basic knowledge of academic and technical language allowing them to fully participate in job interviews or other employment opportunities (Bailey, 2010), academic language should not be the main focus of instruction with this group of adult learners. That being said, the shortage of available research with nonacademic adult ELLs makes K-12 studies a readily available resource (Bailey, 2010) and forces the use of pedagogical approaches for teaching vocabulary based on the research conducted with K-12 learners (Brown & Lee, 2015; Celce-Murcia, 2014; Jacobson & Ianiro, 2007).

However, not all instructional approaches are equally effective with all learners. Just as children learn differently than adults (Eyring, 2014; Hilles & Sutton, 2001; Knowles, 1984), adult ELLs learn differently than first-language English adult learners

(Burt et al., 2005). Also, since adult learners come to the classroom with varied personal and professional backgrounds, life experiences, cultures, learning needs and styles, and personal goals, there is not one instructional approach that is best suited to teach every adult learner (Mikulecky et al., 2009). Argued as well is that some instructional approaches are more effective with adult learners while others are more effective with adult ELLs (Burt et al., 2005; Eyring, 2014).

An additional difference between working with adult ELLs and first language English adult learners is the issue of language fluency. The adult ELLs may face language challenges in professional and social settings (Parrish, 2014). For adult ELLs, the ability to express themselves in conversation in a variety of contexts, to understand and make themselves understood, at work and in social interactions is their main concern (Stahl & Nagy, 2006). Adult ELLs may feel especially uncomfortable in social or work-related situations where they possess the knowledge but lack the language to effectively communicate their thoughts and emotions (Hilles & Sutton, 2001).

Best Practices for Adult ESL Vocabulary Instruction

Vocabulary instruction is an important piece of the language-learning puzzle as it plays a vital role in the lives of adult ELLs. It is the bedrock on which language skills and language proficiency are constructed. Although the above literature shows that there is not one best approach to vocabulary instruction with all audiences of learners, it does reinforce the importance of exposing all learners—K-12, ABE, and adult ESL—to repeated exposure to and practice using vocabulary over time, and in real world contexts and situations to gain a breadth and depth of word knowledge. The literature also talks about the instructional practices that work best with beginner-level adult ELLs, such as word lists; learning a limited number of words, especially high-frequency words, in context; using learner-created sentences and definitions; using bilingual dictionaries and translations to their home language; and multiple exposure to words in various contexts.

Some instructional strategies are more beneficial to adult ELLs than others. All adult ELLs benefit from practicing their English language skills outside of class when reading or otherwise using English. It is also advantageous to use the metacognitive strategies they learn in class in their day-to-day lives. However, first-language English adults and more-proficient adult ELLs are able to use these strategies successfully (Mikulecky et al., 2009) because they have a larger foundational vocabulary. The reading process of searching for context clues, translating words, or guessing at meaning before returning to a reading passage is difficult for some adults and high-level ESL learners, but it is even more difficult for beginner-level adult ELLs. Interestingly, explicit vocabulary instruction (Burt et al., 2005; Mikulecky et al., 2009; Nisbet, 2010) is effective with adult ELLs, especially beginner-level adult ELLs, as the words and definitions are taught before these adult learners use them in the context of a classroom application, e.g., a reading passage.

In addition, all adult ELLs benefit from learning vocabulary in context, and they benefit from learning high-frequency words early on in their vocabulary instruction (Burt et al., 2005). They also benefit from learning words that are pertinent to their daily lives (Finn Miller, 2010), and from being able to make a connection between the

words and information they are currently learning and that which they already possess (Swinney & Velasco, 2011). As a result, teaching words in semantic sets, e.g., *top-bottom*, is a less effective approach for adult ELLs (Nation, 2002) since the words are so closely related and lack context. Nation (2002) suggests teaching words in context and providing adult ELLs with the time, continued practice, and reinforcement they need to learn. After all, vocabulary acquisition is not a one-and-done activity but a skill to be cultivated and refined (Brown & Lee, 2015; Zimmerman, 2014). Adult ELLs tend to learn better with some instructional practices, such as learning a limited number of new vocabulary words before a reading lesson; using learner-generated sentences to reinforce vocabulary meaning, using bilingual dictionaries, translating vocabulary to their home language, learning high-frequency words at the start of the English language instruction, and being exposed to vocabulary on multiple occasions and in a variety of contexts (Brown & Lee, 2015; Burt et al., 2005; Zimmerman, 2014).

Furthermore, since adult ELLs tend to have larger oral or spoken vocabularies than reading, they benefit from hearing words before seeing them in written form (Bromley, 2007; Jacobson & Ianiro, 2007). They are likely to comprehend conversational language better than written (Jacobson & Ianiro, 2007; Lazaraton, 2014). As a result, adult ELLs benefit from hearing a teacher say new words, so they can repeat them before seeing the words in written form. Oral language is indispensable in helping adult ELLs to develop the language and comprehension skills they need to be able to read and write in English (DeCarrico, 2001; Jacobson & Ianiro, 2007), and the most likely starting point for anyone learning a new language (Florez, 1999).

Two popular approaches to teaching vocabulary are explicit (direct) instruction and implicit (indirect) instruction. Although the literature is mixed as to the best instructional practices to use to teach literacy skills as all have their strengths and drawbacks (McQuillan, 2019; Mikulecky et al., 2009; Wright & Cervetti, 2017), Mikulecky et al. (2009) recognize the usefulness of explicit instruction as it is easier to measure the impact of direct learning. This makes it a useful and influential tool with students, decision-makers, policy-makers, and others and in determining program efficacy for curriculum or funding. This is especially true for both ABE and adult ESL programs where funding is tied to student performance on standardized assessments.

Explicit or direct vocabulary instruction is used to formally and systematically introduce a word and its usage in context, in both ABE and adult ESL classrooms. In this approach, the teacher introduces the vocabulary learners need to comprehend for the lesson-focused reading passage, writing, or listening activity. Explicit instruction activities include vocabulary lists, definitions, using known words to teach new words or new forms of words (e.g., using *tall* to teach *taller*), word families, envisioning words with their meanings, using vocabulary in different contexts, learners sharing personal connections to vocabulary, and helping learners develop metacognitive skills they can use both in and out of class (Beck et al., 2002; Blachowicz & Fisher, 2004; Brown & Lee, 2015; Schwarzer, 2009). Whereas explicit learning is teacher-led and occurs within the classroom setting, implicit learning is less structured.

Although implicit or incidental learning can occur within the ABE or adult ESL classroom, this type of learning is more likely to occur outside of the formal classroom

setting. Implicit learning takes place when a learner comes across an unfamiliar or unknown word in context in an everyday situation (DeCarrico, 2001), such as reading the morning news or engaging in conversation. Then, using the metacognitive strategies learned in class, the learner searches for the meaning of the word from the context of the conversation or the reading passage. Other strategies for implicit learning include saying the word out loud, guessing meaning from context, vocabulary journaling (DeCarrico, 2001), and using keywords to decipher new words. Regardless of the strategy used, a prerequisite for using these deciphering strategies is exposure through a variety of activities to increase a learner's knowledge of incidental vocabulary (Hunt & Beglar, 2002).

Implicit learning is a multi-step process the learner engages to search for clues in a reading (Nation, 2002), hope the presumed definition is correct, and then retrace steps to complete the reading passage. Therefore, adult ESL learners with a rudimentary vocabulary will have difficulty using these strategies successfully. For this implicit learning to be successful, context clues must be present, and the learner must have good comprehension of most of the reading passage. In addition, the learner must have at least 2,000 to 3,000 words in his/her vocabulary (DeCarrico, 2001) or understand "98% of the words in a passage" (Jacobson & Ianiro, 2007, pp. 1-2) to learn the word from context. First-language English adult learners are more likely to have a larger base vocabulary necessary for success with implicit instruction. In addition, first language English adult learners are more likely to be successful with vocabulary taught in semantic sets, using student-created definitions, using context clues to learn incidental vocabulary, and multiple-choice assessments. The same cannot be said for adult ELLs.

Additionally, Beck et al.'s (2002) Robust Vocabulary Instruction (RVI) is a comprehensive approach to vocabulary teaching (Boyd, 2019; Brown & Lee, 2015; Manyak & Bauer, 2009; Susanto, 2017; Watts-Taffe et al, 2019; Zimmerman, 2014). It is designed to introduce ESL students, of all ages, to the breadth and depth of the vocabulary they learn. Developed for K-12 students, it has been well received as an effective instructional method to use with adult ELLs. This three-tiered approach to vocabulary instruction begins on tier-one and commonly used everyday words, progresses to academic words in tier-two, and ends on tier-three words with content area specific language.

The popularity of this approach is based on the varied fun and provocative activities employed to reinforce the definition and usage of words in various contexts and meaning, semantic forms, and uses. For example, students are encouraged to connect new vocabulary with words they already know, create their own definitions, incorporate the new vocabulary into their everyday interactions, and personalize learning by spending out-of-class time learning more about new words. The focus of this approach on well-rounded and well-developed understanding of a word and its many applications through continuous exposure and practice make this a good foundation for teaching vocabulary (August et al., 2005; Jacobson & Ianiro, 2007; Nisbet, 2010; Watts-Taffe et al., 2019; Zimmerman, 2014) across age levels. Brown (2007) cautions that although beginner-level adult ELLs may possess a limited vocabulary and may lack the grammar and syntax of native speakers of English, they

still possess the ability to make themselves understood by using basic language and simple constructions in everyday interactions.

Teaching Listening and Speaking Vocabulary to Adult ELLs

Much of the research on vocabulary instruction with adult ELLs, and vocabulary instruction in general, has focused on vocabulary as a precursor to reading and writing activities (Armbruster et al., 2001; Carrasquillo & Rodríguez, 2002; Hunt & Beglar, 2002; Jacobson & Ianiro, 2007; Nagy, 1988; Ovando et al., 2003; Peregoy & Boyle, 2005; Zimmerman, 2014). In this section I discuss some of what has been learned from research on oral vocabulary instruction, specifically vocabulary for speaking and listening without any links to reading or writing activities.

The literature identifies activities and best practices adult ESL teachers can use to teach listening (Goh, 2014) and speaking (Lazaraton, 2014) skills. Goh (2014) suggests that teachers can help students to develop their listening skills through frequent practice in different contexts and by using metacognitive strategies students can use before, during, and after communications, such as listening diaries and self-report checklists. She clarifies that listening is not simply an activity for comprehension but it is more comprehensive in scope. Listening requires participants to play an active role in the process of making meaning from what they hear; it is not simply detecting sounds but decoding and extracting meaning from these sounds. As a skill, listening is "goal-directed and purposeful" (p. 73) for the listener who needs to comprehend what is heard in order to act on or respond to the message, or to simply understand a situation, for example, listening to a radio broadcast.

Even though we may think of listening as a skill to be used in the give-and-take of conversation, listening can also be a "*one-way* (nonparticipatory)" activity (Goh, 2014, p. 73). Although one-way listening still requires active participation on the part of the listener, there is no opportunity for the interchange of ideas and information that comes with conversational participation. As a result, when adult ELLs engage in one-way listening by watching television or listening to a radio broadcast, they still need to comprehend and make sense of what they have heard. However, as explained by this researcher, they are not able to ask questions for clarification or get more information so they must rely on their knowledge and experience for comprehension. Having a variety of activities to use to teach listening across ESL proficiency levels is beneficial in developing students' listening skills (Brown & Lee, 2015).

Just as the above research addresses best practices to teach listening skills, Lazaraton (2014) talks about the components of teaching speaking as a complex language skill. As a skill, speaking is a complicated yet necessary component of learning a language, it is reciprocal with the give-and-take between speaker and a partner in conversation or other communication, and includes basic pronunciation, accuracy, and fluency (Brown, 2007; Brown & Lee, 2015; Florez, 1999; Lazaraton, 2014). Speaking is an intricate process for adult ELLs to navigate and requires them to simultaneously process information they hear, or prompt they see, while harmonizing pronunciation, grammar, context, vocabulary, fluency, accuracy of sound production and the social customs associated with conversation (Bohlke, 2014; Florez, 1999; Lazaraton, 2014). The variety of categories within the skills of speaking—monologue, dialogue, planned,

impromptu, social, business (Brown & Lee, 2015) —add to the importance of providing adult ELLs with the practice and support they need to successfully navigate a simple conversation or class presentation. Therefore, it falls to the ESL teacher to provide, planned or impromptu, activities and instances for adult ELLs to engage in role-play scenarios, class presentations, and other speaking activities, to build and practice speaking skills for real-world social and professional settings in the safety and support of their ESL classroom.

When teaching beginner level ELLs, Brown (2007) advises ESL teachers to promote fluency over accuracy as these students may be more self-conscious if their accuracy is constantly corrected in class. Brown also suggests that teachers of beginner-level ELLs aim to strike a balance between students feeling comfortable enough in class to practice speaking English and correcting phonological and grammatical errors so students can communicate clearly outside of class. Whereas Brown (2007), and Brown and Lee (2015), promote fluency over accuracy, Lazaraton (2014) takes a more pragmatic approach. She suggests that while ESL students who have more exposure to interactions in English on a day-to-day basis would benefit from more accuracy focused classroom time, English-as-a-foreign-language students who have limited exposure to everyday interactions in English would benefit from more fluency focused classroom time.

Lazaraton (2014) argues that although fluency and accuracy are important elements of speech, it is also important for ELLs to be aware of, and familiar with, the social and cultural customs of communicating in English, such as introducing oneself or greeting others, and social distance or personal space. In addition, related to authenticity in speaking, this researcher suggest that especially ELLs currently in a workplace setting, learn better from actual real-world materials rather than fabricated textbook materials meant to imitate the workplace. Classroom activities should promote the development of speaking skills including fluency, accuracy, appropriateness, and using authentic language, such as discussions, group work, presentations, role plays, conversations, and dialogue journals.

Another component of listening and speaking is pronunciation. According to Goh (2014), pronunciation and listening work together as language skills constructing a sort of bridge for listening and speaking. As a skill, pronunciation is an important element of listening as comprehension depends on a listener's ability to understand or recognize each word in the conversation. Therefore, correcting students' pronunciation is one technique an adult ESL teacher can use in promoting and improving their students' listening skills. As a speaking skill, pronunciation includes not only how we produce sounds but also prosody (Goodwin, 2014); the intonation, pitch, word stress, and sentence stress that accompany pronunciation are all part of teaching speaking skills to adult ELLs.

One related concern of ELLs, especially adult ELLs, is their accent and making themselves understood outside of their ESL classroom (Goodwin, 2014). Here, repetition is seen as a successful tool for helping adult ELLs to accurately pronounce words thus improving their day-to-day communication (Ghazi-Saidi & Ansaldo, 2017) outside of ESL class. Repeating a word to improve pronunciation may be helpful to

adult ELLs to sound more native-like (Zimmerman, 2014). However, some adult ELLs may be hesitant to communicate in English for fear of being unable to clearly express themselves or of being judged as not intelligent (Wang et al., 2017).

Lazaraton (2014), as well as researchers such as Ahmadi (2018), McClanahan (2014), and Rose (2015), discuss the benefits of using technology as a learning tool as it provides students the opportunity to communicate in real-time in class as well as on their own time and at their own pace; she includes video conferencing, podcasts, and voice-based tools which allow ELLs to practice listening and speaking skills. Computers provide ESL students with complementary activities to reinforce content and skills learned in the classroom (Moore, 2009), opportunities for adult ELLs to collaborate on learning and classroom projects (Ahmadi, 2018; Moore, 2009), and a learner-centric atmosphere for learning (Ahmadi, 2018). Computer activities give autonomy to the adult ELL thus making the students responsible for their own learning (Ahmadi, 2018; Rose, 2015).

The review of the scholarly literature discussed in this section underscores the significant role of vocabulary in developing language for adult NAELLs. It signaled how obtaining listening and speaking vocabulary fluency, different from literacy in English, is critical for effective workplace performance. The few scholarly studies found, highlighted strategies and approaches effective for instruction in NAESL's classrooms. Importantly, the review also suggested a lack of clarity if and how these practices are employed by teachers of NAESLs. The case study discussed below focuses on addressing this need.

Case Study on Adult ESL Vocabulary Instruction

I conducted this case study to learn about the instructional activities that teachers of nonacademic adult ELLs use to teach oral vocabulary to their students. My curiosity stems from a combination of the importance of vocabulary for speaking and listening—oral vocabulary—and the lack of available research on this topic. My guiding question was: How do teachers in nonacademic adult ESL programs conceptualize teaching oral vocabulary to adults? To further develop the study, I created the sub-question: What instructional practices do teachers implement in teaching oral vocabulary in NAESL classrooms? This sub-question presented me the opportunity to observe these NAESL teachers' practices rather than rely solely on participant-reported responses.

An exploratory case study facilitated the use of a natural setting of a NAESL classroom to learn firsthand about the instructional practices used by three teachers of beginner-level students. Teachers of beginner-level NAESL students were chosen as participants for this study as they were the most likely to teach oral vocabulary to develop their students' speaking and listening skills. The study took place in a county technical school in a suburb of New York City. The diverse student population of the NAESL classes was reflective of the diverse population demographic of this metropolitan area.

At the time of data collection, all of the three participants were state certified K-12 teachers; however, only one had an ESL teaching certificate and one had a master's degree in adult education with a focus on consumer economics. It is important to note

that none of the participants had formal training to work with adult ELLs. They were all part-time employees of the county technical school at the time of data collection, and two of the three taught full-time in other school districts: one taught in a middle school and the second taught at a community college. Overall, the three participants had an average of 17 years of general experience teaching and 13 years of experience teaching adult ESL. This suggests that much of their knowledge of teaching adult ELLs came from classroom experience. Although they all belonged to various professional organizations, they said that their on-the-job experiences teaching adult ELLs was the best and most helpful training for them as teachers. For two of the three participants, teaching adult ESL was a career change.

To get an extensive understanding of the oral vocabulary instruction used by the NAESL teachers, I used a variety of tools to collect data (Merriam 1998; Yin, 2014) including two questionnaires, completed classroom observations, and conducted post-observation interviews. The Background of Teachers' Questionnaire (Appendix A) was used to gather contact information, class schedules, and the professional background of the participants. Their responses provided me insight into the experience and training they brought to their NAESL classrooms. The Initial Description of Teachers' Instruction Questionnaire (Appendix B) asked participants to identify the instructional practices they used. The open-ended, short answer questions encouraged participants to freely provide details of their own instructional practices rather than choose from a drop-down menu (Dornyei, 2003). The responses participants gave to these tools were my guide for what to look for during my classroom observations and the questions to ask during the interviews.

The instructional observations allowed me to take a fly-on-the-wall perspective of the actual vocabulary lessons being taught and the instructional practices the participants used in the natural setting of the NAESL classroom (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Maxwell, 2005; Yin, 2014). I created an Observation Protocol (Appendix C) to take descriptive field notes of my observations (Johnson & Christensen, 2000) and used a small digital recorder which allowed me to review the observed lessons at a later time. Conversational post-observation interviews were a third form of data collection that took place after each classroom observation, thus giving me the opportunity to learn about the participants' thoughts and perspectives (Yin, 2014), and an opportunity for participants to give their own voice to their instructional practices (Seidman, 2006). So as to facilitate analysis, I used an inductive approach to review the data and identify the embedded patterns and relationships (Creswell, 2005, 2007; Johnson & Christensen, 2000; Stake, 1995) across the three participants. Tables and charts were created to show frequency of usage of their instructional activities and to identify words these participants used (Yin, 2014). The use of three different methods of data collection allowed me to triangulate the data for an in-depth analysis. In the next section, I discuss my findings, their importance to the field of NAESL, and implications for classroom instruction.

Discussion of the Findings

In this section, I introduce and discuss the overall findings from my classroom observations and interviews with this study's participants. I specifically identified the

oral vocabulary activities participants used and discussed any patterns and common practices that emerged. Although the participants had their individual styles of classroom management and instruction, they all believed that a relaxed, and fun, classroom atmosphere was most conducive to learning at the adult classroom level. These beliefs were evident in my observations; confirming that much learning took place in a comfortable learning environment. In addition, the participants also believed in the importance of teaching pronunciation, intonation, stress, prosody, definitions, spelling, and practice through repetition. Throughout the 15 classroom observations, the participants used a total of 247 individual activities to teach English to their adult ESL students. This means that the relaxed and fun classroom atmosphere did not take away from the task at hand, namely, engaging students in learning English.

Looking at the data collected using observations and interviews across the three participants, I discovered they used two categories of activities to teach vocabulary: oral vocabulary activities and written vocabulary activities. The oral vocabulary activities were those activities that did not transition to a reading, writing, or grammar lesson but focused on the vocabulary, or words taught, for listening and for speaking (Armbruster et al., 2001). The written vocabulary activities were those activities that served as a transition to a reading, writing, or grammar lesson where the vocabulary, or words taught, served as a precursor to a literacy or grammar lesson.

It is significant that the participants used more than twice as many written vocabulary activities as oral vocabulary activities in their NAESL classrooms. Of the 247 instructional activities I observed across the three participant teachers, only 77 (31%) were oral vocabulary activities as defined above and 170 (69%) were written vocabulary activities. This means that although the participants were actively engaging their students in English instruction, more than two-thirds of their activities were vocabulary instruction as an introduction to teaching reading, grammar, and writing and not focusing on vocabulary instruction solely for listening and speaking. The importance of establishing a strong, solid foundation in speaking and listening skills in adult ELLs, especially beginner-level adult ELLs, cannot be overemphasized as they are much more likely to use listening and speaking skills outside of the classroom than reading or writing (Brown & Lee, 2015; Florez, 1999).

These basic communication skills are crucial to adult ELLs (Bailey, 2010), especially beginner-level adult ELLs, for success on the job and in social and professional situations. Consequently, adult ESL instructors must see the value of building and strengthening speaking and listening skills in their NAESL classrooms. This is not to diminish the value of vocabulary for reading and writing activities in NAESL classrooms, but a call to encourage these instructors to actively engage their students in authentic, real-world conversations and activities (Florez, 1999; Goh, 2014; Lazaraton, 2014), and to encourage their students to converse with other speakers of English, outside of class, in professional and social settings (Florez, 1999).

Another key finding emerged from the analysis of the activities used to teach oral vocabulary. Although the teachers used a total of 77 specific oral vocabulary activities (Appendix D), these activities were not used across the board. Only some of

the activities were used by all three participants, while some were used by two of the participants and others were used by single participants. The number is significant as it represents a shortfall in the amount of instruction time and the number of instructional activities participants employ to promote the listening and speaking skills which are needed the most by beginner-level adult ELLs. As language skills to be honed, speaking and listening come with their own skill sets to be nurtured and developed (Florez, 1999; Goh, 2014; Lazaraton, 2014). For adult ELLs who must be able to express themselves in everyday interactions at work and in social settings (Stahl & Nagy, 2006), it is their adult ESL teacher who is tasked with the responsibility of providing the instructional activities to practice and strengthen language skills necessary for listening and speaking.

The literature highlights the importance of teaching listening and speaking skills to adult ELLs as these are the skills most likely to be used by adult learners outside the classroom (Florez, 1999; Stahl & Nagy, 2006), are foundational for introductory language instruction (Florez, 1999), and are necessary for basic communication in a language (Lazaraton, 2014). However, these findings suggest that NAESL teachers who participated in the study are not concentrating the bulk of their classroom instructional time on these essential skills. Still, this is not a complete surprise as most of the literature on oral vocabulary research, as reflected in the review of the literature above, focused on vocabulary instruction, both oral and general, as introductory to a reading or writing activity. In the next section, I discuss specifically the oral vocabulary activities used by the three participants of the study.

Oral Vocabulary Activities

The data gathered from classroom observations reveal that within the category of oral vocabulary activities, three sub-categories became evident: Listening Activities, Speaking Activities, and Listening & Speaking Activities (Appendix D). Listening Activities were those where students focused on hearing words for comprehension with no written or spoken response to follow, or where students were expected to physically act out or respond to the aural prompt. Speaking Activities were those where students were focused on speaking aloud whether as individuals or as part of a group. Listening & Speaking Activities were those that required students to comprehend what they heard and follow up with a spoken response, such as responding aloud to a teacher or classmate-led question or repeating after listening to a CD prompt.

Thirty-five (45%) of the 77 oral vocabulary activities the participants used were devoted to Listening Activities (Appendix D) where students listened to the teacher and responded with some type of action. These 35 activities represent the largest percent of oral vocabulary activities compared with the 22 (29%) Speaking Activities and 20 (26%) Listening & Speaking Activities used by the participants (Appendix D). However, when compared with the total number of 247 activities used to teach English in these adult ESL classrooms, the 35 Listening Activities now represent a mere 14% of the total classroom time spent on vocabulary instruction-both oral and written vocabulary activities. Just as important to note is the 22 Speaking Activities and 20 Listening & Speaking Activities, compared with the number of total classroom activities, now

represent a meager 9% (Speaking Activities) and 8% (Listening & Speaking Activities) of total classroom time devoted to developing and reinforcing these essential oral language skills.

Of the 77 oral vocabulary activities used by the *three participants*, only two (3%) oral vocabulary activities were used by all three of the participants, and 11 (14%) were used by two of the participants. This means that of the 77 total oral vocabulary activities used by the participants 64 (83%) were used by individual participants and not implemented by two or all three participants. In other words, despite the limited number of general oral vocabulary activities used in class, on the whole, a large variety of activities were used to teach oral vocabulary. However, it also shows a lack of consistency in practice across the participants.

Of the two activities (3%) used by all three participants, one was a Listening Activity where the teacher corrected students' pronunciation of vocabulary. The scholarly literature, discussed above, supports the importance of pronunciation as an element of listening and comprehension in conversation (Brown & Lee, 2015; Goh, 2014). The second activity used by all three participants was a Listening & Speaking Activity when the teachers took their students to the computer lab for Listening and Speaking Activities. As suggested by Ahmadi (2018) technology-based activities can be effective tools for learning in the ESL classroom.

Of the 11 (14%) oral vocabulary activities used by two participants, five were Listening Activities and there were three each of Speaking Activities and Listening & Speaking Activities (Appendix D). The five Listening Activities used by two participants all centered on the definition and usage for the vocabulary taught including definitions, synonyms, and rules for using a vocabulary word. Zimmerman (2014) discusses the challenges that come with vocabulary instruction as a word can have different meanings and pronunciations, take different grammatical forms, and have various uses and cultural implications. Also, as the research of Beck et al. (2002) suggested, adult ELLs, and ELLs in general, benefit from multiple exposures to a word in context for meaning, usage, and cultural relevance. For example, www.merriam-webster.com lists 13 definitions for the word *big* (8 adjectives, 3 adverbs, and 2 nouns) as well as pronunciation, examples of usage, synonyms, word forms (*big, bigger*), and word origin. However, it does not explain the cultural implications associated between telling a 3-year-old child and a 30-year-old adult: *How big you've gotten since I last saw you*. It falls to the ESL teacher to explain that although the 3-year-old child would be delighted at this statement, the 30-year old adult would be insulted.

Of the three Speaking Activities used by two participants, one was the students reading word pairs for pronunciation practice and the other two focused on word meanings. The teachers focused on word meaning by either asking their students questions about meaning of words or by providing a translation of the target word. Here, repetition is seen as a successful tool for helping adult ELLs to accurately pronounce words thus improving their day-to-day communication (Ghazi-Saidi & Ansaldo, 2017) outside of ESL class. Whereas repeating a word to improve pronunciation may be helpful to adult ELLs to sound more native-like, it is not as

helpful for comprehension or retention of vocabulary (Zimmerman, 2014). Nonetheless, translation supports word understanding and retention. Cook (2010) sees translation as beneficial to the ESL student as it facilitates learning and helps learners to better assimilate knowledge they have with what they are learning. However, Brown and Lee (2015) caution ESL teachers not to overuse students' home languages and to limit their usage to instances when it is helpful to the learners.

There were three activities used by two participants in the category of Listening & Speaking Activities (Appendix D). Two of these activities were vocabulary focused: the first activity was an incidental conversation between the teacher and a student, and the second was students repeating vocabulary words after the teacher said them. The third activity in this category was students repeating after listening to a CD. Zimmerman (2014) discusses some of the benefits of incidental conversations for learning. As mentioned above, repetition of vocabulary instruction can be beneficial if done in context and over time.

Of the 64 *single participant* activities used to teach oral vocabulary, 29 (45%) were Listening Activities, 19 (29%) were Speaking Activities, and 16 (26%) were Listening & Speaking Activities (Appendix D). As discussed in the best practices section of the literature review section, various activities have been documented as important to use in instruction of vocabulary. Since adult ELLs come from diverse backgrounds and life experiences, have different motivations for learning English, and different literacy levels and learning styles, it is important for the adult ESL teacher to have a variety of techniques and activities available to use in teaching adult ELLs (Eyring, 2014). The single participant listening activities were divided into three categories: (a) definitions or word meanings; (b) examples for word pronunciation, spelling or usage; and (c) teacher's questions to check vocabulary comprehension or using pictures to check comprehension. On the whole, the literature supports these activities as best practices as they reinforce new words in context, over time, and allow ELLs to use the words in real-world interactions (Beck et al., 2002; Brown & Lee, 2015).

Nineteen of the single participant oral vocabulary activities were Speaking Activities (Appendix D). Ten of these activities centered on defining vocabulary including the teacher giving examples, acting out a definition, drawing and showing pictures to define a word, and the teacher or a classmate translating to a student's L1. Other single participant activities include students spelling the vocabulary words aloud, reading and defining the words aloud (some using a written prompt), the teacher asking questions about the vocabulary, playing Pictionary to elicit vocabulary for classroom objects, and students showing family photos on their smartphones to talk about their families. This family photo Speaking Activity, used by one participant, presented students an opportunity to use the vocabulary they learned to interact with classmates on a more personal level. Students clearly enjoyed this activity and sharing their family photos and stories with classmates. Although this activity began as a speaking only activity, it quickly developed into an impromptu speaking and listening activity. Students were especially curious to hear from a newlywed classmate who shared photos of her recent wedding, talked about the event, and answered her classmates' questions. This unrehearsed activity gave these adult ELLs the opportunity

to engage in authentic speech to express their own opinions, and use the vocabulary and language skills they learned in class in a real-world setting that had meaning to them (Finn Miller, 2010; Lazaraton, 2014; ThiTuyetAnh, 2015).

Sixteen of the single participant oral vocabulary activities were Listening & Speaking Activities (Appendix D). Of these, nine were teacher and student engagement activities, including: students repeating vocabulary words for pronunciation, repeating vocabulary in sentences, singing, responding to the teacher's questions, and practicing listening and speaking skills through dialog. The remaining seven activities engaged students by working in pairs to practice dialogs, introduce themselves to classmates, repeating after and completing web activities, and asking and answering questions. These participatory activities have been found beneficial by previous researchers (Brown & Lee, 2015; Lazaraton, 2014).

The teacher and student interactive activities were valuable as adult ELLs benefit from listening to and repeating new words after their teacher (Lazaraton, 2014) to gain fluency. Whether practicing conversation skills with the teacher or a classmate, adult ELLs also benefit from the real-world-pertinent practice of speaking and listening as dialog (Finn Miller, 2010). In a Listening & Speaking Activity, used by one participant, students introduced themselves to classmates in a simulated social setting of meeting people and engaging in small talk at a party; this activity included the social practice of shaking hands at introduction and ending a conversation politely. The diverse ethnic and cultural make-up of this class meant the activity allowed students to practice their listening and speaking skills while they learned the culture associated with social interactions in the United States. The small talk activity was successful because the students felt safe and comfortable enough in their learning environment to practice their language skills (ThiTuyetAnh, 2015), and it was a situation they find themselves facing in real life. This activity added to the adult ELLs' ability to interact in social settings and gave them an awareness of proper social etiquette (Lazaraton, 2014). In the next section, I discuss the oral vocabulary activities used by the study's participants, and their beliefs, by categories.

Conclusions and Implications

Since little is currently known about the instructional practices used to teach oral vocabulary to non-academic adult ELLs, this study contributes to the relevant literature and to the field of adult ESL. Overall, this study revealed that although NAESL instructors used two categories of activities to teach oral vocabulary to their students, they were much more likely to use written vocabulary activities than oral vocabulary activities. I cannot emphasize enough the importance of building oral vocabulary and listening and speaking skills in adult ELLs. These basic skills enable beginner-level adult ELLs to interact and communicate in professional and social settings.

Although it is not surprising that the study uncovered two categories of instructional activities teachers in NAESL programs used to teach vocabulary, namely, oral vocabulary and written vocabulary activities, the rate these activities were used came as a surprise. Overall, the classroom time devoted to written vocabulary activities far outweighed that spent on oral vocabulary activities despite the importance placed

on listening and speaking skills for beginner-level ELLs. When I presented my findings to the study's participants, they seemed unconcerned as they did not see a difference between the oral vocabulary and written vocabulary activities they used. They believed that any vocabulary instruction was beneficial to their students regardless of how it was delivered or used in the classroom. This is not a complete surprise as my review of the literature shows a partiality to vocabulary instruction for reading and writing. Nevertheless, vocabulary is an essential first step in learning any language, yet it is the listening and speaking skills that beginner-level adult ELLs are more likely to use in their everyday work and social interactions. Taking into consideration the importance placed on speaking and listening as entry-level language skills, and the actual real-time spent in the classroom building and reinforcing these skills, more classroom instructional time should be devoted to speaking and listening as language skills.

Although reading and writing are important language skills for adult ELLs to expand and strengthen, as this case study suggests, speaking and listening play a much more prominent role in NAELLs everyday interactions regardless of where they take place. Therefore, spending more classroom instructional time on oral vocabulary activities would provide adult ELLs with the practice they need to become more fluent in English but under teacher supervised conditions, which from this perspective are crucial. Adult learners see their teachers as the go-to person for questions of language and culture in the United States. As such, by overseeing NAELLs as they practice speaking and listening skills in classroom-staged social and work settings, the teacher can provide group and individualized feedback on pronunciation, prosody, intonation, and usage. These real-world and real-time skills are necessary for comprehension in a variety of everyday situations, such as on-the-job or in a job interview, storm warnings, in a doctor's office, and interacting with their child's teacher.

Importantly, as the number of adults in need of ESL instruction increases and expands to non-traditional points of entry across the country, the need for qualified instructors will also increase. Through ongoing professional development instructors of NAESL learners should be made more aware of the different types with vocabulary activities available, and they should be familiarized with, and encouraged to use, oral vocabulary activities in their classrooms.

Instructors of NAESL learners should be made more aware of the different types of vocabulary activities available, and they should be familiarized with, and encouraged to use, oral vocabulary activities in their classrooms. My review of the literature above confirms the need for more research in the field of adult ESL. Specifically, I suggest follow-up research to explore vocabulary instruction with beginner NAELLs compared with intermediate or advanced fluency level NAELLs. Furthermore, given the growing role immigrants play in the US workforce (Passel & Cohn, 2017), future research should investigate vocabulary instruction and skills for employment with NAELLs whether beginner, intermediate, or advanced levels of fluency.

Given that most of the instructional activities were used by one participant, it is important to look at ways teachers of this student population can be trained and certified to provide more consistency in the implementation of best practices. Unlike

K - 12 that has uniform licensure requirements, adult ESL has no uniformity in certification or training for its teachers. As a result, teachers of NAELLs would benefit from participating in on-going professional development opportunities to address the unique needs of NAELLs as learners and to inform teachers of best practices to use with NAELLs that they can apply to their own practices.

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Appendix A

**BACKGROUND OF TEACHERS'
QUESTIONNAIRE
January 27, 2014**
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1. How many years have you been an **adult education** teacher at the County Technical School?

    (a) ___ 0-2   (b) __ 3-5   (c) __ 6-10   (d) _ 11- more

2. In what area(s) is your NJ state teaching certificate?

3. If not ESL certified, what is your preparation to teach ESL?

4. In what year did you receive your NJ state teaching certificate?

5. How many sections of beginner adult ESL do you teach?

6. How many students do you teach in each section?

7. What is your teaching schedule this semester for beginner adult ESL classes?

Appendix B

IDTIQ
* * *
INITIAL DESCRIPTION OF TEACHERS' INSTRUCTION QUESTIONNAIRE
January 27, 2014
Copyright © Carol Cochi

1. Please briefly describe your teaching style:

2. What do you do in the classroom when you teach oral (words students need for speaking or listening comprehension) vocabulary? Describe the steps you follow or activities you use in teaching oral vocabulary.

3. What do you emphasize when you teach oral vocabulary?

4. What linguistic components do you emphasize when you teach oral vocabulary?

5. What teacher materials do you use in the classroom?

6. What technology is available to you in your adult ESL classroom?

Appendix C

Observation Protocol

Descriptive Notes	Reflective Notes
Teacher:	
Location:	
Date:	
Time (begin/end):	
Number of students:	
Lesson Observed:	
Lesson Objective:	
Classroom environment, physical setting, layout, desks:	
General Observations:	

Appendix D

Oral Vocabulary Activities Across Participants

ACTIVITY	PARTICIPANT		
	1	2	3
Listening			
Teacher corrected student's pronunciation of vocabulary	X	X	X
Teacher wrote definition on board following an oral definition	X	X	
Teacher gave synonym	X	X	
Teacher gave example using target vocabulary	X	X	
Teacher asked questions to elicit information using target vocabulary		X	X
Teacher asked for definition of vocabulary		X	X
Teacher asked questions to elicit vocabulary	X		
Teacher asked questions to elicit definition	X		
Teacher asked questions to review vocabulary	X		
Teacher asked questions to survey students using vocabulary	X		
Teacher gave definition	X		
Teacher gave example sentences with vocabulary	X		
Teacher read aloud to model pronunciation	X		
Teacher modeled how to spell aloud: D as in David	X		
Teacher gave clues for pronouncing words	X		
Teacher asked if any "new" words on vocabulary list		X	
Teacher asked questions to check comprehension of vocabulary		X	
Teacher asked questions about vocabulary picture		X	
Teacher gave antonym		X	
Teacher gave other meanings for words		X	
Teacher gave example for word usage related to vocabulary		X	
Teacher read vocabulary		X	
Teacher said vocabulary words aloud		X	
Teacher spelled word aloud		X	
Teacher gave definition aloud for pronunciation		X	
Teacher checked students' speaking: pronunciation, intonation of vocabulary		X	
Teacher repeated students' sentences		X	
Students pointed to picture for each vocabulary word		X	
Students listened to CD		X	
Teacher wrote students' vocabulary words on board			X
Teacher asked if students know vocabulary words			X
Teacher reviewed vocabulary usage			X
Teacher gave example of vocabulary in context			X
Teacher asked student to spell her name aloud			X
Teacher wrote word pairs on board-for vocabulary pronunciation			X
TOTAL LISTENING ACTIVITIES: 35/77 (45%)	13	20	9

Speaking			
Students read word pairs from board-pronunciation using a written prompt	X	X	
Teacher answered student's question about specific vocabulary/words		X	X
Students translated vocabulary to L1	X		X
Students spelled vocabulary and teacher wrote on board	X		
Students gave example for definition	X		
Teacher used visual to elicit vocabulary	X		
Students spelled their names aloud and teacher wrote letters on board-letter pronunciation	X		
Teacher asked student to translate words and vocabulary to L1		X	
Teacher used picture to introduce vocabulary		X	
Students showed family photo and identified family		X	
CD Activity/Smartboard for class activity-questions from teacher		X	
Teacher drew picture to show definition		X	
Teacher wrote IPA of vocabulary word on board		X	
Students read vocabulary from the board			X
Students read date from board-pronunciation using a prompt			X
Students played Pictionary with vocabulary			X
Teacher used L1 for definition/translated vocabulary			X
Teacher used visual/showed item to elicit responses using vocabulary			X
Teacher used picture to elicit conversation			X
Students circled words they know on "word list"			X
Teacher acted out definition of vocabulary			X
Teacher used visual/item for definition of vocabulary			X
TOTAL SPEAKING ACTIVITIES: **22/77 (29%)**	**6**	**8**	**11**
Listening & Speaking			
Computer Lab-some were listening and speaking activities	X	X	X
Students listened to CD and repeated		X	X
Teacher and student incidental conversation about vocabulary	X		X
Teacher said vocabulary and students repeated	X		X
Teacher pronounced vocabulary and students repeated	X		
Teacher sang and students repeated	X		
Students asked and answered questions following a written prompt	X		
Teacher read sentences aloud using vocabulary and students repeated		X	
Teacher read vocabulary aloud and students repeated		X	
Teacher said list of vocabulary and students repeated		X	

Students and teacher practice vocabulary by reading dialog in turns		X	
Students Pair work reading dialog to practice using vocabulary		X	
Teacher modeled listening activity with a repetition task		X	
Teacher asked questions about a listening activity		X	
Students responded to questions to elicit oral vocabulary		X	
Students practiced introductions with classmates			X
Teacher and students practiced introductions			X
Students practiced asking and answering questions using vocabulary			X
Students listened and repeated web activity			X
Students listened and completed web activities			X
TOTAL LISTENING & SPEAKING ACTIVITIES:	**20/77 (26%)**	**6**	**10**	**9**
TOTAL ORAL VOCABULARY ACTIVITIES:	**77 (100%)**	**25**	**38**	**29**

Seeing in Writing:
A Case Study of a Multilingual Graduate Writing Instructor's Socialization through Multimodality

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With growing numbers of multilinguals becoming writing instructors and scholars in the U.S. composition context, it is urgent to understand how multilingual graduate instructors of writing socialization processes are mediated by multimodal elements rather than just textual forms of language. This article reports on an ethnographically-oriented case study to respond to the following questions: (1) Does multimodality contribute to a multilingual graduate instructor's socialization into writing and the teaching of writing? If yes, in what ways does multimodality interact with the writer's language repertoire? (2) How does the multilingual graduate instructor's multimodal writing and teaching of writing impact other academic practices? Through systematic thematic coding and multimodal textual analysis of questionnaires, a classroom observation, writing materials, and a semi-structured interview, the study reveals that the participant, a graduate teacher of writing, transitioned from isolation to socialization through multimodality while developing a gendered consciousness. In addition, her identity shifted in power hierarchies as socialization enabled researching and teaching through multimodal and multisensorial identity.

Keywords: academic socialization, identity, multilingualism, multimodality

In the past few years, the number of international multilingual graduate instructors of writing in U.S. composition programs has been increasing (Kitalong, 2017). However, the contexts where these multilingual instructors work are deemed monolingual (Matsuda, 2006) since most students taking courses like first-year composition grew up speaking various Englishes. This unique situation enhanced by migration, digital connectivity, and new trends in college student demographics (Martins, 2015) poses some questions regarding the agency of multilingual instructors of writing in these monolingual environments (Anderson, 2017). Understanding how they become socialized into their classroom communities and writing programs is particularly important in order to develop teacher education programs and mentoring initiatives that support them and account for their rich knowledge of languages and

writing across borders. It is particularly important to investigate how multilingual graduate instructors of writing develop their teaching identities through socialization as they build on their previous lived experiences of writing and language while gradually become exposed to unknown composing and teaching practices in the new contexts where they participate.

Some scholarship in second language writing, applied linguistics, and composition studies has paid substantial attention to the types of pedagogies that reflect the needs, expectations, and backgrounds of students whose lives involve moving across geographical and institutional settings, languages and modalities, and identities (including those institutionally ascribed). However, little attention has been paid to how multilingual instructors of writing, particularly those who are also gaining access into their academic communities as graduate instructors learn to teach writing. In other words, we know about their pedagogies, the teaching resources they use, the activities they develop (Flores & Aneja, 2017; Motha et al., 2012; Sánchez-Martín et al., 2019; Zheng, 2017) but not about how they engage through socialization with the new expectations and requirements of settings unfamiliar to them in order to develop expertise as instructors of writing. To zoom into this transitional stage, the notion of socialization provides a space to investigate how newcomers, be it students or instructors, learn to interact and become recognized members of a group of experts and how a variety of factors and agents mediate their learning while shaping their identities, through negotiated and co-constructed practice and contestation of norms (Zappa-Hollman & Duff, 2015).

Broadly, research on language socialization studies "the semiotically mediated affordances of novices' engagement with culture - building webs of meaning and repertoires of social practice academic socialization" (Ochs & Schieffelin, 2011, p. 17), and more concretely, academic socialization provides a framework to understand how individuals learn to navigate the various and diverse academic communities they are situated in. Kobayashi, Zappa-Hollman, and Duff (2017) explain academic socialization as an "innovative, transformative, and sometimes contested process" (p. 293).

By drawing on this understanding of academic socialization (Kobayashi et al., 2017), this study addresses how a multilingual graduate instructor of writing in a "monolingual" setting learns to account for her own identities and knowledge as a newcomer to both the teaching of writing and her disciplinary communities. In fact, as Duff (2007) has pointed out, gaining access into a new community takes place "through linguistic and social interaction into relevant local communicative practices or ways of using language", which have "their own values, ideologies, and activities" (p. 310). More specifically, this study calls for an understanding of academic socialization with a broader consideration of semiotic resources beyond text-based language and the documentation of such processes in specific artifacts (Kobayashi et al., 2017).

To contribute to the existing literature, this ethnographically-oriented (Paltridge et al., 2016) case study pursued to two research questions:

- Does multimodality contribute to a multilingual graduate instructor's socialization into writing and the teaching of writing? If yes, in what ways does multimodality interact with the writer's language repertoire?

- How does the multilingual graduate instructor's multimodal writing and teaching of writing impact other academic practices?

Before offering information about the methodological choices for this study and the findings, a review of the literature will describe recent work related to the notions of academic socialization, multilingualism, and multimodality.

Academic Socialization, Multilingualism, and Multimodality

During the past two decades, the notion of academic socialization has been utilized to approach how individuals gain access to their academic communities through linguistic and social interaction (Duff, 2007). More generally, within an activity theory perspective (Prior et al. 2007), socialization points at how people partake in systems of activity with other human and non-human agents in their environments in order to accomplish their goals in society; in doing so they are shaped and shape the very same nature of the activities they engage in. However, as Ochs and Schieffelin (2011), point out, "(a) central tenet of language socialization research is that novices' participation in communicative practices is promoted but not determined by a legacy of socially and culturally informed persons, artifacts, and features of the built environment" (p. 4). Therefore, individual agency and creativity are possible as humans become socialized into their communities (pp. 4-5) while they learn from more experienced and knowledgeable members of the community.

In relation to studies on the academic socialization in English of second language or multilingual students, scholars have demonstrated that students develop membership and expertise in their communities and areas through individual networks of practice - INoP (Zappa-Hollman & Duff, 2015). While acknowledging the impact of other agents and factors in the socialization processes, INoPs are centered on the individual as possessing and developing agency in their unique and idiosyncratic trajectories by choosing to interact with specific nodes of individuals who mediate their learning.

Other studies have investigated multilingual graduate students' socialization in English programs. For example, Seloni's 2012 "micro-ethnographic" study of ten doctoral students showed that collaboration and interactions outside formal classrooms settings contributed to enhancing their sense of belonging and legitimacy of their evolving academic identities and knowledge. This socialization took place through different spaces including initial contact frames by which individual become cognizant of writing and academic expectations, institutional academic spaces such as the writing program and required graduation courses where interactions among participants shaped their socialization, and a "safe house" (Canagarajah, 1997) culture of peer collaboration that allowed them to discuss, resist, and co-construct aspects of their socialization into their academic communities. Distinguishing between external and internal socialization factors and processes, Anderson's multiple case study (2017) investigated how seven Chinese students became socialized into their PhD programs in Arts and Education at a Canadian university, demonstrating that, in general, community-based and external socialization was positive. This researcher observed that while some critical incidents of doctoral "gaze" led them to perceive themselves as

deficient; these instances ultimately created opportunities for self-reflection and long-term positive academic socialization.

Similarly, Morita (2004) studied how graduate students from Japan negotiated their identities in a Canadian university context, which revealed the students' "challenges" in developing and enacting their changing perception of competence and identities in their specific communities of practices. Ultimately, Morita's 2004 study sheds light on how the ongoing negotiation of identities, in particular, constructed linguistic identities, is central to academic socialization and shapes the degree of agency that newcomers deploy as they grow.

As for specific academic communities, some studies delve into multilingual graduate students' disciplinary identities. Dressen-Hammouda's 2008 study traced the trajectory of Patrick, a doctoral student in geology, as he became more knowledgeable with the genres most frequently used in his field along with the interpretative frameworks of "doing" the work of a geologist and gaining disciplinary expertise. Along the same lines, Sánchez-Martín and Seloni (2019) investigated in a collaborative autoethnographic project how a PhD candidate developed transdisciplinary expertise while writing the first stages of her dissertation and during her mentoring relationship with her advisor. This study demonstrated that gaining expert knowledge also involved gendered knowledge construction and navigating responses to intersectional and transnational identities through a feminist consciousness.

The role of language in the development of disciplinary and writing knowledge of graduate students has also received substantial attention. For example, Seloni's 2014 case study described the writing activities and choices of a Colombian master's student. His choices involved Spanish and English as well as in multiple modalities as he was engaging in thesis writing, where his previous transnational and disciplinary identities and knowledges were deployed to construct new meaning. Framed from a translingual lens, Alvarez, Canagarajah et al. (2017) exposed the types of identity conflicts that linguistically diverse graduate instructors (both multilingual U.S. born and international instructors) experience when they teach first-year composition in a U.S. context and how they utilize their translinguistic and contested identities to inform their pedagogical practices and promote accurate and complex understandings of language diversity. Despite the importance of these studies in portraying a more accurate picture of the types of activities and processes of graduate students and instructors, the relationship between multimodality (the combination of multiple modalities in communication including text, sound, visuals, gestures, and spatial elements both in digital and print platforms, Belcher 2017) and the academic socialization of multilingual graduate instructors remains unexplored.

In this regard, it is important to clarify that substantial attention has been paid to the role of diverse language repertoires in developing multilingual student writers' rhetorical consciousness (Canagarajah, 2011; Seloni, 2014), including more recent studies about the potential of investigating the relationship between multimodal and multilingual composing (Belcher, 2017; Jiang, 2018; Smith et al., 2017); yet, these studies have tended to pay attention to language as textual and/or phonocentric in identity construction and thus, in the socialization processes of these groups of

newcomers, leaving aside other forms of meaning-making. The fact that this specific modality of human communication (textual language) has been overemphasized is a concern that scholars like Li Wei (2018) and Lee (2017) have recently pointed out. In his discussion of translanguaging as a practical theory of language, Li Wei (2018) contends that "(h)uman beings think beyond language, and thinking requires the use of a variety of cognitive, semiotic, and modal resources of which language in its conventional sense of speech and writing is only one" (p. 18). In other words, a theory of language must be conceptualized as the activity of transcending not just named languages, but the separation between "linguistic and non-linguistic cognitive and semiotic systems" (p. 20). Block (2014) refers to the "lingua bias" of language theories, which to him is a tendency to conceive of communicative practices exclusively in terms of "morphology, syntax, phonology, (and) lexis" and overlooking multimodality, the senses, and embodiment "as a broadened semiotically based way of looking at what people do when they interact" (p. 56).

With this in mind, it can be stated that little is known about how multilingual graduate instructors gain access into their communities and disciplinary expertise through multiple modalities. In fact, as Ochs and Schieffelin (2011) explain, "a central goal (of research in socialization) has been to discern the role of language and other semiotic systems in the quotidian reproduction and innovation of social order and cultural knowledge, beliefs, values, ideologies, symbols, and indexes" (p. 11); however, a specific focus on language as text or speech has predominated in the scholarship. In this sense, Kobayashi, Zappa-Hollman, and Duff (2017) have pointed out that future directions in studies about socialization should investigate the impact and mediation of diverse semiotic resources in these processes by which newcomers become members of a community.

Finally, within an activity theory perspective, socialization is important to learning in that it helps to construct ecologies (biological, material, and physical forces in the environment) that are favorable to the learning itself. As Gutiérrez et al. (2007) state:

> If we want to promote the development of learning ecologies organized around expansive learning in which people's repertoires are extended and power relations are transformed, we shouldn't assume that the curriculum alone can serve as the quick fix. Instead, we need to think about what it takes to create environments (…) with ongoing and wide-ranging forms of support or mediation (p. 73).

This study extends on previous research on socialization by illuminating the learning processes of a multilingual graduate instructor of writing in the U.S. first-year composition context. As such, it offers information about the types of material support and resources necessary to enhance the socialization of this particular population as they move into the communities of first-year writing teachers.

An Ethnographically-Oriented Case Study

This case study is part of my dissertation project, in which I investigated how seven multilingual graduate instructors implemented translingual pedagogies in their first-year composition courses. Translingual pedagogies involved more than attending

to explicit forms of language difference, what scholars call "code-meshing" (Schreiber & Watson, 2018). In fact, these multilingual instructors of writing were moving beyond the boundaries of named-languages and single modalities with their translingual practices, but at the same time, they were also bringing their lived experiences of languaging to the classroom, which required continuously wrestling with marginalizing language ideologies (Sánchez-Martín, 2020).

In addition, one participant (Agatha, whose experiences I report on this study) seemed to rely more explicitly on modalities rather than on the alphabetic dimension of her languaging practices. During the data collection process for this study, it became noticeable that the participant's identity as a multilingual graduate instructor was not centered on linguistic difference (as frequently discussed in the literature), but on multiple modalities. The uniqueness of this case instigated a deeper look at the role of multimodality in her socialization as a writing teacher. For Hyland (2016), case studies provide "a rich description of events with interpretive analysis that draws on participants' own perspectives" enabling the researcher to put forth "a thorough portrayal of local writing behaviours" (p. 121). Similarly, Merriam (1998) refers to a case study as "a bounded system" that is investigated "as an instance of some concern, issue or hypothesis" (p. 28).

In addition, I have adopted ethnographic perspectives (Paltridge et al., 2016), by conducting observations and interviews, which allow me to keep an emic perspective when understanding the participant's activities rather than bringing in pre-existing views on her practices; I maintained a sustained, yet brief involvement with her, immersing myself in the participant's life collecting and analyzing the data for this study (the data collection took four months, but I had known Agatha for two years). During the observations I conducted, I became a participant observer in Agatha's classroom setting. As the researcher, I had the chance to collect class materials and additional artifacts from the participant, trying to fill in the gap between text and context (Lillis, 2008).

Most importantly, the sections below aim to provide a thick description of the context and activities of the participant "in an attempt to recreate as closely as possible the field setting, so that, instead of mere description, the researcher moves to interpretation and the reader is provided with a greater depth of understanding" (Paltridge et al., 2016, Chapter 1, Section 6, para. 6). However, as a case study informed by ethnographic perspectives, the findings from this qualitative study provide a detailed account of the participant's experiences, but might not be applicable to other multilingual instructors, who might not saliently and purposefully put multimodality at the center of their (disciplinary) identities.

The Research Participant: Agatha

Agatha (self-selected pseudonym) was a second year PhD student in an interdisciplinary English program at a public university in the U.S. Midwest when I invited her to participate in this study. Her area of expertise was children's literature. Before entering the PhD in the United States, Agatha lived in the south of France. Agatha started learning English at the age of ten, and by watching TV and movies or reading

books on her own when she was a teenager, she developed more knowledge of English. As far as writing is concerned, Agatha learned to write in English in school through basic grammar exercises and through essays in college, but she never took a writing class. Her writing in the English PhD program at the time of the study consisted mostly of writing for her degree and her teaching position in English; in social media she engaged in both French and English writing. As second year PhD student, Agatha had had the opportunity to work as a teaching assistant teaching first-year writing and a children's literature class, an introductory course "centered around written material, multimedia texts, literary analysis, and criticism" (Interview, May 17, 2017). However, these past two years as a PhD student constitute her writing teaching experience. Prior to her education in the PhD program and becoming a writing instructor, she had not learned about writing pedagogies. As Agatha explained, "writing/composition isn't a subject of its own in France," so she had to learn "on the go" while teaching and taking a graduate course on composition pedagogies during her first year as a PhD student. Her socialization process into becoming a writing teacher was therefore a site for developing her own teacher identity, practices, and pedagogies.

Besides her graduate school responsibilities and teaching, Agatha devotes herself to art, which began as a hobby and quickly turned into a lifestyle. At first sight, Agatha appears to be a shy and soft-spoken person who does not often speak her mind, but her collection of watercolors, pastels, drawings, collages, portraits and self-portraits, and photographs reflect, through vivid colors and shapes, a unique, rich, an open personality. Agatha expresses herself and her view of the world and those around her through her art. Her voice isn't soft but loud, confident, and audacious in her artistic expressions. This part of her personality became slowly but surely present in her activities as a multilingual teacher of writing, facilitated through her socialization with other agents in the writing program.

Methods of Data Collection

IRB approval for this study was obtained in the Spring 2017 semester, as part of my dissertation. The data corpus consisted of an initial online questionnaire about Agatha's background, a classroom observation and field notes, artifacts shared by the participant (including teaching artifacts and other materials discussed during the interview), and a semi-structured interview. The data collection process began with an online questionnaire about the participant's personal, linguistic, and education backgrounds as well as her teaching experiences as a multilingual writer. Next, a classroom observation was conducted. For the observation, I worked around Agatha's schedule and preferences to set it up when it was more convenient for her. The class lasted 50 minutes. Agatha shared with me her syllabus and lesson plan prior to the observation. Finally, a semi-structured interview was conducted and audio-recorded. The interview went on for approximately 30 minutes and it was soon transcribed. In her interview, Agatha discussed some artifacts which were later shared as well for data analysis.

Methods of Data Analysis

The data analysis process was recursive, and it continued for a year approximately (from May 2017 to June 2018). It consisted of a thematic analysis

(Saldaña, 2015) in order to detect the most salient points emerging from the entire set (initial questionnaire, course materials and learning artifacts, and interview). In addition, the thematic analysis was also complemented by a rhetorical and multimodal discourse analysis (Paltridge & Wang, 2015, p. 212) of a short graphic novel that the participant shared with the researcher after the interview took place. This additional analysis contributed to investigating "the social and cultural settings of language use to help us understand how it is that people come to make particular choices" (p. 203). In addition, this analysis was conducted in response to Kobayashi, Zappa-Hollman, and Duff's (2017) claim that the "absence of direct observational data or artifacts makes it difficult to assess learners' development or socialization processes" (p. 249). In other words, the analysis of the graphic novel in which the participant describes her learning of "becoming a teacher of writing" provides first-hand observational data, which framed from an ethnographically-oriented analysis offers a rich picture of her process of socialization.

In what follows, I provide details about the findings of this study: (a) the multilingual graduate instructor described a transition from isolation linked to traditional genres to socialization through multimodal writing and a consciousness of gender in academia; (b) her socialization across academic environments involved identity shifts in unequal power hierarchies; (c) the multilingual graduate instructor's socialization enabled researching and teaching through multimodal and multisensorial identity.

Findings

From Isolation and Traditional Genres to Socialization Through Multimodal Writing and a Consciousness of Gender in Academia

As a final reflection for the writing teacher education course that Agatha was required to complete on her first semester as a graduate instructor of first year composition, Agatha chose to depict how she was increasingly becoming a member of the community of graduate writing instructors by creating a short graphic novel (see Figure 1 and Figure 2) entitled the "The Grad Dilemma". The visual fictional narrative tells the story of a graduate student who positions themselves[1] as not knowledgeable and suffering from impostor syndrome. ("I know nothing" is explicitly stated in a small piece of paper at the center of the page). The student in the graphic novel is lonely, only mentally accompanied by intertextual references to three male figures: (1) a Greek male figure, possible a rhetorician, whose impact on composition studies and rhetoric is still present; (2) a popular culture reference to Jon Snow from the show "Game of Thrones" and a version of the quote "you know nothing, Jon Snow"; and (3) an artistic reference to the painting "The Scream" by Edvard Munch, an expressionist artist from the 19th century. This painting symbolizes agony and anxiety, a state of being implied also by the text in the essay through expressions like "questions have been haunting me like crows in the dark", and other elements in Figure 1, like the torn newspaper article with the picture of Jon Snow and the cigarettes. These pictorial elements in the graphic novel also contribute to creating an image of isolation, anxiety, and being lost in academia.

On the other hand, Figure 2 displays Agatha's rich interdisciplinary knowledge in the figurative and popular arts, popular modern visual culture, classic rhetoric, and graphic story and narrative writing. Perhaps the graphic novel is a result of Agatha's exposure to television shows and fiction books when she was growing up in France since, she had not taken writing courses per se where these types of writing were formally taught (Interview, May 17, 2017).

Figure 1.

First page of "The Grad Dilemma"

Continuing with the description of the narrative, socialization is absent from the student's life until the sudden appearance of "Aka Demia", an attractive woman who the student does not know or even whose intentions are understood by the student, but who captures the student's attention and seduces them (Figure 2). "Aka Demia" is represented as a female that breaks with previous notions and the references made to the past; she is intriguing, interesting, and extraordinary. Her name, "Aka Demia", is a creative "misspelling" of the proper noun with a Greek etymological origin "academia". The female figure "Aka Demia" is breaking with tradition; in fact, she slams the door as she only commands "write and read now" and finally asks the student to follow her, to which they agree.

In the first page (Figure 1), the author (Agatha) is telling us that this new version of school practices "Aka Demia" helps the student to transcend masculinist and traditional practices that produce anxiety and are isolating. When we turn the page to the next part of the story (Figure 2), we realize that following a renewed "Aka Demia" is not without obstacles, but with determination and effort (evidenced by the expressions "I walked briskly" and "moving on tirelessly"), the student is capable of understanding their own place. The strategic location on the page of the words "but then I understood" surrounding the eyes of the student (again emphasizing the visual) is a defining moment and breaking point in the student's academic life, facilitated by "Aka Demia".

While previous experiences and expressions of academia were dark, full of anxiety, and isolation, "Aka Demia" has shown a much more humane and collaborative way to become a member of one's communities. To begin with, "Aka Demia" and the student are at the center, close to one another, and "Aka Demia" tells the student "I love you for who you are". At the same time, the student has learned other valuable lessons by following "Aka Demia" and observing, a practice emphasized by the central role of the student's eyes on the page. For example, they have realized that teaching (of writing in her case) and learning take place simultaneously in the classroom and that there is a network of people who can assist to facilitate the student's teaching and research activities. In this brief graphic novel, Agatha is describing explicit socialization via visual and spatial elements as an essential component to successfully and

Figure 2.

Second page of "The Grad Dilemma"

healthily become members of the communities we are gaining access to. While implicit socialization already exists in all human activity (Ochs & Schieffelin, 2011, pp. 13-14), Agatha is making a call to interact with others' in our communities for assistance. At the same time, she is describing this relationship between the self and other members of the community as involving reciprocity by saying "I have a voice and it matters to others".

For Agatha, her relationship with other graduate instructors was in fact essential to "learn" how to teach writing. In fact, the following segment from the interview expands on her understanding of socialization:

I: How about as a writing instructor? Did you have to learn something that you didn't know how to write before?

A: When I started with 101, well first of all, you go through the whole orientation and the course and how to teach different genres and *just knowing that everyone else was also on the same boat (L), sort of struggling with that, it made it easier.* (Interview, May 17, 2017. Emphasis added). [2]

Agatha's response echoes the story told in "The Grad Dilemma", but this time, she refers to the collectivity of instructors as experiencing academic life together to

overcome difficulties and gaining knowledge as a group. The support of other members of the community of instructors and writing program faculty and administration, implied by the references to the new instructor orientation and the course for new instructors, facilitated the transition into becoming teachers. The tone of Agatha's words is that this time is less serious and dark than in the graphic story when she refers to the difficulties as "being on the same boat sort of struggling" because while saying it, Agatha momentarily laughed (L). It is important to notice that the interview took place in May, three semesters after her first experiences teaching writing and creating the story. This small detail gives us insights into how newcomers in academic might first encounter unfamiliar practices (as dark, anxiety-driven, and lonely) and how, with time and a support network, their academic lives might become much more fulfilling as in Agatha's case.

Socialization Across Academic Environments Where Identity Shifts in Unequal Power Hierarchies

Another layer of Agatha's socialization involves negotiating participation and agency in different environments. The story creates a space for Agatha to reflect on what learning is like through socialization in line with Seloni's (2012) notion of "collaborative culture of collaboration" among peer instructors and in other institutionalized ways of socializing (the required course for instructors and orientation for new teachers). The practice of writing a "non-traditional" genre (Paltridge et al., 2012) with creative language practices ("Aka Demia", abbreviations like "BFF" or comic-inspired language like the onomatopoeia "slam") and most importantly, in which visual and spatial modalities are prioritized for meaning-making enabled the representation of academic socialization as Agatha experienced it. Her preferred modalities for creating the project were seen as legitimate in the context of the writing program. However, Agatha pointed out in the interview that there are other environments in academia where her choices are more restricted due to more hierarchical roles between graduate students and professors. The following excerpt from the interview provides additional context about Agatha's choice to write the graphic story:

I: And what was it like? What was the scene like? What did you have to do?

A: Well, she was pretty open to a lot of different projects, so she wanted either a research-based essay, like a traditional one, or a more creative hybrid project if you wanted to try. So, I thought it could be a good opportunity to try? **I don't know that I would try that sort of stuff in other classes yet**, and I am not taking classes anymore, so it doesn't matter (L).

I: Why do you think you couldn't try that in other classes?

A: Well, it depends on who is teaching and how open they are to different explorations of that kind, and *I am trying to encourage it but I also know I am a just a student and I can't push things too hard yet and I need to figure out* what I want to do with it and not just be obnoxious and be like hey! I wanna use pictures! (Interview, May 17, 2017. Emphasis added).

As Ochs and Schieffelin (2011) point out, "(c)ommon to all socializing interactions is an asymmetry of knowledge and power" and "(t)he exercise of power over novices' communicative practices is ubiquitous" (p. 6). Therefore, for Agatha, her socialization process also involves understanding her positionality within the hierarchies she is part of and explicitly negotiating her identities and positionalities (like being a student as opposed to the teacher in this case) as she interacts with specific agents and in different environments. Interestingly, Agatha's words imply that her focus on visual modalities is not common and still requires insistence and even resistance that she doesn't always want to pursue ("I need to figure out what I want to do with it and not just be obnoxious and be like hey! I wanna use pictures!"). However, it is her awareness of the possibilities available to her that foster her successful participation in diverse academic communities with different expectations.

Similarly, Zappa-Hollman and Duff (2015) found that "(n)ot all nodes (interlocutors) necessarily contribute to both types of return (social and academic), nor do they do so at equivalent levels or homogeneously and consistently over time" (p. 7). While Agatha is clearly contributing to pushing the boundaries of academic expectations in writing by "trying to encourage" more multimodal work, she is well-aware of how her interests and practices might not produce the same type of responses across individuals and disciplinary communities at different times (notice the use of the adverb "yet" in the sentence "I can't push things too hard yet"). In this regard, as scholars in applied linguistics have pointed out, socialization among peers and most importantly through mentoring relationships with advisors, can contribute to encourage students aiming for innovative writing processes and activities to perform them (Casanave, 2010; Paltridge et al., 2012; Tardy, 2016; among others). As Casanave (2010) claimed "(i)t does not make sense for potentially innovative and creative novice scholars to cling to formulaic traditions as though these traditions were engraved in stone" (p.12). In Agatha's case, her socialization teaches her about audience (her teachers) preferences on her writing and thus, the prominent role of teachers, mentors, and advisors in fostering alternative spaces for innovative writing approaches.

The idea of "making space" for non-traditional academic language and writing practices beyond ideal standard and monomodal ones has extensively being discussed in the context of translingual and transnational writing (Canagarajah, 2012; Donahue, 2018; Kaufhold, 2018). This case also demonstrates that when those kinds of "alternative" linguistic and composing spaces are made, writers have the potential to become more rhetorically informed in relation to how their own identities and practices are situated in, constructed by and constitutive of networks with shifting power dynamics. Through socialization into alternative language and writing, these dynamics can be better identified and potentially transformed. As the next theme will present, Agatha repurposes her learning of the affordances of "alternative linguistic and writing spaces" into her own research and teaching of writing, also pushing boundaries of traditional writing and language practices.

Researching and Teaching Through Multimodal and Multisensorial Identity

Agatha, born in France, grew up speaking French and started learning English at the age of 10. As mentioned earlier, the institutional context where she was a graduate instructor was perceived as "monolingual", since the vast majority of students grew up speaking Englishes. Therefore, Agatha's linguistic identity was considered marginal. As a researcher, I approached the data collection process for this project through an interest in Agatha's multilingual identity, centering my questions around the "textual" modality and not fully considering the significance of other modalities in the socialization processes. In part, this was due to my own socialization as a researcher into applied linguistics, a field that has produced large amounts of studies about socialization and language from a monolingual and monomodal lens (Kobayashi et al., 2017). Across the landscape of applied linguistic areas of study, researchers have acknowledged the "monolingual bias" of the field (May, 2014; Ortega, 2014); yet, less attention has been paid to the multimodal and multisensorial nature of human language in areas of applied linguistics, including language socialization. I, too, was biased in how my interview questions were formulated, assuming the "lingua" component of language (Lee, 2017) was the most significant in Agatha's practices. The following excerpt offers Agatha's own views of her writing as a multilingual graduate student and instructor, despite the framing of the question:

I: Now we are going to talk about writing as a multilingual graduate student. What genres do you do as a graduate student? In what languages?

A: Only in English now. And it is even like hard to think about those things in French, because I read about my research in English and I write it in English and I discuss it in English, so it is hard to translate. So that's my main language for thinking. And mostly essays and articles. Uhm I am trying to find different ways/cause part of my personal research is to find different ways to express yourself in academia through visual texts especially, so I am not quite there yet, but I try to introduce some elements of that in my writing, which then becomes not just writing but also visual, so yeah… (Interview, May 17, 2017).

While recent scholarship has attended to the importance of creating space for multilingual writers to reflect their linguistic backgrounds in discursive practices (Canagarajah, 2011), scholars have also pointed out that an overemphasis on textual elements in writing does not account for the complexities of language practices (Lee, 2017; Li Wei, 2018). In this case, as the researcher, my question to Agatha was framed as if speech and textual components of communication played a more significant role in Agatha's academic life; yet, her response demonstrates that other modalities are a priority in her writing practices. In fact, not only did she create the graphic story to describe her socialization into becoming a writing teacher, she also focused on working across modalities in other courses and disciplinary communities like rhetoric and art. Having realized my own bias of priming textual language over other modalities in academic practices, I followed up with another question during the interview to trigger Agatha's reflections on her multimodal writing:

I: Do you incorporate visual components into writing in academia to represent yourself?

A: Yeah. Sort of. Like uhm (.) I have only done it in some assignments so far, so I am hoping to introduce that into my dissertation. But uhm, like for one of the 402 assignments I did a comic, sort of like a two-page comic. I remember for a rhetoric article/essay I included a lot of multimedia sources, I took a class in the arts department this semester, so I made a scene instead of an actual research essay. So, *I am trying to combine different genres of writing and seeing in writing*, yeah. (Interview, May 17, 2017, Emphasis added).

As Agatha's words indicate, her writing identity is centered on multimodality and multimedia rather than language difference. It is not uncommon to find in the scholarship studies that link multimodality to multimedia and digital design (Belcher, 2017; Miller-Cochran, 2017) and multimodality is often times defined as the use of "images, sounds, movement, video, spoken words, or hypertext" (Miller-Cochran, 2017, p. 88) both in digital and print platforms. As expressed by some scholars, the almost ubiquity of digital spaces and new technologies and media of distribution in relation to writing have prompted a conversation about the affordances of these spaces and tools for meaning-making in the 21st century (Hafner, 2014) (along with their limitations, specifically in relation to issues of access and effective pedagogies). However, it is important to note that while multimodality and multimedia writing are overlapping concepts, they are not the same. For example, Agatha's graphic story was hand-drawn rather than designed with new technologies or on digital spaces; therefore, it is multimodal but not multimedia. In addition to this activity, Agatha also created multimedia article about rhetoric by inserting digital sources, and a recreated a scene instead of writing a traditional research paper for a class in the arts department. As a second-year graduate student and teacher of writing, Agatha is carving our space for non-traditional writing that goes beyond text across disciplines and audiences. Her research identity is thus intrinsically related to enacting multimodal and multimedia writing and, at the time of the study, her goals were to compose a dissertation that foregrounds the use of multimodality. An overemphasis on the linguistic (as in textual) component of her identity as a multilingual writer could have obscured Agatha's motivations and meaning and sense-making practices as a researcher. In this case, while she is cautious about crossing the boundaries of disciplinary expectations through multimodal composing, Agatha strategically positions herself in academic spaces (rhetoric and arts courses) that facilitate her meaning-making as "seeing in writing."

Aside from her research goals, Agatha's teaching is also deeply shaped by her practices of, in her words, "seeing in writing" (Interview, May 17, 2017). In general, Agatha's short graphic novel "The Grad Dilemma" shows her emerging identities as juxtaposed and emerging, suggested by the sentence in the present continuous "I can teach even though I am still learning." This realization through collaborative socializing spaces works as a steppingstone moment, since the narrative leads to this central idea. In fact, her negotiations of how to balance these two apparent sides of her persona (being a teacher and a student) are integral in her socialization. Agatha repurposes this disposition into her own teaching as it will be further explained below. However, her linguistic background does not seem to have a direct impact on her teaching, yet multimodality does.

Moreover, the participant reclaims her writing identities in the composition classroom through multimodality rather than mere "linguistic" resources. During the interview, the idea that Agatha sees linguistic diversity in the classroom as anecdotal became evident. In fact, when asked about how she integrates it in her teaching, she claims: "it sort of adds tiny little things to it, but it is not essential to my teaching" (Interview, May 17, 2017).

When I asked her to elaborate on what kinds of "tiny things" her multilingual identity facilitates in the classroom, Agatha reiterated that if her linguistic identity became relevant to her teaching, her pedagogies would consist of how she could be educated by students on language and cultural aspects that she wasn't familiar with. The following excerpt speaks to this idea:

> It enables me to sometimes adopt a more "external" point of view - by which I mean that I can ask "innocent" questions, and let my students educate me on aspects of the American culture that I'm not familiar with, but that they may sometimes take for granted as universal. On the other hand, I'm sometimes afraid that I'm missing a certain cultural reference or that I'm not able to express my thoughts like I want to. (Interview, May 17, 2017).

Language as a textual or spoken modality is thus a vehicle for larger conversations about culture rather than mere forms. From Agatha's words, the view of language that transpires is about language indexing cultural values and traditions. This view also resonates with the notion of dialogic pedagogy (Canagarajah, 2012) and co-learning (Li Wei, 2014) by which both teacher and students "need to constantly monitor and adapt their actions and learn from each other" (Li Wei, 2014, p. 169). Rather than understanding pedagogies as the teacher's deployment of knowledge, these kinds of pedagogies require teachers and students to shift their roles and construct meaning together while problematizing standard language ideologies in the classroom. By letting students teach her, the instructor, Agatha is modelling co-learning and dialogic strategies that create spaces for the co-construction of meaning. However, it is also worth noting that Agatha is positioning herself as "deficient" in the context of the class where all students are monolingual. A move away from the "lingual" modality of meaning-making to a more encompassing view of meaning-making as multimodal could prevent the negative self-perception that Agatha holds of herself.

Nonetheless, Agatha's personal interests in drawing and design became significantly more evident in her teaching materials. For Agatha, pictorial and graphic language are intrinsically tied to her teaching persona. For example, one of the units in Agatha's syllabus is entitled "A Writer's Self-Portrait." The only description on the syllabus of that unit reads as follows: "an exploration of your own writing through a self-portrait. But what is a self-portrait, really? We'll talk about that. And writing. A bit" (Agatha's syllabus).

During the interview, I asked Agatha to explain to me what this unit and the final project, a self-portrait, entails. She asks students to depict their perceptions of themselves and their writing identities. Agatha doesn't provide detailed instructions to students on purpose, to not limit their own take on the guidelines. Students can therefore produce any kind of portrait, however they understand it, by using modalities

and media they find appropriate to convey their ideas. When we conducted the interview, I once again asked Agatha if textual language played a significant part in how students understood their writing identities and their production of the portrait to which Agatha answered:

> Some people use language as a connection and say "well I use writing and I use speaking in those different ways" and others just pick like an author or a book they like, so it doesn't always have to do with language, but some do. (Interview, May 17, 2017).

As discussed earlier in relation to Agatha's own identity, language becomes secondary for student writers to represent themselves. However, if it does, it is broadly conceived as more than "academic" or "standard" forms, but as shifting practices emerging from different situations, in line with a translingual approach to writing. Agatha's own graphic novel brings the language most commonly used in this genre such as the use of colloquial language, rather than formal Standard American English. Through abbreviations like "BFF", interjections like "slam", or the play on words for a proper name "Aka Demia" Agatha's language practices resemble those of the genre of the graphic novel, and they reflect her expert understanding of effective rhetorical and semiotic means for the genre. Most importantly, these linguistic practices emanate from the possibilities that multimodal writing creates for meaning-making.

Another key feature of Agatha's approach to the teaching of writing has to do with a multisensorial understanding of language already hinted at through Agatha's expression "seeing in writing." When I observed her class, Agatha had written on the board the following question for students to respond to: "If you had to choose one of your 5 senses which one would you choose and why?" In this sense, it is also worth reminding here of Agatha's graphic novel where the student is portrayed as standing on top of negative emotions (fear, anxiety, self-doubt) and is surrounded by the voices of other socialization agents that productively respond to those emotions to contribute to the student's self-growth. Agatha's graphic novel represents what emotion studies scholar Micciche (2007) explains as follows: "bodies and emotions are not only enacted in writing but also imbued in how we come to writing" (p. 52). As demonstrated in Anderson's study, even negative affective stances enable the socialization of emerging teacher-scholars into their communities (2017, p. 6). For Agatha, composing the graphic novel allows her to enact specific emotional responses (overcoming an initial lack of confidence), but most importantly, it allows her to describe her writing research and teaching identity as notions that require reflecting on the sensorial and emotional responses faced in new situations.

In general, because Agatha does not center her identity around linguistic difference, but on "seeing" across modalities, Agatha does not feel singled-out in the first-year composition classroom space. Contrary to my assumptions when I came to this research project, as mentioned earlier, Agatha never spoke about her role as a multilingual teacher in a context deemed "monolingual" (Matsuda, 2006). Her identity, just like those of her "monolingual" students, does not revolve around linguistic proficiency in English but on making meaning through other kinds of communicative resources. With this in mind, it can thus be inferred that adopting a multimodal

approach to writing transcends linguistic boundaries often imposed by institutional labels (multilingual versus monolingual, for example) and presents opportunities for all writers to draw on whatever semiotic means they are more attuned to without disregarding or flattening difference. If students desire to do so, they can choose to describe their writing identities through a focus on their linguistic practices as related to other modalities and depicted in a portrait. Similarly, if necessary, linguistic difference becomes part of the classroom conversations, but always in response to the demands of specific genres that require attention to diverse linguistic practices. Most importantly, linguistic difference is conceptualized as more than standard forms and within a view of composing as multimodal and multisensorial practice.

Discussion

The findings from this study provide further insights about the socialization process of a multilingual graduate instructor into the teaching of first-year writing courses. They also shed light on the significance of identity construction and socialization into academic communities. More specifically, the findings of this case study demonstrate that socialization is a key area of development in the education of new teachers of writing, specifically, multilinguals who come from abroad to U.S. composition contexts. As seen in the first theme, the participant moved from feeling isolated and lonely as she interacted with traditional texts which centered on masculine figures to a complex process of socialization with a female figure as a guide and at the core of a collaborative and experimental process of socialization. This shift in how to enter academic communities was represented, by the participant, as causing positive and effective results. Through socialization that facilitated the integration of non-traditional genres and collaborative, non-hierarchical roles between teaching and learning, the participant was able to carve out space for the development of her identities, teaching, and research practices. In turn, the participant, through her constant negotiation of identities as she socialized into various discursive communities (writing, rhetoric, art, children's literature), she enacted her agency and creatively contributed to "pushing the legacy" of previous forms of socialization (Ochs & Schieffelin, 2011, p. 4) by innovating through her research and teaching practices. The participant's socialization was mediated by the environments she inhabited, and these were, at the same time, transformed by the participant's creativity.

One of the most revealing findings from this study involves the significance of multimodality in the socialization process of the participant. Agatha views of textual language difference as not having a central role in composition in favor of multimodal elements might be an extension of her interests in the arts; however, it is worth attending to the programmatic practices that cultivated this view and offered opportunities for Agatha to develop it, and even repurpose it into her own teaching. While studies on academic socialization had been focused on the role that diverse linguistic identities play in adapting or resisting to mainstream academic practices (Seloni, 2012), this case study suggested that an overemphasis on language (textual or oral) can risk the multimodal repertoires that multilinguals may want to draw on as they become socialized into various groups. These non-traditional practices may also be key in the research and teaching development of graduate students. It is important to

acknowledge that Agatha's background and interests in the arts informed her process of socialization; however, she was able to mobilize her identities and background knowledge because of the material conditions of the writing program where she learned and taught. In other words, without offering these opportunities to graduate student-instructors, we risk limiting their growth as writers and teacher-scholars.

In addition, attention to the multimodal and multisensorial aspects of human languaging practices (be it writing, learning, or teaching) brings to the table alternative spaces for identity-construction and meaning making in teaching and researching. In this study, Agatha's identities (as a multilingual female artist) were being valued and used as a learning and teaching resource through a multimodal and multisensorial lens to language and writing.

Perhaps most importantly, drawing attention to multimodality instead of text-based linguistic diversity can help to avoid the essentialization and tokenization of multilingual writers as individuals who resort to unorthodox text-based practices. In other words, the most widespread narrative about multilingual writers and teachers portrays them as subjects who do not ascribe to "normative" writing practices through the use of non-standard expressions or deviations to "the norm". Instead, this case study illustrates that a multilingual graduate instructor of writing carved out space through socialization and multimodality to find rhetorically-attuned venues based on her own identities to negotiate and navigate new unknown and unfamiliar terrain. This notion goes in line with other studies in academic socialization of doctoral students (and instructors) that emphasize the urgency of opportunities for the enactment of agency (Anderson, 2017; Morita, 2004). For multilingual writers and multilingual graduate instructors, moving beyond the "lingual" component of meaning-making enhances their opportunities for identity development (as students, instructors, and emergent researchers). The strategic agency of multilingual graduate instructors of writing goes hand in hand with the existence and recognition of academic social spaces where negotiation is at the core of the socialization process. In this sense, the writing program where Agatha worked resembled academic social spaces where "newcomers in their academic spaces master the norms, ideologies, expectations of the academic (conceived) space by strategically negotiating their current space norms with their former ones" (Soltani, 2018, p. 22). Drawing on Lefebvre's triad, Soltani's notion of academic social spaces consists of three dimensions: conceived spaced (representations, mental, and imagined space), spatial practice (physical or perceived space), and spaces of representation (lived space).The notion of space relates to Gutiérrez, Larson, Enciso, and Ryan (2007)'s call for the creation of ecologies (material and physical environments or spaces -what Soltani refers to as spatial practice and physical or perceived space) where power relations are transformed and individuals' repertoires are expanded.

Finally, Agatha described her socialization as a collaborative process guided by experimentation through which mistakes are seen as valuable, alternative non-traditional genres with non-standard language, and reflections on embodied, affective, and sensorial experiences. Agatha found in collaborative social groups a place for solidarity and the development of her teaching and research interests, all of which included resisting traditional print-based practices. These aspects of Agatha's

socialization also resonate with feminist-informed paradigms to mentoring graduate students, which posit attention to lived experiences and embodied knowledge, reflexivity and active participation in one's communities through praxis (Sánchez-Martín & Seloni, 2019).

Therefore, the socialization processes of multilingual graduate instructors of writing would benefit from opportunities to find paths for personal growth through multimodal, multisensorial, and embodied meaning-making. Graduate student-instructors like Agatha, entering new professional and academic spaces, must be guided to document their socialization by attending to all forms of meaning-making practices as negotiated.

Final Thoughts

In general, the socialization of the participant as a new multilingual graduate instructor in a writing program, involved learning about her role, participation, identities in the physical environment and academic social spaces of the program. Through this process, multimodality functioned as a tool for Agatha to reflect on her socialization into becoming a member of her community, where other writing instructors and administrators in the program were collaboratively developing expertise in the teaching of writing to a majority of monolingual students. The participant's socialization mediated her practices across contexts of shifting asymmetrical power relationships, and simultaneously, enabled the transformation of the context by the participant's creative agentive moves beyond traditional print-based genres and her constant negotiation of identity. The rich and deep analysis of the findings could allow the case study to be replicated in that it describes how paying attention to multimodality, embodied, and sensorial meaning-making is necessary in socialization processes to avoid narrowing down spaces for self-realization and growth that can potentially transform classrooms and programs.

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End Notes

[1] To accurately reflect the non-binary gendered identity of the student portrayed in the comic, I have chosen the third person plural pronoun "themselves" acknowledging its grammatical inconsistency with the preceding verb "positions".

[2] Agatha's words have been transcribed verbatim. (L) indicates a laugh by the interviewee.

"They Make Me Who I Am Today": A Science Teacher's Narrated Positioning, Agency, and Mediated Pedagogy with Multilingual Students

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Informed by theorizing positioning and agency, this article presents a case study by examining a science teacher's positioning acts and her agency development in a middle school in New York City. An analysis of this teacher's teaching narratives reveals that when she positioned her emergent multilingual students as "whole people," who had social, cultural, emotional, and linguistic needs, she utilized their lived experiences as inspirations and resources to modify and inform instruction. The mediated pedagogy, developed by considering her students' complicated and frustrating realities outside of the classroom, made them feel greater self-worth and valued, and encouraged them to persevere in school. Findings suggest that this teachers' positive positioning acts inspired by her multilingual students' lived experiences can trigger positive agency, which can become a direct driving force for pedagogical decisions and transformation. It also can contribute to emergent multilingual students' positive self-positioning and stimulate and develop their agency for active and engaged classroom participation and interaction.

Having conversations with students is seen as a key into effective instruction and learning. Amy, the focus teacher of this case study who works with multilingual students, explains this practice in the following quote:

> Middle school students do not like quiet. The best way to get a middle school student to speak to you is to sit with them and not speak. If you sit long enough and stay quite the student will begin to talk. Once the student begins to talk, they will begin to tell you every detail about their life. When a student speaks with you, it has been my experience, that they are open and honest. Many times, they just want their voices to be heard and for them to realize that they matter. When a student feels that they matter to you, it allows them to be successful in school. My goal in each of my classes is to make each student feel they matter to me…I strive to make each student feel that voice and what they have to say matter to me…When speak social with my students I always enjoy asking what their home

life is like. By gaining an understanding of how they interact with their family I am better able to understand my students. (Journal entry 1)

She considers conversing as an important venue for students to ensure that their voices are heard, underscoring in turn a connection between students' feeling of worth and school success. As a teacher, Amy takes the time to learn about her students' life stories valuing their linguistic, cultural, and social realities. She views the students' life stories as teaching resources, as well as an inspiration for teaching. Her positive positioning of her students and herself shapes her agency, the power for self-transformation, and informative decisions on pedagogical practices.

Contrasting Amy's perspectives on teaching linguistically diverse students, the scholarly literature suggests that the influx of these students in US schools has become a complicated dilemma that many teachers face, especially white monolingual English-speaking teachers (McVee et al., 2019; Samson & Lesaux, 2015). The agency that these teachers may have in the classroom is often used to blame these students for their limited English proficiency, interrupted schooling, and lack of family support. The term used to label these students at school serves to illustrate a teacher's agency that devalues students. Specifically, some labels suggest students as linguistically deficient, culturally worthless, and socially insignificant (Haneda & Sherman, 2018; Yoon, 2008). Researchers have argued that, labeling these students as English Language Learners (ELLs) may make teachers blind to the students' rich diverse linguistic and cultural experiences, and they are frequently treated as uninvited guests in their classrooms (Motha, 2014; Yoon, 2008). Sue Kasun and Cinthya Saavedra (2016) add that, "We only see [them] as language without bodies" (p. 687). This label consciously and unconsciously deprives the students of equal educational opportunities. Importantly, García (2009) suggested that,

> Labeling students as either LEPs [Limited English Proficient Students] or ELLs omits an idea that is critical to the discussion of equality in the teaching of these children. When officials and educators ignore the bilingualism that these students can—and must—develop through schooling in the United States, they perpetuate inequalities in the education of these children. Putting bilingualism at the center in speaking of these students is important for (a) the children themselves; (b) teachers and teaching; (3) educational policy makers; (d) parents and communities; (e) the field of language education and TESOL; and (f) societies at large. (p. 322)

I utilize the term of emergent multilingual speakers to refer to ELLs hereafter, because these students speak more than two languages, which are valuable resources for their multilingual identities and academic achievement. It is a term that invites educators to take a stance of strength and possibility towards linguistically diverse students.

In this article I explore teacher agency in Amy's classroom, where students' linguistic diversity is uplifted and used to support their learning. I first frame the study by defining the construct of agency, exploring some of its theoretical underpinnings, including the construct of positioning, and discussing current relevant research that have explored teacher agency. Second, a description of the study's methodology

antecedes the discussion of findings. Finally, the conclusions and implications for further study are presented.

Teacher Agency and Positioning

From a poststructuralist perspective, Davies (1990) defines agency as a form of discursive practice. She explains that individuals use discursive practices available to them to formulate their motivations and desires. Davies goes one step further to expound:

> Embedded within those discursive practices is an understanding that each person is one who has an obligation to take themselves up as a knowable, recognizable identity, who 'speaks for themselves', who accepts responsibility for their actions, that is as one who is recognizably separate from any particular collective, and thus as one who can be said to have agency (p. 343).

Because of the nature of discursive constitution of self, agency is the authority to "recognize that constitution and to resist, subvert and change the discourses themselves through which one is being constituted" (Davies, 1991, p. 51). In this sense, agency is linguistically presented, shaped, and materialized (Ahearn, 2001).

Rooted in a sociocultural point of view, Ahearn (2001) argues that agency is "socioculturally constrained and enabled" (p. 127). She further points out that agency is not free will, a concentration which is aligned with Davies' observation that

> Agency is never autonomy in the sense of being an individual standing outside structure and process. Autonomy becomes instead the recognition that power and force presume subcultural counter-power and counter-force and that such sub-cultures can create new life forms, which disrupt the hegemonic forms, even potentially replacing them (1991, p. 51).

Agency, then, interacts with and is influenced by social structure and discursive practices (Wang, 2020a).

From an ecological standpoint, agency is defined as something people *do*, instead of something people *have*. This understanding emphasizes how agency is "*achieved* in concrete settings and in and through particular ecological conditions and circumstances" (Biesta et al., 2015, p. 626. Emphasis is original). The achievement that Biesta and colleagues consider serves as an interplay between the social structure and one's past history, current practical evaluation, and future projection.

Based on foundational perspectives, Matthew Wallen and Roland Tormey (2019) defined teacher agency as "a product of professional identity" (p. 130), which echoes Ruohotie-Lyhty and Moate's (2016) conceptualization of identity-agency. Maria Ruohotie-Lyhty and Josephine Moate argue that, "agency is the capacity to use experiences and participation in the development of professional identity" (p. 319). Teacher agency is inseparable from professional identity. As Lai, Li, and Gong (2016) emphasize, teacher agency is the fundamental drive for teachers to construct and reconstruct professional identity. In other words, professional identity cannot be developed without agentic actions.

Informed by a poststructuralist perspective and inspired by Davies' (1990) definition of agency, I define teacher agency as

> the awareness, willingness, and authority to transform teaching practices based on the recognition of students' social-emotional well-being and academic needs through considering their life experiences and stories as pedagogical resources and inspirations in and through discursive practices, such as storytelling, reflection journals, or narratives of teaching practices. Students' life stories have the potential to evoke teachers' emotions, such as empathy, pleasure, excitement, and regret. Listening to students' life stories awakens teachers' sense that they are teaching professionals who are activists with expert knowledge and hold the responsibility to address various needs of students in the construction of emotional subjects (Wang, 2020b, p. 12).

A related construct to that of teacher agency is that of *positioning*. It refers to the act of locating oneself and others with rights and obligations in and through language, such as conversations, storytelling, or narratives (Davies & Harré, 1990; Harré & van Langenhove, 1998). Positions are constituted by and negotiated through discursive practices as individuals emerge through the processes of social interactions, whereby the speakers and hearers construct and reconstruct how they interpret their life experiences (Davies & Harré, 1990). An individual can be variously positioned in a conversation. In this sense, positioning is interactive, relational, and multiple. Positioning is also fluid because

> who one is, is always an open question with a shifting answer depending upon the positions made available within one's own and others' discursive practices and within those practices, the stories through which we make sense of our own and others' lives (Davies & Harré, 1990, p. 46).

The seminal research on this construct highlight two fundamental perspectives: (a) reflexive positioning, also called self-positioning, and (b) interactive positioning or other-positioning. Reflexive positioning guides people to think about their roles and assignments, such as taking responsibilities to act the roles because "[w]hen a person is engaged in a deliberate self-positioning process this often will imply that they try to achieve specific goals with their act of self-positioning. This requires one to assume that they have a goal in mind" (Harré & van Langenhove, 1998, p. 224).

In interactive positioning, people assign positions to others (Davies & Harré, 1990; Harré & van Langenhove, 1998). Through discursive practices, the speaker and the listener take on various positions and constantly offer or deny people opportunities to say or do certain things (Kayi-Aydar, 2014). They may also refuse to take positions assigned by others and reposition themselves in a desired situation. In this sense, positioning requires agency, and agency produces positioning.

Teacher agency in classrooms with linguistically diverse students requires teachers to provide them with equal access to rich educational resources for their linguistic and academic development. The process of preparing teachers to meet this opportunity then needs to be considered carefully. For this purpose, Motha (2014) advocates:

Teacher education, both in TESOL and within other disciplines, should consistently and forcefully focus on teacher agency, applying a specific and deliberate emphasis on the role that teachers play in shaping the power relations, access to resources, and positionality of their linguistic-minority students. It is not enough for teachers to be familiar with second language acquisition theory and be able to name and identify a variety of ESL methods (p. 104).

Motha's advocacy of teachers' agency has echoed most research on pre-service and in-service teacher education (Kayi-Aydar, 2015a; Kayi-Aydar et al., 2019; Palmer & Martínez, 2013). Early research in this regard focused more on institutional and structural impact on teachers' agency development. For example, Lasky (2005) examined the relationship between curriculum reform and in-service teachers' agency. Sannino (2010) found that there was a positive association between resistance and agency and its potential for this connection to positively impact professional advancement and pedagogical growth. Ollerhead and Ollerhead (2010) explored the influence of policy-driven constraints and enablements on teaching practices and learning outcomes. Lipponen and Kumpulainen (2011) argued that collective inquiry and discussion can support pre-service teachers' agency work.

Recent research has looked at the interplay between teacher agency, identity, and power dynamics. Some researchers have explored the factor of identity in recent years. Through an examination of nine teachers' professional agency, Buchannan (2015) used teacher identity to examine the interplay of the social structure, including contexts of reform, discourses, and teachers' agency. This researcher argued that the interaction between teacher identity and school culture can both enable and constrain teachers' agency. Moreover, Feryok's (2013) analysis of the professional growth of an Armenian English teacher revealed that this English teacher oriented her actions through a specific image, which originated from her previous experiences as an elementary school student with her English teacher. This image mediated a sense of agency that guided her individual actions as a language-teaching student, English teacher, and teacher trainer. Feryok thus suggests that English teachers' professional development occurs over a lifetime and personal reflections can function as a professional call to action. In addition, based on a poststructuralist perspective on teacher identity and agency, Kayi-Aydar (2015b) reported how one teacher candidate switched from teaching Spanish to teaching English as a second language because of constant negotiations of her identities and agency across time and space. Kayi-Aydar concluded that race, ethnicity, and non-nativism interact with one another in complex ways.

Another factor to consider when exploring teacher agency is power dynamics. Research suggests that it can greatly influence teachers' agency in terms of their professional development (Haneda & Sherman, 2018; Kasun & Saavedra, 2016). Through a lens of indigenous knowledge, Kasun and Saavedra (2016) examined eight US teacher candidates' self-assessments, course work samples, class discussions, focus group sessions, and ethnographic field notes during a four-week abroad program in Mexico. They found that the teacher candidates began to understand the ways of knowing of others through decentering their knowledge paradigms, became

decolonized and empathetic with their emergent bilingual students, and became creators of caring (Noddings, 2003) classroom spaces.

To enrich the existing literature on pre- and in-service teacher agency, I examined how emergent multilingual speaking students' lived experiences impact teachers' agency, positioning, and pedagogy. To reach this goal, I explored two research questions:

1. How did a science teacher position her emergent multilingual students and how did she position herself based on her students' life stories?

2. How did her agency change according to self- and other-positioning acts and how did this changed agency inform her pedagogical decisions?

Methods

The Participant and Data Collection

The participant, Amy, in her middle twenties, who is a White science teacher, taught in a middle school in a metropolitan area of the United States for three years. Amy was a monolingual English speaker, but she was interested in multilingual and multicultural education. She was enrolled in the MATESOL program for her TESOL certification in a cohort group at a university in the northeastern United States. Amy was taking a linguistic class taught by me in the summer of 2017. There were about 27 students in my class, all of whom were asked to write journal reflections on their language learning or teaching experiences. The journal reflection was considered as part of students' homework. At the time, the students were not aware that their homework was going to be used as part of the research data. Students wrote one journal entry each week for the summer session course. They wrote four journal entries in total. After the course ended, I contacted all the students to participate in this research study. Seven of them showed interest in my study. Amy was one of them. Amy became my participant for this particular article because the focus of her teaching reflection was on bilingual/multilingual education. I used Amy's four journal entries as the data source for the narrative analysis discussed here.

Data Analysis

The investigation of Amy's agency was conducted through an in-depth examination of her narrative positioning. When the teacher narrates, she produces herself and others situationally as "social beings" (Bamberg, 1997). Zembylas (2003) suggests that narrative research is "a powerful tool to document the way discursive environments provide the construction of teacher identity" (p. 215). I adapted Bamberg's (1997) framework of narrative positioning which asks:

1. How are the characters positioned in relation to one another within the reported events?...

2. How does the speaker position him- or herself to the audience?...

3. How do narrators position themselves to themselves? (p. 337).

Bamberg's framework questions emphasize the positioning acts of the characters in narratives, the narrator's positioning to the audience, and the narrator's self-positioning. Inspired by but slightly different from Bamberg's framework of

narrative positioning, I asked the following questions while analyzing Amy's journal entries: (1) What stories were told in the narrative? What events were highlighted? Why did Amy highlight a certain event? (2) How did Amy position her students and herself through narratives? For example, what lexical items and grammatical devices were used to construct a particular positioning? (3) How did Amy's agency change or develop through narrative positioning?

Here are the steps I took while analyzing the data. After I read Amy's journal entry line by line, I wrote down the topic of the narrative and summarized the event(s) she highlighted. When I read the entry several times, I figured out the possible reasons why Amy highlighted the event and jotted down the reasons. After reading the highlighted event again and again, I underlined certain lexical items, such as "ENL students," "whole people" and grammatical devices (e.g., "As a class we spoke about...As a class we researched..."). I made comments on the certain lexical items and grammatical devices as well as the themes of positioning and agency that emerged from the data analysis. Table 1 below illustrates an example of data analysis.

Findings

Amy's journal entries covered her teaching experience for several years. Since she introduced her students in her first journal and narrated her teaching practices in later journals, I followed her narrative sequence. The section below reports her journal entries according to the original order of narratives she used.

Table 1.

An Example of Data Analysis

Narrative 1: Problematizing the Label of ELLs	Self-Positioning	Other-Positioning	Agency
"If you only look at a student as an English language learner then you have taken away who they are as a person. Many of my students who are labeled as English as new language students are looked down upon because of the label. Many of the teachers in my building become upset when they are given the ESL class to teach. In my three years of teaching, I have had countless experiences that have taught me to see my students as whole people and not just ENL students.	Amy positioned herself as an advocate for considering multilingual speakers as human beings, not just English language learners. She pointed out the consequence of labeling. She distanced herself from her colleagues who were "upset" for being assigned to teach multilingual speakers.	Amy positioned herself students as "ENL students" as well as "whole people." Here, Amy did not use the term ELL, but ENL. The term of "ENL" indicated that her students were able to speak other languages.	Amy believed that her experiences shaped her identity as a teacher. She claimed that labeling students as ELLs is problematic. She pointed out the consequence of labeling and indirectly criticized her colleagues who became "upset" for being assigned to teach multilingual speakers.

Narrative 1: Problematizing the Label of ELL

Amy was asked to introduce herself in the first reflection journal. Interestingly, she briefly mentioned herself as a seventh-grade science teacher at a middle school where she taught two honors level classes, one co-taught students with disabilities class, one general education class, one advanced ENL (English as a New language) class, and one beginning ENL class. Amy mainly introduced her students through problematizing the label of ELLs. She reflected,

> If you only look at a student as an English language learner, then you have taken away who they are as a person. Many of my students who are labeled as ELLs are looked down upon because of the label. Many of the teachers in my building become upset when they are given the ESL class to teach. In my three year of teaching, I have had countless experiences that have taught me to see my students as whole people and not just ENL students. (Journal entry 1)

Amy claimed that the label of ELL ignored the students as persons. This statement was aligned with Kasun and Saavedra's (2016) previously mentioned argument that ELLs were considered as language without bodies. Amy also pointed out

that the label of ELL became one of the reasons for discrimination. She indirectly criticized her colleagues who were "upset" for being assigned to teach ELLs. Amy positioned herself as an advocate for regarding ELLs as "ENL" students as well as "whole people." She chose to use the term "ENL students," due to the term's positive connotation, that is, students speak more than one language. The choice of terminology Amy used indicated her acknowledgement of the danger of the ELL label and favor toward the acknowledgement that the students already has a linguistic repertoire system. This suggested to me that this teacher may see her students as multilinguals, inferred from the journal entry where she introduced them:

> Many of my students are not native speakers of English. In my honors class many of my students speak English in addition to a second language at home. In my general education class, most of my students are former English language learners. In my special education class, most students speak two languages but are stronger in English. Lastly in my two ESL class[es] almost all students speak English as a second or third language. I have 30 students who are currently receiving ESL services. Out of my 200 students that I teach 123 students have the self-identity as speaking a language other than English at home. Many of my students have tested out of ESL but still have extended time on exams. (Journal entry 1)

Amy's framing of her students as multilinguals functioned as a salient discourse that students' "primary language skills and their academic learning goals" (Palmer & Martínez, 2013, p. 271) should be recognized and valued. Her other positioning illustrated a belief that her students had cultural and linguistic value and talents because they were multilinguals. In the excerpt below, Amy directly described who her students were. She stated,

> My students are an absolutely amazing group of people…The group of students in this class is truly special, the students speak a variety of language[s], and many times only have their limited English skills to communicate with each other. I am always impressed with how my students work each class to learn English as well as learn topic[s] in science. I am excited when they ask questions to expand their thought processes…I no longer think of Class 706 as my beginner ESL class but as a class of students who are all diverse and challenge me to be the best teacher, I can be each day. (Journal entry 1)

In the narrative above, Amy positioned her students as "absolutely amazing", "truly special", "all diverse", and "challenging". Her students spoke "a variety of language." To present a whole image of her students, this teacher used a series of adverbs and positive adjectives, through which a group of talented and curious multilingual learners emerged. Amy also highlighted her emotions about teaching her students by using positive adjective phrases, such as "so excited," "excited," and "always impressed." These emotions became the "glue of identity" (Zembylas, 2003) through which a passionate teacher who was committed to teaching was constructed. Amy's view of students strikingly differed from her colleagues who were "upset" when assigned to teach multilingual speakers. The way in which Amy constructed her

students reflected how she viewed her profession and her professional identities. She described,

> I believe that there are many experiences that have shaped me into the person I am today. I enjoy teaching more than anything in the world. I am always excited to go to work and help improve the knowledge of my students. I am also very hard on myself, working each year to get better at teaching and creating new lessons to promote student engagement. (Journal entry 1)

Amy believed that her teaching experiences shaped her professional identity. Her enjoyment of and excitement about teaching indicated her commitment to her profession, through which a self-disciplined and goal-oriented teacher identity was constructed. Again, Amy emphasized her emotions "enjoy" and "always excited" about teaching and helping her students. These emotions seemed to function as an indicator and a promoter for her agency (Benesch, 2018) to become better at teaching through promoting student engagement.

Narrative 2: Transforming Pedagogical Practices through Listening to Students' Stories

Knowing Students by Listening to Their Life Stories

In her second journal, Amy discussed the goal for each of her classes: to make students feel that they mattered to her. To do so, Amy invited her students to come to lunch with her or come after school for extra help. During this non-class time, she worked with small groups or one-on-one to learn about their life experiences. Amy believed that if students felt valued, they would be successful in school. She also claimed that gaining an understanding of how her students interacted with their families helped her better understand them in school. She positioned herself as "lucky" because students trusted her, and they were willing to share their life stories with her. She also positioned her students as "amazing people" who shaped her identity as a responsible and accommodated teacher. The following quote from the journal entry suggests this,

> All my students regardless of their English levels have many things to say. The trick is to sit and listen to them. I feel so blessed to have students who trust me and let me into intimate details of their life. I am so inspired by the stories of my students. They make me who I am today, with each story that they tell, and I make my classes more targeted to them and their learning needs…For each class a unique lesson on all topic is created to meet the learning and behavioral needs of the class. (Journal entry 2)

Amy recognized the value of students' life stories, which not only helped her better understand students but also inspired her teaching practices. The following section displays an example of how one of her students' life stories became an inspiration for her pedagogical decisions and practice.

Being Inspired by Students' Life Stories

When Amy guided her students to conduct medical team case studies in class, she realized that one of her Bengali students seemed sad and distressed, which surprised her because this student's disposition was usually placid and mellow. The

student told Amy that he had to accompany his parents to the doctor when they were sick because he was able to translate their symptoms from Bengali to English and vice versa. Amy recollected the story as follows:

> He told me that this was upsetting to him because when he left the doctor's office, he was very worried about the health of his family members. He felt like he had to be the adult and his mom and dad were in his care, like they were children. He also explained that one time his mom was sick and required a surgical procedure. The doctor had told him to let his mom know what was going on. My student explained that his mom looked so scared and different than he had ever seen before, so he could not tell his mom that she needed a surgical procedure. He said, "I knew it was wrong not to tell my mom, but I could not take the look she was giving me. It was like I had all the power in the world, and she could do nothing. It made me feel broken inside, so I told her it was time to go home. Her face got all happy, and my mom, the one I know, would be back". (Journal entry 2)

In the narrative of her student's story, Amy not only described what happened to the student and his family but also emphasized how he felt about the encounter in the doctor's office with such direct feelings as "upsetting", "worried about", and "broken inside" and indirect feelings as, "He felt like he had to be the adult and his mom and dad were in his care" and "I had all the power in the world". She foregrounded her student's reversed positioning as a powerful adult. This foregrounding indicated Amy's consideration of her student's self-positioning as significant. Therefore, she highlighted a capable, understanding, and mature translator through her narrative. The data displayed Amy's intention for and understanding of her student's social-emotional well-being, which stimulated her empathetic and caring emotions. The documentation of her student's story constructed Amy as an observant and loving teacher. The narrative below further confirmed her self-positioning. She described,

> I can only imagine what this student had to go through as the translator for his mom. I know it is hard for most children to see their mom and dad upset or to hear about that a family member needs medical attention. I completely understand why the student wanted to see 'his' mom, the lady who took care of him and ran the household. I think about the fear that he must have had and how he must have felt. How hard it must have been to understand that his mom was powerless with no voice and how she needed a child to help her discover what made her sick. I can only begin to imagine how the mother must feel. She must feel powerless. (Journal entry 2)

This teacher's narrative concentrated on her emotions about the student's moral and psychological dilemma as a translator in the doctor's office. Amy's word choices, such as "I can only imagine," "go through," "must," and "I completely understand" demonstrated the difficulty and struggle her student had experienced and how she empathized with him. As a White educator for whom English is her home language, she did not have the same experience as the student did, so she could only imagine what happened to him; however, she understood his circumstance. Amy's self-positioning as an emotional subject emerged in and through her narrative, which confirmed Zembylas'

(2003) argument that, "agency is the constituted effect of emotion discourses (as well as other discourses)—bound up in practices—that inscribe the body" (p. 226). Her deep empathy toward this student became an indicator for agency to transform her pedagogical practice. In other words, Amy's emotion generated power that empowered her to teach "Medical Translators" in this class immediately instead of solely following her teaching as originally planned. She continued to write,

> As a teacher, it became so important for me to teach all of my students about Medical Translators…As a class we spoke about different experiences where language or translating for a family member was difficult when dealing with one's health. As a class we researched the job of a Medical Translator and spoke about how they could help out a family. The students then began learning how to go about getting translation services in their native languages for their doctors' appointments. Lastly, we went over different terms that students would hear in a doctor's office and defined how we could use them. (Journal entry 2)

Amy iterated her mission as a teacher who realized the importance and responsibility of teaching "Medical Translators" to her students. She also constructed a community of practice by using the first plural pronoun "we" three times to include everyone in her class. She positioned herself as a responsible teacher and decision maker who cared about her students' social-emotional, academic, and linguistic needs. She also positioned herself as a community member who bore the responsibility to co-construct knowledge to help her community members solve real-life problems. Amy considered her students' life stories as a resource for meaningful teaching and learning because the stories told by her students not only allowed her to adapt the content but also allowed her students to solve real-world issues in their daily lives. She narrated,

> I would have never thought of teaching this to my students until I listened to the story of the experience that my student had with his mom and translating for her. When I make time to speak to my students and learn about their life, it allows me, as a teacher, to adapt what has been taught in the classroom. This adaptation of content allows for the students to take real-world issues that they have and learn how to solve their problems. This in turn makes all students excited to learn as the material is based off what they feel they need to know for life. Many of my best lessons began with listening to the needs of my students and trying to find a way to help them to solve the problem they spoke with me about. (Journal entry 2)

Amy used a hypothetical clause "I would have never thought of teaching this to my students until I listened to the story of the experience that my student had with his mom and translating to her" to emphasize how important her student's life story was to her teaching practices. This recognition encouraged her to make an effort to spend time with her students, listening to their life stories to be aware of their complicated and difficult life realities, which both resourced and benefited her teaching and students' learning. A self-positioning as loving, flexible, and adaptive teacher and other-positioning of the students as real-life problem solvers emerged in the narrative above. Amy's agency became salient through her pedagogical decision and transformation.

Amy also summarized that she created a community of practice, in and through which she and her students co-produced knowledge. She mentioned that her multilingual students were able to perform at grade level, which was attributed to their hard work and their feeling of value and self-worth.

> By listening to my students and teaching them from the start that their needs held value in my classroom, I was able to create a community of students who wanted to learn and work together. This year my ENLs have been performing all lab tasks at grade level, they complete the same projects as their peers, and learn the same material. I feel that my students are part of the school community because they all are able to communicate with their peers. When the students feel that they are important, they work harder in the classroom. I am so lucky to work with my students each day. (Journal entry 2)

Narrative 3: Students Felt as Second Class

Although Amy built a good relationship with her students, there are instances in which she wrote about her struggles to connect with the students and understand their needs during her first year of teaching. She recalled that she made a poster-size map of the world for each student for her lesson on topographic maps. She spent multiple hours of weekend time of drawing, coloring, cutting, gluing, and laminating each map. She was proud of herself because she had made something that she could use each year and it would allow her students to learn. When she taught her honors students topographic maps by using handmade maps, students were excited and she felt pleased with her work; however, when she taught ENL (multilingual) students the same topic by using the same material, students did not seem to take the class seriously. They used the handmade maps to hit each other. Seeing what was happening in the class, Amy felt frustrated and helpless. She explained,

> The students were shaking the maps and whacking each other. I recall standing there in fear watching my maps that I had taken hours to make be destroyed. Watching the children break apart the maps and be aggressive to their peers, my world fell apart. It was that day I realized that I needed to learn how to teach my ENLs in a way that was targeted for them. (Journal entry 3)

Amy did not notice the difference between her honors students and ENL students, so, when the students did not understand what she had done for the class, her "world fell apart." The feeling of failure made Amy realize that her class should be targeted for her students. Amy's frustration did not discourage her; instead, it became a source for her agentic reflection and thinking. She reflected,

> My ENLs did not care about the time I spent making the maps for them because they could not find the academic value in what was given to them. Many of my students found that I was giving the students homemade maps was a 'baby' activity. They felt that they had seen maps prior to this lesson. They thought that they were not allowed to use the 'real' maps and were being given lower level work than their peers. (Journal entry 3)

Her reflection emphasized two important aspects of teaching emergent multilinguals: one was "academic value"; the other was social value. The students did

not realize the academic value of the handmade maps because they thought that they were not given the real maps, so they felt that they were treated differently and not valued. After this incident, Amy recognized that communication was the "key" for effective teaching and learning. She stated,

> As a teacher I had failed them. I had made my students feel that they were second class and they could not do grade level work... After reflecting on my experience that day, and thinking about the feelings of my ENLs, I began to realize that communication is key to any learning environment. That all students need clear expectations: What is required of them as well, is an explanation as to why. Thinking back on this experience, I am still upset with myself for not understanding the needs of my students, but more for not asking my students' needs... (Journal entry 3)

She constructed a reflective and critical teacher image in her narrative, a teaching professional who had struggles but strove to find solutions to meet students' needs. Again, Amy's emotions, such as "regret" and "upset", were centered in her narrative, which became a site of self-transformation (Zembylas, 2003). In the excerpt below, she used another hypothetical conditional statement to express her regret.

> Had I spoken to my students first, explained what was going on, and allowed the students to address their concerns, I believe, the lesson would have gone differently. The students would have felt that their social emotional needs were met and that I, as their teacher, was on their team. As a teacher, this moment shaped my teaching practices for the years to come. I always begin teaching by listening to the needs of my students. Asking them what they need allows for the students to feel valued. (Journal entry 3)

Her reflection focused on students' "social emotional needs". She believed that communication was essential for making her class targeted to students' needs. This is demonstrated by her use of the words "spoken", "explained", and "address their concerns" in her first statement in the excerpt above. She also considered herself as a team member with her students. Amy, again, iterated that her "failed" teaching experiences "shaped" her as a teacher who listened to her students' life stories to not only make them feel valued but also transform her teaching practices.

Narrative 4: Chaos and Multimodalities

Amy also provided another example of how her teaching experience shaped her professional identity. She recalled that there was a lot of chaos in her beginner ENL class when she started teaching in her third year. She explained,

> On the first day of school as I was speaking to the class, many of Chinese ENLs were yelling in Chinese over me. They were standing up and screaming! This made it very hard for me to teach. So, I began asking the students who stood up and scream, "why are you acting this way?" They all replied, "We are translating to our peers. They are new. They do not understand." I began giving "translation" time to all of my students. This allowed the students who spoke Chinese to feel validated as well as feeling that they helped their peers. (Journal entry 4)

Based on her explanation, Amy constructed an understanding of a flexible teaching professional who embraced and valued multilingualism. Giving translation time to the students not only validated students' home language but also made students feel welcome in their community. Again, students' social, cultural, and linguistic value was recognized and legitimized. Amy not only gave "translation" time to her students but also allowed them to draw pictures to answer questions. She also created lessons that were completely non-verbal. She launched inquiry-based project learning activities so that students had a chance to show their knowledge and ability. Amy saw many benefits that the inquiry-based projects brought to the class. She described,

> We built 3D cells, bookshelves, chairs, and tables during the first marking period. These projects allowed all students to work together regardless of language abilities. My advanced ENLs and my English native speakers were able to see the strengths that their peers had based on their projects. My students began to see each other for their strengths and not weaknesses. My native speakers began to listen more to the ENLs, and they learned that the ENLs had value to the class. It was amazing to watch my native speakers begin to respect my ENLs and my ENLs begin to succeed in science…I challenge myself to be the best teacher for my students. I am inspired by their needs and work very hard to give them the best lesson that I can… (Journal entry 4)

Through her language choices, such as the first plural pronoun "We", "all students", and "work together" in the community of practice became a salient feature of Amy's class. Also, an inclusive and welcomed classroom discourse became an additional feature. For example, Amy's advanced multilingual students and students for whom English is their home language began to see their peers' strengths "based on their projects", instead of fixating on their English skills; they realized that their multilingual peers had value for class contributions, and they should be respected and valued. This classroom discourse allowed Amy's multilingual students to excel in science. In this excerpt, she positioned her students as talented individuals and appreciative community members. Her identity, as an inclusive and innovative teacher was formed, which, was the result of Amy's agentic transformation.

Discussion

The data suggest that when Amy positioned her emergent multilingual students in holistic terms—students who had social, cultural, emotional, and linguistic needs and were "amazing" individuals with cultural, social, and linguistic value—she utilized their lived experiences as inspirations and resources to modify and inform her teaching and instruction. The mediated pedagogy through Amy's consideration of emergent multilinguals' complicated and frustrating realities outside of the classroom made these students feel important and valued, which, therefore, encouraged them to persevere in school. The emergent multilinguals' linguistic repertoires were recognized, treasured, and enriched.

Further, the emergent multilingual students' lived experiences challenged the teacher to become a better teacher, one who was willing and able to take agentic actions to change students' participatory behaviors and further transform classroom dynamics. Findings reveal that teachers' positive self- and other-positioning inspired by

emergent multilinguals' lived experiences can trigger teachers' positive agency, which can become a direct driving force for pedagogical decisions and transformation. Also, teachers' positive positioning and enhanced agency can contribute to emergent multilinguals' positive self- and other-positioning and stimulate and develop their agency for active and engaged classroom participation and interaction.

Data also reveal that Amy's emotions became sites of her positional identities and pedagogical transformation. She chose to narrate beliefs about her students in the first journal because, as she saw them, her students, who were regarded as multilinguals, shaped her professional identity. She challenged the dominant discourse about labeling ELLs and distanced herself from her colleagues who considered teaching multilinguals as upsetting. Amy's other-positioning of her students as "absolutely amazing" and "truly special" because they "speak a variety of language" was quite different from that of other mainstream classroom teachers discussed in the research literature. For example, Yoon (2008) observed that multilingual students in her study were positioned as "problem", "shy", and "goofy" and seemed as uninvited guests in their classrooms. The teachers ignored their students' cultural and linguistic value so that the students became socially and linguistically invisible in classroom interactions. In addition, Pettit (2011) points out that mainstream classroom teachers blamed multilingual students for "a lack of academic achievement" (p. 130) and regarded them as linguistically deficient and therefore should not be mainstreamed. This negative other-positioning of multilinguals was solely based on their English language skills, and should be redressed because it has the danger to delimit opportunities for classroom participation. As García, Kleifgen, and Falchi (2008) suggest,

> English language learners are in fact emergent bilinguals. That is, through school and through acquiring English, these children become bilingual, able to continue to function in their home language as well as in English… (p. 6).

The term "emergent bilinguals" features language learners' linguistic value instead of deficit. Students have unlimited potentials because "[a] child could be a competent speaker of another language, a strong mathematics and science student, a curious reader, a caring older sibling, a leader" (Palmer & Martínez, 2013, p. 271). Therefore, mainstream teachers should "pay more scrupulous attention to the students' acceptance and interactions by viewing the students as complex, cultural, social beings, more than simply language learners" (Yoon, 2008, p. 516).

Amy highlighted her excitement to learn more about her students so that the students' storytelling became an integral part of pedagogy. In Narrative 2, when Amy narrated her student's story, she constructed an emotional subject (Zembylas, 2003), who used her emotions as a departure point for her self- and pedagogical transformation as a teaching professional. She could have briefly mentioned what happened to the student and focused on what she did in her class. Instead, she foregrounded the story itself; she placed the student's feeling about his mother's reaction before and after his mother was told to go home and placed the student's moral dilemma for hiding the truth from his mother at the center of her narration. She also concentrated on how she herself felt about the student and his mother's situation. Amy's narration of this story can be understood as her intention to understand the

student's emotions by exposing her own. Through narrating her student's story, Amy was emotionally engaged in constructing her professional identity, which was informed and directed by her various emotions that emerged in both her students' and her own storytelling.

These emotions directly resonated with Amy's thoughts, judgments, and beliefs (Zembylas, 2003). Amy's emotional experiences that were synergized with her understanding of her students formed her positional identities, which resulted in and from agency. In this sense, emotions became the sites of agency. These emotional constituents of the positioning drove Amy to change her lesson plan to accommodate her student's needs. Based on Amy's case, emotions can be sources of professional identities and utilized to promote teacher agentic actions and activism in everyday classroom practices (Benesch, 2018).

Implications

Amy's narratives show that students' life stories can be resources for teachers' professional identity development and agency. Emergent multilingual students' life stories have the potential to open up possibilities for teachers to not only better understand their students but also transform their pedagogy. Very often, emergent multilingual students come to the classroom with complicated and difficult realities, which teachers are unaware of. Research has shown that teachers of color tend to accommodate their multilingual students' various needs because they share similar experiences (Emdin, 2016); however, most teachers in mainstream classrooms are White monolingual English speakers, who are not often familiar with these students' lives. It is important for teachers to understand their students through listening to their stories in order to meet their needs. However, due to teaching load and professional obligations, teachers might not have the time to listen to their students' stories. School administrators need to consider including students' storytelling into curriculum and instruction.

Amy's narratives also show that some teachers were upset when assigned to teach emergent multilinguals. The possible reasons for the teachers' upsetting feelings can vary. For example, teachers might not be able to consider their emergent multilinguals as whole people as Amy did. They might have failed to see their students' linguistic and cultural values and other talents. Some teachers may not have enough knowledge and experience about teaching those students. They might lack appropriate support, such as teaching materials and professional development workshops from schools and districts. It is also very likely that some teachers may not have received relevant education because their programs did not require this learning. Therefore, a study on exploring teachers' attitudes toward emergent multilinguals can be a potential topic for future research.

Conclusion

Listening to multilingual students' life stories is an effective way to trigger positive emotions, which can help teachers to develop agency, the very power for professional development and creative and transformative teaching. Agency is constituted and shaped by emotions. It is also the very power for positive self- and

other-positioning. When teachers engage in positive positioning actions, they make agentic and informative decisions on pedagogy and teaching practices. Teachers' positive positioning mediated and informed by agency promotes educational justice and equity.

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Book Review Introduction

Listening to Latinx Students through Translanguaging

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"Are you listening to me?" We often hear this question in classrooms where teachers are aiming to garner students' attention. Listening is also emphasized in the Speaking and Listening Common Core State Standards as well as in the Next Generation Learning Standards. It seems that the students are the ones expected to do all the listening while teachers do most of the talking.

A different approach is discussed in Suriel's book review of *En Comunidad: Lessons for Centering the Voices and Experiences of Bilingual Latinx Students* by España and Herrera (2020). This book describes practices that center and leverage the experiences of Latinx students. The lessons that España and Herrera describe are based on translanguaging, which is essentially using a student's complete language repertoire for communicating. In order for translanguaging to be a successful practice, it requires a teacher who knows how to listen. By doing so, students will know that they have a voice and in turn this will encourage them to be active participants in the learning process. Implementing translanguaging practices in a classroom requires teaching without judging. It means moving away from externally imposed standards or expectations in order to be considered worthy or right.

The lessons described by España and Herrera were created to reflect the culture of Latinx students. Their implementation requires for teachers to listen; to recognize the students' communication habits and skills; to build intrinsic motivation and curiosity about the world as seen through the eyes of literature. Bilingual Latinx students need teachers who can listen; teachers who will advocate for their bilingual language practices, and to give them voice for their present and future.

Book Review

Liberating Instruction: A Critical Bilingual Literacy Approach for Latinx Students

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Book Reviewed:

España, C., & Herrera, L. Y. (2020). *En Comunidad: Lessons for Centering the Voices and Experiences of Bilingual Latinx Students.* Heinemann. ISBN 978-0-325-11248-0 / 0-325-11248-7. 208 pages/Paperback $30.63; ebook [i]

In *En Comunidad: Lessons for Centering the Voices of Experiences of Bilingual Latinx Students* Dr. Carla España and Dr. Luz Yadira Herrera create the one-stop instructional text teachers need to honor and build from the experiences of bilingual Latinx students. Via a critical and culturally sustaining approach to language and literacy instruction, the book guides educators in creating units of study that center and leverage the experiences of Latinx students for learning.

En Comunidad begins with a foreword by Ofelia García who highlights the authors' stance on literacy education: a *critical bilingual literacies approach.* This approach sees students' bilingual language practices as a strength and recognizes the diversity of bilingual Latinx literacy practices. By centering these practices in and for classroom learning, students are liberated from hierarchical, language power constructs that emphasize the superiority of English. They are free to engage their cultural, linguistic, and literacy practices for learning. In this way, the authors' critical bilingual literacies approach is restorative as students learn to identify, reject, and undo the normed practices that marginalize them and their communities. For these reasons, *En Comunidad* provides educational practitioners with a literacy approach that draws directly from students' and communities' funds of cultural and linguistic knowledge (Moll et al., 1992) and enacts culturally and linguistically sustaining pedagogies (Paris & Alim, 2017).
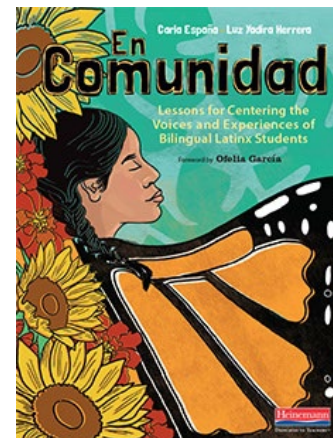
The book is easy to read without being time consuming, and its organization is practical and accessible. Each chapter is structured to help educational practitioners create reading and writing units surrounding a theme relevant to the experiences of bilingual Latinx learners. Colors differentiate between unit components to facilitate reference. A white background surrounds the introduction to each unit and a sequence of lessons. Supports for translanguaging practices (García et al., 2017) follow in yellow boxes. Step-by-step, principled guidance for creating thematic lessons follow immediately after in purple.

Within the units, the authors provide extensive thematic, grade-specific lists of culturally relevant texts in green. All texts employ authentic bilingual language practices and are thematically aligned to the unit goals. This makes finding texts, guiding questions, model charts, and lesson activities easy. There is room for flexibility in execution across any language setting in grades three through eight. All lessons and units can be easily aligned to grade level learning standards, and the translanguaging recommendations ensure the meaningful participation of emerging bilinguals. *En Comunidad* includes translanguaging practices within the text itself. As such, the authors allow the educator-reader to experience translanguaging (García et al., 2017; Vogel & García, 2017) first-hand. This helps familiarize educators with translanguaging as a linguistic practice (Vogel & García, 2017) while also revealing the power of the instructional methodology. All chapters conclude with suggestions for sharing learning outcomes with real audiences, and the authors are careful to give due attention to issues of students' personal safety in sharing their experience with classmates and in community contexts.

Chapter one begins with a short but powerful critical vignette. All chapters of *En Comunidad* begin with similar moments from either Dr. España's or Dr. Herrera's personal teaching experiences and are followed by a theoretical discussion around the goals of the unit. These exemplify and facilitate personal reflection on educational and language stances (García et al., 2017). Creating and enacting critically sustaining language and literacy pedagogies requires continuous self-examination. These stances on language and literacy are essential to liberating instruction from the traditions that have historically delegitimized Latinx students. This work begins with six principles for understanding of bilingual Latinx experiences and language practices. These principles are paired with questions for personal reflection. The six principles ask educators to reflect on language ideologies, enact a pedagogy that focuses on unlearning and undoing the effects of internalized dominant English hierarchies, engage in the analysis of language and power, and celebrate the bilingual practices of Latinx students from their perspectives. These principles are essential to leveraging bilingual Latinx students' language practices and experiences for learning while liberating students from normed deficit perspectives in literacy instruction.

Chapter two supports the creation of a language stance through the careful examination of language ideologies and practices. This enables instructors to recognize and understand how personal stances are influenced by language, power, and culture dynamics in school-based policies and practices. España and Herrera recommend that educators undertake this work first with colleagues as they may be unconsciously influenced by the same language ideologies that the units of the book aim to undo and

critique. As such, *En Comunidad* encourages educators to work toward and enact a transformative stance that creates space for authentic language use in the classroom. The chapter includes charts and guiding questions to support this work and action recommendations for further learning both from and with students. By creating and enacting an equitable, justice-minded stance on language and literacy practices, España and Herrera enable teachers to create a safe space for dynamic learning through meaningful and authentic interactions around language and literacy.

Chapter three supports the work of story writing through immersion in texts that reflect students' authentic bilingual language uses. Students learn to tell their stories using their entire linguistic repertoire (Vogel & García, 2017). They begin by reading and learning from texts that potentially employ the same language practices as the students themselves. This is essential to the success of emergent bilingual students (García, et al., 2017) as it validates their increasing complex and dynamic use of language. The authors include a wide variety of accessible classroom texts available in Spanish, English and bilingually. From there, students write their stories in their own voice. The chapter concludes with suggestions for sharing their stories in authentic contexts within the school or with community members.

Chapter four empowers students to resist and challenge master narratives by producing counter narratives that honor their personal histories and community experiences. The unit begins with the careful reflection of moments in which the authors and Latinx students first encounter their personal histories and experiences in texts and classroom learning. For many, this takes place in university-based ethnic studies classes. The authors undo this practice by allowing students to see themselves honorably and accurately represented in texts as young learners. In this unit, students use mythology to explore ancient history, analyze naming practices, research social resistance movements, and identify and create counter-narratives. The chapter engages students in conversation surrounding race and history, and the authors provide samples of charts, guiding questions, and suggestions for navigating emotionally charged moments. It includes a variety of diverse texts and formats to support student exploration. Students conclude this unit by sharing what they have learned through narratives that honor their communities and reveal the restorative power of resistance and hope. España and Herrera remind teachers that this work must also be undertaken by teachers and instructors. This is to ensure that instructional practices accurately reflect and build toward an educational stance that truly values and builds from students' cultural experiences. Because teachers may be unfamiliar with the Latinx histories and social movements presented in the texts of these chapters, it is important to research and learn about these experiences in order to center them in the inquiry of the unit. This includes teachers and larger school audiences bearing witness to students' stories. Just as bilingual Latinx students are overlooked in historical and literacy curricula, their peers are also deprived of hearing and learning from these stories and histories. Student produced counter-narratives thus serve the larger purpose of undoing marginalizing practices in school curricula and policies.

In chapter five, students engage in social justice by researching and acting against contemporary narratives that dehumanize them within the school, community, or beyond. While the authors use the topic of immigration for this series of lessons, they

provide a list of high-interest contemporary topics that may be also used for this work. Here, España and Herrera advise educators to learn as much as they can about students' backgrounds and experiences. This will help educators understand how students have been and continue to be impacted by dehumanizing master narratives surrounding race and immigration. The authors again provide supports to facilitate difficult conversations as students work to identify and undo internalized narratives of linguistic and cultural inferiority. This is essential to the safety of individual students and the classroom environment as students question and understand the master narratives within primary and secondary resources surrounding immigration. Suggestions for student-led action on the school level and beyond are included at the end of the chapter. This social justice based action reinforces resistance skills that reject oppression and inferiority while directly countering narratives that dehumanize students, their communities, and their language practices.

Chapter six focuses on poetry and the power of the genre to explore and teach others about students' language practice and experiences. The unit engages students in readings of poetry that connect to students' bilingual experiences through authentic language practices and exploration. Students are encouraged to develop and perform their own poetry that incorporates the same. Guiding questions for discussion and translanguaging analysis are also included. This chapter speaks directly to the healing potential of the genre for students' identity formation. As students teach others about their own experience and language uses, they both resist deficit ideologies related to their language and cultural practices while sustaining their communities. This chapter is dedicated to empowering student voices and identities through literacy.

The final chapter of the book implores teachers to act as advocates, *edu-activists*, for bilingual Latinx students. Educators must consistently learn and reflect on their educational and language stances and encourage the same in others. This work begins at the school level, but it extends beyond the classroom as developed in chapters one through six. *Edu-activists* may begin by creating a plan of action for centering students and their experiences in the school curriculum through advocacy efforts. They must also create alliances with like-minded faculty that teach from social justice and culturally sustaining standpoints. These can be expanded outside of the school as well. This is a process that requires constant reflection and analysis. The chapter concludes with a call to expand this work into other aspects of teaching and learning and continuous research and exploration. As the authors point out, this chapter, and this text, are the starting point to an equitable, actionable, critical pedagogy.

This final call to action gives attention to the need to work with and research into the language and historical lived experiences of marginalized students and racial ethnic groups in order to equally center them in curricular and instructional practice. Because this text addresses the Latinx experience exclusively, educators must be careful to remember their students from other backgrounds. The recommended steps in the final chapter can help teachers and curriculum writers find and incorporate equally rich and respectful texts, topics, and experiences of other marginalized groups. *En Comunidad* leaves an open call for similar instructional support texts that address the practices and experiences of other language communities.

The authors also claim this work is limited to practice and texts appropriate to grades 3-8. However, the concepts and practices described in the book can extend to high school with immense benefits to students' developing academic, cultural, and linguistic identities—especially in its call to social justice. Attention to this grade level group can be a beneficial additional chapter or appendix to subsequent editions of the book. Across all grade levels, the lessons and suggested texts easily align to grade level standards and can engage students in authentic, critical learning through elementary, middle, and high school.

It is clear that Dr. España and Dr. Herrera kept in mind the day-to-day experience of language classroom instruction when writing *En Comunidad*. It is accessible, easy to read and digest, and its principles are easy to employ. It is this ease of use—alongside the restorative power of its practice—that makes this volume an essential and must-have text for educators working directly with Latinx students and language teacher candidates in higher education.

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End Note

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Journal of Multilingual Education Research

Publication Description

The *Journal of Multilingual Education Research (JMER)* is the official journal of the New York State Association for Bilingual Education. Its distinct orientation reflects what is most important to researchers, specialists, and educators in the fields of multilingualism and multilingual education. *JMER* is a vehicle to respond to the changes and growth of knowledge in a variety of national language education issues that have local and regional relevance. It responds to the emerging needs and interests of teachers, administrators, teacher educators, researchers, counselors, psychologists, advocates, and community leaders whose work focuses on the successful education of multilingual students.

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- Have title page, without the author's name, address, or institutional affiliation.

- Include a list of keywords.

- Include no more than two half-page size illustrations, tables, or figures or one full-page size illustration, table, or figure.

- Include a complete References section following the **APA 7th edition** format. It is the author's responsibility to make sure that all sources in text are credited in the References section and that all References are properly cited in the text.

- Follow the *Publication Manual of the APA* (7th edition) standards and procedures for publication.

A **cover letter** must accompany the manuscript that includes the name of author(s), a full mailing address, and e-mail address, both day and evening phone numbers, and fax number. Also, include a **brief biography** of up to 100 words and **ORCiD ID** for each author.

Include the author(s)' name on the cover letter **only.**

Papers accepted for publication will need to incorporate the reviewers' feedback. They must be submitted and reviewed in Microsoft Word format, preferably in .docx or .doc format.

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