

Translanguaging to Understand Language

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Translanguaging pedagogy is gaining widespread recognition as an approach that recognizes and builds on multilingual students' linguistic resources. Research on translanguaging pedagogy has predominantly focused on classroom language practices, while studies on the design and enactment of translanguaged instruction are limited. This pilot study contributes to the knowledge base on translanguaged instruction through the design, implementation, and examination of students' engagement with the content taught in a set of translanguaged lessons. These lessons were based on a language-based English reading curriculum for Spanish-English bilingual upper elementary students. Our approach to translanguaging pedagogy was characterized by a) use of bilingual texts; b) flexible language use; and c) bilingual language instruction. This article focuses on the lessons that addressed morphology and syntax instruction. Within an ethnomethodological approach, the discourse and interactions during the morphology and syntax instruction components of the lesson-cycles were examined to understand how students engaged with the language structures taught, and how translanguaging manifested in their talk about language. Our analyses revealed translanguaging as enabling students to perform linguistic analyses in which they: (a) established connections between English and Spanish morphemes; b) compared English and Spanish morphology and syntax; and c) explored alternative syntactic structures. As such, translanguaged instruction supported students' metalinguistic awareness and cognitive engagement, and enabled them to position themselves as expert linguists. This study provides evidence about the affordances of translanguaged literacy instruction, which is needed to continue stimulating the ideological shift from monolingual to multilingual perspectives in the education of bilingual students.

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Language and literacy curricula are traditionally designed from monolingual perspectives, but applied in schooling contexts where bi/multilingualism is the norm. A monolingual approach enables a focus on a given target language, but restricts students from using their full linguistic repertoires to make sense of and fully engage with content. Current perspectives on the instruction of bilingual students are shifting toward a focus on multilingualism in which students' diverse language resources are considered (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011; García, 2020). This multilingual perspective raises new curricular questions regarding the ways in which students' diverse languages may be effectively integrated into their language and literacy instruction. How can language and literacy instruction that stimulates students to use all of their meaning-making tools be designed? How would students engage with this instruction?

In response to these questions, translanguaging pedagogy is gaining prominence as an approach in which the varied languages, dialects, and registers that students bring to the classroom are recognized and integrated into the teaching and learning process (García & Sylvan, 2011). Although there is an expansive body of research on translanguaging pedagogy, we still know little about the design of translanguaged instruction. Research on translanguaging pedagogy is predominantly ethnographic and has focused on language practices in classrooms serving bilingual students (e.g., Durán & Palmer, 2014; Garza & Arreguín-Anderson, 2018; Sayer, 2013). There are fewer studies on the design of translanguaged instruction in which students are deliberately engaged with two named languages at the same time to support their language and literacy development (e.g., Jiménez et al., 2015). This initial research, along with current understandings of language and literacy development in bilingual students, highlight the affordances of translanguaged instructional designs in supporting metalinguistic awareness (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011; Jiménez et al., 2015), and building positive learning identities among bilingual students (Butvilofsky & Gumina, 2020; Durán & Palmer, 2014).

In the present study, we contribute to the research base on translanguaging pedagogy by exploring students' participation in a translanguaged literacy pilot. This pilot is based on an existing language-based reading curriculum in English for Spanish-English, upper elementary bilingual students (Proctor, Silverman, Haring, Jones, & Hartranft, 2020). This curriculum situates explicit language instruction in the areas of semantics, morphology, and syntax in text-based thematic units. As students construct knowledge about the unit theme, they also examine relevant linguistic features in the texts that they are reading to deepen their awareness of how language works to create meaning. In the translanguaged pilot, we expanded the language focus by

including bilingual materials and activities that encouraged students to establish connections between language structures in their named languages (English and Spanish). The translanguaged lessons were based on bilingual texts; students were stimulated to draw from all of their linguistic resources to share their linguistic insights, experiences, and understandings; and target linguistic features (syntax and morphology) were introduced side-by-side in English and Spanish.

This article focuses on the explicit language instruction component of this curriculum, particularly, on the morphology and syntax lessons. We adopted an ethnomethodological approach (Garfinkel, 1967) to examine the discourse and interactions during the morphology and syntax instruction components of the lesson-cycles in order to understand how learners engaged with the language structures taught, and how translanguaging manifested in their talk about language. This study is especially significant for TESOL contexts, where researchers and practitioners have, for too long, been entrenched in monolingual orientations and practices that can block bilingual students from experiencing their bilingualism as valued, thus inhibiting access to their dynamic linguistic repertoires as resources.

LANGUAGE VIEWED FROM A TRANSLANGUAGING THEORETICAL LENS

Translanguaging theory argues that named languages such as Spanish and English are historically constructed political and socio-cultural categories, and that these categories have been erroneously used in the understanding of how bilingual people function from a psycholinguistic perspective (Li, 2018; Otheguy, García & Reid, 2019). Psycholinguistic perspectives on bilingual language functioning establish that although bilingual individuals have an interdependent linguistic system in which there are shared features between languages, there is also internal language-specific differentiation (MacSwann, 2017). According to MacSwann, this specific differentiation can be seen in bilingual people's ability to systematically manage contradictory grammatical features (e.g., adjective placement in English and Spanish) in the languages that they know. Translanguaging theory rejects the existence of differentiated languages as a psycholinguistic reality and instead proposes a single unitary linguistic system (Otheguy et al., 2019). By positing a unitary linguistic system, translanguaging theory establishes a holistic understanding of bilingual functioning and development in which the distinctions between named languages are considered arbitrary (Li, 2018; Otheguy et al., 2019).

While translanguaging theory denies the existence of named languages as a psycholinguistic reality, it does recognize the existence of named languages as social-cultural and political realities (Otheguy et al, 2019). Bilinguals are aware of the boundaries that have been established between named languages, and they distinguish the linguistic features that have been assigned to them, as well as strategically use these boundaries in their interactions and meaning-making (Li, 2018). The argument for the unitary language system is focused on the proposal that the social and political duality that bilinguals manage when they strategically use their named languages does not correspond with a psycholinguistic duality (Otheguy et al, 2019). Bilinguals “do not think unilingually in a politically named linguistic entity, even when they are in a ‘monolingual mode’ and producing one namable language only for a specific stretch of speech or talk” (Li, 2018, p. 18). Bilinguals inhibit or select features from their linguistic repertoire based on the communicative context (García & Kleifgen, 2018), but their full linguistic system is always active.

In classroom contexts, stimulating bilingual students to use their full linguistic system provides a more natural context for their meaning-making, since they are not expected to inhibit any part of their linguistic system. The unitary perspective on bilinguals’ linguistic system blurs the boundaries between second/foreign language acquisition and bilingualism. Rather than adding a new named language, bilingual learners (and all learners in general) are expanding their linguistic systems by adding new features in the context of meaningful interactions (Otheguy et al., 2019). This approach provides a more positive outlook on the language development process in which teachers focus on the expansion of the linguistic system, rather than on the concern about their students mastering “the second named language” (Otheguy et al., 2019, p. 648).

Theoretically, instruction that allows students to move between and beyond named languages (García & Li, 2014) will support students in using the structures that have been attributed to either or both of the named languages, and will spur broader linguistic understandings (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011). Instructionally, we sought to stimulate bilingual students to expand their linguistic system by leveraging their awareness of named languages to support their understanding of new linguistic features, specifically syntax, and morphology. Empirically, we document these interactions within an ethnomethodological framework using discourse analysis to articulate themes that characterized the nature of students’ participation in translanguaged instruction.

TRANSLANGUAGING AND METALINGUISTIC AWARENESS

Metalinguistic awareness is the ability to distance oneself from the content of language and pay attention to its structural features (Nagy & Anderson, 1995). Bilingual children have been shown to possess an advantage, relative to monolinguals, in the development of metalinguistic awareness (Adesope et al., 2010). Such metalinguistic advantage may be due to what Kuo and Anderson (2010) call “structural sensitivity.” They theorized that bilingual children’s advantage in understanding language is due to “having access to two languages [by which] structural similarities and differences between languages [become] more salient, allowing bilingual children to form representations of language structure at a more abstract level” (Kuo & Anderson, 2010, p. 370). This theory is based on a unified view of the language-processing system. Rather than using the skills of one language in the context of another language as proposed in theories of cross-linguistic transfer, structural sensitivity theory posits that bilinguals’ readiness to recognize and engage with the structural features of language is due to their joint, ongoing experiences navigating two or more named languages across multiple interactional contexts.

A translanguaged approach to language and literacy instruction leverages the opportunities that bilingualism opens in terms of metalinguistic awareness (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011). Rather than maintaining language transparency by only focusing on target language use, it encourages students to become more attentive to language by establishing connections between the different structural features in their named languages to help them deepen their understanding of how language works in meaningful contexts. The design of translanguaged instruction has the potential to focus instruction squarely in language by giving students the opportunity to compare, contrast, and flexibly use their named languages and, in so doing, enhance their linguistic understandings (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011; Cummins, 2013; Horst, White & Bell, 2010).

Fostering metalinguistic awareness from a translanguaging perspective is different from contrastive analysis (Lado, 1964). Theoretically, contrastive analysis informs second language teaching methods and is historically couched in behaviorist theories that view language learning as a habit formation process (Valdés, Capitelli, & Álvarez, 2011). Contrasting structures, such as adjective placement in English and Spanish, are identified and emphasized in curriculum design in order to expose and engage language learners in new language habits. Contrastive analytic approaches are typically conceived by the curriculum

designer before instruction takes place, and instruction is only in the target language (Freeman & Freeman, 2014). Under contrastive analysis, the relationship between learners' prior and new linguistic knowledge is negatively viewed. The prior linguistic knowledge interferes with, rather than supports learning (Brown, 2007).

By contrast, a translanguaging perspective views language learning as a dynamic process of adding new linguistic features in the context of meaningful interactions (García & Kliefgen, 2018). Language learning takes place in relationship with students' existing language practices and linguistic knowledge. In short, there is no target language. Rather, "new language practices ... emerge in interrelationship with old ones, without competing or threatening an already established sense of being that language constitutes" (García & Li, 2014, p. 79). A translanguaged approach to literacy actively engages students in understanding and enhancing these relationships. This differs from a contrastive analysis approach in which the language learner is expected to develop new language habits without engaging in reflection about new linguistic features.

In a translanguaged approach to metalinguistic awareness, a *translanguaging space* (Li, 2018) is created where the boundaries between named languages become an object of reflection and analysis. In this space, students are not learning isolated grammatical structures, but instead engaged in an active meaning-making process that enables them to establish connections between their prior linguistic knowledge and the new target language structures (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011; Cummins, 2013). In a translanguaging space, named languages are integrated into instruction, thus opening opportunities for students to critically and creatively engage with the target linguistic constructs by, for example, identifying patterns, establishing distinctions, and considering different explanations for how the language system works.

TRANSLANGUAGING PEDAGOGIES

Translanguaging pedagogy was initially proposed in Welsh bilingual education programs as an instructional approach to support cognitive engagement and understanding by integrating English and Welsh within a lesson (Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012). Translanguaging pedagogy in the Welsh tradition was conceived to develop bilingualism and subject area knowledge, not to teach language. The scope of this approach has been expanded to include language and literacy instruction, based on the assumption that integrating students' full linguistic repertoire eases them into new language practices (García & Li,

2014), and supports more efficient and targeted instruction by encouraging students to draw on their prior linguistic knowledge and skills (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011; Cummins, 2013; Martín-Beltrán, 2010). Furthermore, translanguaging pedagogy has been proposed as a critical literacy approach that stimulates students to reflect on the role of language in defining identities and power structures (Flores & García, 2014).

Research on translanguaging pedagogies is predominantly ethnographic and has focused on language practices in classrooms serving bilingual students. This research has shown that the boundaries established by language separation policies are typically transgressed, since students fluidly use all of their language resources (Creese & Blackledge, 2010). Teachers who are attuned to their students' language practices, encourage them to flexibly use their full linguistic repertoire to enhance their meaningful participation in class (Gort & Sembiente, 2015; Sayer, 2013).

Research on how deliberately designed translanguaged instruction supports language and literacy development is more limited. Some studies have examined how translanguaged instructional environments expand teaching and learning opportunities (Hopewell, 2011), and stimulates students to take ownership of their literacy (Stewart & Hansen-Thomas, 2016). Other research has examined how instructional designs based on translation support bilingual students' reading comprehension and metalinguistic awareness (Borrero, 2011; Jiménez et al., 2015). Additionally, Horst, White, and Bell (2010) explored instructional strategies aimed at promoting cognate awareness and the recognition of syntactic differences between English and French.

This study contributes to this emerging research base of translanguaged literacy instruction. Such studies are necessary in order to inform educational policies and practices for bilingual students in the United States, and in other countries, that foster the integration of bilingual students' full linguistic repertoire to enhance their language learning. This is a key step in cultivating the ideological shift from monolingual to multilingual perspectives that remain pervasive in TESOL research and instructional contexts.

THE PRESENT STUDY

This work comes from a larger project where a language-based reading curriculum in English for bilinguals was developed (Proctor et al., 2020). In this research, the broader instructional principles of the reading curriculum developed for the larger study were adopted in the design of the translanguaged literacy pilot. We explored the

interactional and learning processes that took place in the translanguaged lessons by addressing the following research questions:

1. How do students engage with the language structures taught in the translanguaged lessons?
2. How is translanguaging manifested in students' talk about language?

Methodology

To deepen current understandings of how deliberately designed translanguaged instruction may support student learning, a fine-grained ethnomethodological analysis of participants' discourse and interactions in the translanguaged lessons was conducted. We sought to capture students' meaning-making as made manifest in their talk and interaction with: a) linguistic structures; b) their peers and teacher; and c) the other instructional resources made available to them. Ethnomethodology focuses on uncovering the tacit mechanisms that participants use to organize their interaction based on their local understandings of what is happening in it (Garfinkel, 1967; Liddicoat, 2007). This approach follows an inductive process to theorize interaction based on the detailed analysis of the conversation. The analyst seeks to characterize how participants' understandings of what is going on are enacted in their interaction with each other. In this sense, ethnomethodology does not seek to establish strict "codes," as is common in traditional qualitative research. Instead, through characterizations of theorized interactions, the analyst more appropriately identifies themes that best capture the nature of those interactions.

Two techniques for identifying and characterizing these themes within an ethnomethodological framework are Conversation Analysis (CA) and Discourse Analysis (DA). This study draws on DA to characterize how bilingual students engaged in translanguaging to achieve different purposes such as performing their bilingualism and engaging in meaningful talk about the content taught (Gee, 2012; Mehan & Cazden, 2015). This paper focuses on the analysis of participants' discourse and interactions during the morphology and syntax lessons, which are described next.

Translanguaged Lesson Cycles

The reading curriculum upon which the translanguaged lessons were based aimed to improve literacy outcomes by providing text-

based language instruction in three dimensions of language: semantics, morphology, and syntax. The curriculum was organized in thematic units, and each unit was comprised of lesson-cycles focused on a text related to the unit theme (e.g., immigration, rights). The lesson-cycles consisted of a set of lessons during which students discussed the text and relevant issues raised in it, and participated in explicit text-based language instruction (see Proctor et al., 2020 for a complete description).

For the current study, Author 1 infused translanguaging pedagogy into two lesson-cycles in consultation with Author 2 and other members of the research team. The classroom teacher, whose students participated in the translanguaged lessons, reviewed the lesson plans to ensure that their content was developmentally appropriate for the students. She also supported the implementation of the lesson cycles by providing feedback and designing strategies to address behavioral issues.

Table 1 presents the bilingual texts used and content taught. Translanguaging pedagogy was enacted in these lessons by a) promoting flexible language use; b) modeling translanguaging practices via instruction; and c) creating lessons that deliberately exposed students to Spanish and English through explicit instruction, and reading and writing expectations.

The following translanguaging objectives were established for these lesson cycles:

1. Students will enhance their awareness about their bilingual identities, and how their language choices reflect these identities.

TABLE 1
Content of Lesson Cycles

	Cycle 1	Cycle 2
Topic and Text	Immigration – <i>My Name is Jorge</i> by Jane Medina	Workers' rights – <i>Yes, We Can!</i> by Diana Cohn
Semantics	Vocabulary: Turn – polysemy contrasts with Spanish (<i>voltear, convertir, turno</i>) invisible/ <i>invisible</i> , disappear/ <i>desaparecer</i> , citizen/ <i>ciudadano</i> , power/ <i>poder</i>	Vocabulary: janitor/ <i>conserje</i> , union/ <i>sindicato</i> , vote/ <i>votar</i> , strike/ <i>huelga</i> , march/ <i>march</i> , promise/ <i>promesa</i>
Morphology	-ful, -less (<i>-ado/ada,-ido,-oso/asa</i>)	er, or (<i>-ista, -dor/dora, -or/ora</i>)
Syntax	Adjective placement in English and Spanish	Subject pronouns in English and Spanish
Dialogic reasoning	Should Jorge change his identity to fit in his school?	Should the janitors have gone on strike?
Writing	Opinion paragraph about whether Jorge/they/someone they know should change his/her identity to fit in a new place.	Place themselves in Carlito's position and write a letter to the company's president requesting better work conditions for <i>mamá</i> .

2. Students will start developing a critical awareness of how authors' language choices in different types of texts may reflect aspects such as point of view and identity.
3. Students will enhance their metalinguistic awareness by comparing and contrasting semantic, morphological, and syntactic aspects of their named languages.

This current study focuses specifically on the last objective, particularly on the morphology and syntax components of this curricular pilot, which are described in detail in the following sections.

Morphology. Morphology instruction was aimed at deepening students' word knowledge by developing awareness of root words and their affixes. Additionally, it sought to promote the establishment of relationships between English and Spanish morphology by presenting content bilingually. Instruction focused on the derivational aspect of morphology, which involves the addition of a morpheme (affix) to a base word to change its part of speech or meaning (Kuo & Anderson, 2006).

Morphology lessons were organized in two activities: (1) explicit instruction in which the morphological structure was introduced via a bilingual presentation, and (2) guided or independent practice in which students used the morphological structures. See Table 1 for the morphological structures taught in each lesson-cycle.

Syntax. Syntax instruction was deliberately designed to stimulate students' awareness of the contrast between syntactic structures in English and Spanish, in the service of expanding students' awareness of language per Kuo and Anderson (2010). Two contrasting structures were introduced: adjective placement and subject pronouns. In English, adjectives are placed before the noun (e.g., blue car) while, in Spanish, they are typically placed after the noun (e.g., *carro azul*). Subject pronouns in English are typically necessary (e.g., We went to the movies), while there are instances in Spanish where the subject information is contained in the verb conjugation (e.g., *Fuimos al cine*). These structures were analyzed in the context of each lesson cycle text, and in other activities. During Cycle 1 the poem "Relaxing/*Relajando*," (Medina, 1999) which has rich descriptive language as can be seen in the excerpt presented in Figure 1, was used as an entry point to introduce the differences in adjective placement in English and Spanish. During Cycle 2, students analyzed sentences from the Spanish and English versions of the text, *Yes, We Can! ¡Sí se puede!* (Cohn, 2002) that illustrated the contrast in subject pronouns. As in morphology lessons, syntax lessons were organized in two main activities: (1) explicit

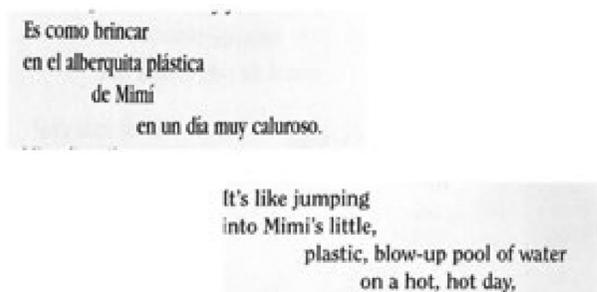


FIGURE 1. Example of Contrasting Descriptive Language in an excerpt from the Poem “Relaxing/Relajando” by Jane Medina (1999, p. 12)

instruction of the syntax structure via a presentation, and (2) guided or independent practice in which students were engaged in activities using the syntax structure.

Setting and Participants

This research took place in a public K-8 school located in a predominantly Latino neighborhood that has historically been populated by immigrants. At the time of the study, its largest immigrant group came from Central and South America. The school served a predominantly Hispanic student body (77.3%), and about half of the students (47.3%) were classified as English learners by the local school district. The students, who were identified as being in the process of learning English, were placed in Structured English Immersion (SEI) classrooms as mandated per state language education requirements. Per SEI law at the time of the study, instruction was required to be delivered in English with the use of students’ existing linguistic knowledge limited to translating key words and instructions. The SEI law and model took an extreme psycholinguistic and monolingual perspective on language education that contrasted markedly with the translanguaged approach described here. These contrastive conditions situated the current study as exploring a demonstrable counter narrative to the monolingual and psycholinguistic orientations that have historically shaped the education of bilingual students.

The translanguaged lesson-cycles were implemented in the spring and fall of 2016 during the RISE¹ block. RISE was a thirty-minute daily block in which students received individualized language and literacy support. Author 1 taught the translanguaged lesson cycles during the

¹ Pseudonyms are used for this block and for the students.

spring semester of 2016 between mid-March until early June. Since Cycle 1 took longer than planned, it was necessary to reconvene the group during the subsequent fall semester (September–October 2016) to finish Cycle 2.

The SEI third grade teacher selected five Spanish–English bilingual students with varied language and literacy proficiencies in both named languages to participate in this pilot (see Table 2 for student descriptions). The students’ English language proficiency, as assessed by the WIDA ACCESS test, ranged from level 1 (“Entering”) to level 4 (“Expanding”; see <https://wida.wisc.edu/assess/access/tests>). In level 1, students are just becoming familiar with the English language, while in level 4 students are comfortable using English to learn and communicate with their teachers and peers, but need further development in using English for academic purposes. During the fall of 2016, all of the participants returned, and all had continued in the 4th-grade SEI classroom, save for Joseph, who was transferred to a “mainstream” classroom.

Data Sources and Analysis

Data sources include video and audio recordings of the lessons. In total, 7.87 hours of video/audio data were recorded, distributed in 16 lessons each averaging 30 minutes. These recordings were transcribed verbatim.

We defined the unit for conducting the discourse analysis as a sequence encompassing a stretch of talk about a topic initiated by a question or comment, either made by the teacher or students, and including the different turns related to the initiating question/comment. By using the sequence as the unit of analysis, we captured how participants’ talk was embedded in prior turns and in ensuing talk (Schlegloff, 1992). This approach allowed us to follow how the meaning-making process unfolded in the interactions, particularly in the cases in which participants’ fluidly used their linguistic resources.

TABLE 2
Student Description

Pseudonym	Place of Birth	Descent	Year of Arrival in US	Spring 2016 ELD Level
Johanna	USA	Salvadorian	NA	3.5
Valentina	Colombia	Colombian	2015	1
Roberto	Colombia	Colombian	2014	3
James	El Salvador	Salvadorian	2015	1
Joseph	USA	Salvadorian	NA	4

We labeled the sequences as either Spanish or English monolingual, or bilingual. These clear-cut distinctions between languages are arbitrary since, although bilinguals may choose to communicate monolingually, they always function bilingually—they do not switch their languages on and off (Li, 2018). However, we decided to name these sequences as Spanish or English monolingual, or bilingual because we have to highlight that, despite our encouragement of flexible language practices in these lessons, students typically chose to communicate in one of their named languages. Translanguaging was an important meaning-making resource that students used strategically to expand their understanding of the target linguistic constructs and to achieve interactional purposes.

This paper focuses specifically on the bilingual sequences in which participants talked about morphology and syntax. The explicit focus on these bilingual sequences enabled us to take a fine-grained approach to characterizing how participants drew from their linguistic knowledge in both named languages in their talk about syntax and morphology. We may have missed other aspects of these students' bilingual functioning by solely focusing on the bilingual sequences, and not considering how their bilingualism was made manifest when they chose to communicate monolingually. However, the affordances of translanguaged literacy instruction were more clearly captured in the instances in which students strategically used both of their named languages for interactional and learning purposes.

The first step in the analysis consisted of noticing and flagging sequences that provided insights into students' meaning-making about language. For example, we noted sequences in which students compared languages, engaged in translation, shared ideas, or asked questions about the linguistic constructs. These sequences were then expanded with the CA transcription conventions (Jefferson, 2004) relevant to the research questions (see Table 3).

These new transcriptions, and the gestures and actions observed in the videos, provided additional interactional evidence to characterize the meaning-making process by discerning how non-verbal behavior such as overlapping speech, pauses, intonation, and volume illuminated student engagement with the target linguistic constructs. Table 4 shows the themes, unpacked in the Results section, derived from the data that were relevant to the research questions (Braun and Clarke, 2006).

Researchers' Positionality

Author 1. I am a Colombian scholar who arrived in the United States 9 years ago. I have a personal interest in designing and

TABLE 3
CA Transcription Conventions

Symbol	Meaning
[]	Overlapping talk
(0.0)	Length of silence in tenths of a second
(.)	Micropause less than 2/10 of a second
.	Falling intonation
?	Full rising intonation
!	Preceding talk was uttered loudly compared to its surrounding speech (it is not a grammatical marker)
::	Prolongation of the preceding sound
<u>Word</u>	Marked stress
>word<	Speech delivery that is quicker than the surrounding talk
<word>	Speech delivery that is slower than the surrounding talk
↑	Marked rising shift in intonation
((Word))	Transcriber's comment
...	Lines were taken out of the original conversation
"Line in cursive below Spanish utterances"	English translation of a Spanish utterance

TABLE 4
Themes reflecting how both named languages were used (i.e., translanguaging took place) to make sense of the linguistic constructs taught

Translanguaging in students' talk about language	Description	Example
Linguistic analyses	Students apply their linguistic knowledge to examine and discuss target language structures. Two related but different analyses were observed:	
Connecting English and Spanish morphemes	Students focus their attention on target morphemes and connect morphemes in one language with their counterpart in the other language.	"Aimless. <i>Meta</i> , <i>Sin meta</i> . <i>Mira cada vez que dice less es como sin</i> " ("Aimless. Aim. Without aim. Look every time it says less is like <i>sin</i>). (<i>Sin</i> is "without" in Spanish).
Comparing English and Spanish morphology and syntax	Student engagement with morphological and syntactic structures in which they notice and analyze differences between English and Spanish morphemes/syntax.	Referring to a slide with <i>botella plástica</i> and plastic bottle written on it: "Dan la vuelta, porque aquí dice <i>plastic y aquí plástica</i> " ("They are the other way around, because here it says plastic and here <i>plástica</i> .").
Exploring alternative syntactic constructions	Students use their prior linguistic knowledge to consider alternative ways of interpreting whether a sentence is grammatically correct or not.	Interpreting a sentence in English with the noun placed before the adjective: "The sentence makes more sense in Spanish because you know the words are like backwards."

understanding instruction that enables students to use all of their linguistic resources, because this in turn enables me to use my own linguistic and cultural resources in my research and teaching. It was possible to build rapport with the participating students since we shared similar cultural and linguistic backgrounds. During the data analysis, I shifted between my teacher and researcher roles. I did not only see the aspects related to the study's research questions, but also became aware of missed teaching opportunities.

Author 2. I am an English-Spanish bilingual scholar and a former bilingual teacher. My dissertation examined linguistic interdependence in Spanish and English, which drew from monolingually-driven theories and methods. This training affected my scholarship and entrée into translanguaging, and required a great deal of “unlearning” of my monolingual perspectives. As the dissertation advisor of Author 1 and principal investigator of the research project from which data were collected, I have worked with Author 1 to embrace and understand the nuances of translanguaging as a necessary departure from my previous scholarship.

RESULTS

In this study we asked: 1) How do students engage with the language structures taught in the translanguaged lessons?; and 2) How is translanguaging manifested in students' talk about language? Although students used Spanish as the main language of interaction, they were cognitively engaged with both named languages. The analyses of the discourse and interactions below expand the themes presented in Table 4 to illustrate both how students engaged with the language structures in the lessons, and how translanguaging manifested in their talk about language.

Linguistic Analysis

This section presents three excerpts that illustrate how students applied their linguistic knowledge to examine and discuss target language structures. As will be illustrated below, the use of Spanish and English in these lessons made target linguistic structures more salient, enabling students to focus their attention on them.

Connecting English and Spanish morphemes. Excerpt 1 (see Figure 2) is part of the morphology presentation in Cycle 1 in which different examples were used to introduce the suffix “-ful” and its Spanish counterparts (*-oso/osa/ado/ada*). The excerpt focuses on the

talk that occurred when the words “basketful/*canastada*” were introduced using the slide included in Figure 2.

The first three turns illustrate the overlapping speech that frequently took place in these lessons. Rather than listening quietly to a presentation, students actively participated by repeating the words that were introduced and making comments about the slides. In this particular excerpt, James overlapped with the teacher to repeat the word “basketful,” which enabled him to engage more actively with the English language by saying this new word out loud. The teacher continued the explanation by segmenting “basketful,” and connecting “basket,” to its Spanish version: “*canasta*.” After an off-topic comment made by Roberto, James returned to the topic by reading out loud the word “*canasta*” from the slide. His upward intonation at the end of turn 7 suggests that he was wondering about the word “*canasta*.” His thoughts about this word were made manifest in turn 9 in which he concluded that “-ful” meant “-*da*” in Spanish. His conclusion suggests that he segmented the word “*canastada*” in its root and suffix, and connected the suffix “-ful” to its Spanish counterpart “-*da*.”

This excerpt illustrates how access to prior linguistic knowledge supported James’ understanding of morphology. He used his Spanish knowledge to analyze the words “basketful/*canastada*,” and conclude that the English equivalent for the Spanish suffix “-*da*” was “-ful.” James was able to engage with these suffixes in a meaningful way since he could use Spanish referents to decompose complex words.



Basketful= the basket is full of puppies
Canastada= la canasta está llena de
cachorros.

1. T: Basketful

2. JA: [Basketful]

3. T: [Basket] (.) [es la canasta, ful]

...

7. JA: Canasta↑

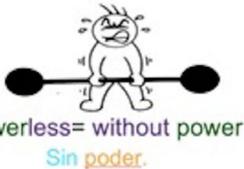
8. R: Basket

9. JA: O sea que ful↑ (.) está significando en español el da
“So full is meaning da in Spanish”

FIGURE 2. Connecting English and Spanish Morphemes

Comparing English and Spanish morpheme placement. Excerpt 2 (see Figure 3) took place when the suffix “-less” was introduced. In some cases, this suffix corresponds with “des-” in Spanish, such as in “careless/*descuidado*.” In other cases, such as “powerless,” its Spanish counterpart is composed of two words: “*sin poder*.” The following excerpt, based on the slide included in Figure 3, illustrates James and Roberto’s analysis of the Spanish and English morphemes in the words “powerless/*sin poder*.”

James asked for the floor while the teacher was explaining that in English only one word (“powerless”) was needed to mean “without power,” while in Spanish two words were needed (“*sin poder*”). As



Powerless= without power
Sin poder.



1. T: en español no puedes volver la palabra (.) una sola palabra (.) necesitas dos (.) sin poder (.) ((To James)) Dime?
"In Spanish you cannot turn the word into a single word. You need two words sin poder. ((To James)) Tell me?"

2. JA: ((Standing from his seat and going to the front to point at the ppt.)) Eh eso está (.) eso está (.) cómo se dice? (.) no no está (.) cabal (.) porque (.) esto(.) esta letra[↑] es primero (.) en español va acá (.) y power es poder (.) así que no está separado y está al principio.
"That does, that does, how do you say it? Does not make sense. Because in Spanish this, this letter goes first, in Spanish it goes here, and power is poder, so it is not separated and it is at the beginning."

3. T: Exacto es distinto (.) Muy bien.
"Exactly it is different. Very good."

4. JA: No está (.) está así[↑] (.) porque less debería estar acá (.) y power acá ((pointing at how less and power should be located if we followed Spanish morphology/syntax))
"It is not, it is like this, because less should be here and power here."

5. T: Ves? [En inglés es al contrario] muy bien.
"You see. In English it is the opposite. Very good."

6. R: [Es como decir poder sin]
"It is like saying power(poder) less (sin)"

7. JA: Es al revés[↑]
"It is the other way around"

8. T: Es al revés (.) Y en inglés es una sola palabra y en español son dos.
"It is the other way around. And in English it is one single word and in Spanish there are two words."

FIGURE 3. Comparing English and Spanish Morpheme Placement

illustrated in the image from the video (see figure 3), James stood up from his seat to comment on the slide. In line 2, he introduced his comment with the phrase “*esto no está cabal*/this doesn’t make sense,” which suggests that he was trying to make sense of the content of the slide. He made sense of the slide by focusing his attention on the morphemes and analyzing the differences that he was observing in the English and Spanish versions of these words (see turns 2 and 4).

As illustrated in the picture from the video, James pointed at the different morphemes and used deictic words (e.g., “*esta, acá*”) to articulate his linguistic analysis. His last comment in turn 4—“*porque less debería estar acá y power acá*”—conveys how James used Spanish as a referent to understand English. By pointing at the different morphemes on the slide, he showed how the word “powerless” should look like (e.g., less power) if it followed Spanish morphology. Roberto’s contribution in turn 6 further illustrates this use of Spanish as a referent by proposing how the word would look in Spanish if it followed English word order (“*poder sin*”).

When the syntax lesson on adjective placement was introduced using comparable color-coded bilingual slides, students performed an analogous linguistic analysis to the one presented in Excerpt 2. As in the previous excerpt, students displayed their engagement with the bilingual slides by spontaneously sharing their linguistic insights regarding the differences in adjective placement between English and Spanish.

Identifying gender-related inflections. Excerpt 3 (see Figure 4) presents another instance in which students engaged in linguistic analysis, and contributed additional perspectives to enhance the understanding of the target Spanish-English morphemes. This excerpt took place during the morphology presentation in which the noun person forming suffixes “-er/-or” and their Spanish versions “-dor/-dora/-or/-ora” was introduced. The slide (see figure 4) on which this excerpt is based was the last one in the presentation. Before this, other examples using an equivalent format had been presented. Although the gender inflection was highlighted in all the Spanish examples (e.g., *cazador /cazadora*), the teacher had not explained that noun person forming suffixes in Spanish included information about gender.

Excerpt 3 starts with the teacher’s closing comment in which she summarized the main idea that she wanted to convey: that noun person forming suffixes changed verbs into nouns. She presented this summary as a question in which she asked the group if they saw what she was showing them. In turn 2, Johanna overlapped with the teacher to comment that the Spanish suffix “-dora” was used for females, while the suffix “-dor” was used for males. Johanna’s comment indicates that

Hunter/Cazador(a)



someone who ... hunts

1. T: So do you see the (.) Do you see? (.) When we add the (.) those suffixes we change [the words[↑]]
2. J: [Pero es (.)] alguien como (.) como (.) eh eh (.) como varón[↑] y hembra (.) ponen -dora para hembra y -dor [para varón]
"But it is someone like, like a male and a female, they put -dora for female and -dor for male"
3. JA: [-do:::r[↑]]
4. T: Okay (.) Entonces (.)eh look at what Johanna is saying (.) Pónganle atención a Johanna (.) En inglés[↑] (.) tú no:: (.) tu no (.) no hay una distinción de si es hombre o mujer[↑]
"Okay. So, look at what Johanna is saying. Pay attention to Johanna. In English you don't, there is no distinction whether it is a man or a woman."
5. V: Umju
"Umhu"
6. T: En español sí[↑](.) Entonces en español tienes que agregar una "o" para designar que es un [hombre o una "a"]
"In Spanish, there is. So, in Spanish you have to add an 'o' to designate that it is a man r an 'a'."
7. V: [cazador y cazadora]
"hunter((male)) and hunter((female))"
8. R: Porque en inglés uno no dice huntir!
"Because in English one doesn't say huntir"
9. J: ((laughs))
10. R: uno dice hunter
"one says hunter"
11. T: Exacto
"Exactly"

FIGURE 4. Comparing English and Spanish Inflections Related to Gender

she had been paying attention to the examples that had been presented and that she was seeing something else. She gained the floor by overlapping with the teacher and using the word “*pero*/but,” to introduce her comment, thus indicating that she had a different perspective on what the teacher was showing them. In turn 3 James overlapped with Johanna to highlight that the suffix “-dor” was used for males, and in turn, 4 and 6 the teacher used Johanna’s comment as a starting point to present the differences in inflectional morphology between English and Spanish. In turn 7, Valentina repeated the

example presented in the slide to illustrate gender inflections in Spanish, and in turn 8, Roberto proposed an invented word to emphasize the contrast. He explained that a word such as “huntir” which, according to his proposal would denote gender, did not exist in English.

The above excerpts also illustrate how, along with translanguaged instruction, the visual and linguistic supports offered in the color-coded bilingual slides provided other semiotic resources to support active meaning-making. These multimodal slides provided a concrete referent for students to develop their ideas about language. Students’ engagement with these slides illustrates the key role of multimodality in bilingual students’ meaning-making (Li, 2018; Lin 2019).

Exploring Alternative Syntactic Structures

Students’ active engagement was also made manifest in a grammaticality judgment activity during the second part of the adjective placement syntax lesson. In this activity, students were presented sentences in English and Spanish in which adjectives were either placed in accordance, or in not in accordance, with monolingual conceptions of each named language and were asked whether the sentence “made sense” to them. Grammaticality judgments indicate tacit knowledge about a named language’s grammatical system (MacSwann, 2017). In translanguaging theory, these judgments have been rejected since they assume that bilinguals have two differentiated internal grammars that enable them to decide whether a sentence is grammatical or not based on one of the linguistic systems (Otheguy et al., 2019). As illustrated in the following excerpt, students flexibly drew on all their linguistic knowledge to judge the proposed sentences. Rather than establishing either/or judgments (e.g., the sentence makes sense, or doesn’t make sense) as was expected for this activity, students shared relevant insights regarding sentences that would be judged grammatically incorrect if only one linguistic system were used as a parameter.

Excerpt 4 (see Figure 5) presents the discussion that took place when students were asked whether the sentence “The medicine powerful cured the person sick” was grammaticality “correct” or not.

In turn 2, Roberto provided the expected answer for the known-answer question with which the teacher initiated this sequence. After a brief pause, the teacher asked Roberto to confirm his answer. Roberto’s response in turn 4 has several features that indicate that he looked more closely at the sentence and changed his mind regarding the response given in turn 2. He paused several times, reread the sentence, and wondered whether the sentence made sense as suggested by his upward intonation after he said “it makes sense.” Joseph

1.	T:	Bueno niños (.) y ésta? (.) The medicine powerful cured the person sick. Does that make sense? "Okay kids, and this one?"
2.	R:	No
(1.0)		
3.	T:	No (.) right?= =The medicine powerful(.) No (.) yeah (.) it makes sense↑(.) The medicine powerful cured the person sick.
4.	R:	[No]
5.	JO:	[Does] that make sense?
6.	T:	No no no
7.	JO:	Why <u>doesn't</u> it make sense?
8.	T:	[Es por]
9.	J:	"It's because"
10.	R:	[It does]
11.	V:	[Porque dice] "Because it says"
12.	R:	[Kind of!] (.)It [kind of make(.)don't make sense(.)[but]
13.	JO:	[Kind of yeah] [cause] it said!(.) the <u>medicine</u> powerful <u>cu:red</u> the person
14.	T:	Okay so so you would have to put the adjectives[before
15.	R:	[Es como decir!] "It's like saying"
16.	JO:	[If I add some!]
17.	R:	Es como decir en español La medicina (.) eh poderosa (.) curó al a la persona enferma "It's like saying in Spanish: The medicine powerful cured the person sick"
18.	JO:	Pero eh [pero si yo] "But, but if I"
19.	T:	[En español] sí haría [sí tendría sentido] In Spanish it would, it would make sense"
20.	JO:	>[if I add some words]< it makes sense↑ [cause look]
...		
31.	T:	Exacto (.) Y Joseph qué ibas a decir? "Exactly. And Joseph what were you going to say?"
32.	JO:	Uhm sí en the medicine powerful cured the person sick >if I add some words it'll make sense< like (.) The (.) medicine <u>that's</u> powerful cured the person <u>that's</u> sick "Uhm, yes in"

FIGURE 5. Proposing Alternative Sentences

established that the sentence didn't make sense in turn 5, and emphasized this answer in turn 7, after the teacher repeated the initial question in turn 6.

Perhaps in light of this disagreement, the teacher proposed an open-ended question in turn 8 ("Why doesn't it make sense?") Her question was followed by 4 overlapping turns in which Johanna, Roberto, and Valentina tried to gain the floor. Roberto gained the floor in turn 12 by speaking louder than the rest as indicated with the exclamation mark. He started articulating an explanation in which he seemed to be grappling with whether the sentence made sense or not,

as suggested by his word choice—“kind of.” While Roberto was trying to articulate this explanation, Joseph overlapped twice with him. In the first overlap, Joseph agreed with Roberto that the sentence “kind of” made sense. In the second overlap he took the floor from Roberto, and introduced an explanation as indicated with his use of the word “cause.” Joseph articulated his explanation by repeating the sentence, and emphasizing the words “medicine” and “cured.” His emphasis on these words, suggests that he was focusing his attention on them.

In turn 14, the teacher took the floor from Joseph, and answered the open-ended question (“...so you would have to put the adjectives before.”) Roberto and Joseph did not accept this answer as can be seen in their competition for the floor. In turn 17, Roberto, who had been using English in the prior turns, used Spanish to propose that the sentence would make sense in Spanish. He translated the sentence to show that the adjective placement in the English version of the sentence would be correct according to monolingual conceptions of Spanish. With this contribution, Roberto positioned himself as an expert bilingual who was able to consider a sentence from the perspective of the two named languages. As proposed in translanguaging theory, Roberto’s analysis shows how he used all his linguistic knowledge, and not one differentiated system (i.e., English) to judge the proposed sentence.

After various failed attempts to get the floor, Joseph explained that the sentence would make sense if the word “that’s” was added before “powerful” and “sick.” Joseph displayed his expertise in the English language by proposing an alternative way of structuring the sentence to make it grammatically correct according to monolingual conventions of English: “The medicine that is powerful cured the person that is sick” (turn 32 in the excerpt).

Excerpt 4 illustrates how students changed the grammaticality judgment activity into an exploration of syntax in which they manipulated the proposed sentence to propose alternative structures. The opportunity to use all of their linguistic system to make judgments about grammar supported students in considering the arbitrary nature of grammar, since they could explore how grammar varied across their named languages, and alter the proposed syntactic structures to creatively propose other ones.

DISCUSSION

This study contributes to the understanding of translanguaged literacy instruction by exploring students’ engagement with language in a set of discrete lessons that were deliberately designed for this purpose.

Although there has been some research illuminating how students' full linguistic repertoires may be leveraged to expand their understanding of texts (e.g., Jimenez et al., 2015; Stewart & Hansen-Thomas, 2016), we are not aware of research drawing on the translanguaging theory of language (Li, 2018; Otheguy et al., 2019) to explore how explicit language instruction can be designed, and how students engage with this instruction. While the focus on specific language lessons (morphology and syntax) and on the bilingual sequences within those lessons makes for a constrained analysis, the results presented here contribute theoretical and instructional insights on the affordances of bringing students' named languages together to enhance their literacy engagement. We offer three main takeaways for how translanguaged literacy instruction can promote students' critical and creative engagement in literacy: (1) Moving beyond vocabulary; (2) Translanguaging shifts promote student agency; and (3) Linguistic analysis and translanguaging are complementary. We discuss each of these below.

Moving Beyond Vocabulary Instruction

The interactional evidence presented in this paper suggests that translanguaged instruction may be particularly robust for teaching morphology and syntax since it supports students' critical and creative engagement with these linguistic constructs. This evidence can help to move the field of multilingual literacy instruction away from the simple teaching of vocabulary, which too often serves as a proxy for language instruction. From a translanguaging perspective, vocabulary instruction presents fewer linguistic degrees of freedom. That is, we know that we can focus on cognate awareness and perhaps nuances of word meaning from a semantic or vocabulary perspective, as much multilingual literacy research has shown over the last 20 years (e.g., Baker et al., 2014). The data presented in the current study, however, show that a translanguaged focus on morphology and syntax can expand those linguistic degrees of freedom and allow for new opportunities for metalinguistic engagement, conversation, and insight within translanguaged literacy instruction.

Further, translanguaging encompasses a variety of semiotic resources that include language, as well as other modalities such as images and gestures (Li, 2018) that also move us beyond traditional representations of language and literacy. The evidence presented in this paper shows how students used the color-coded texts and illustrations presented on the slides in their analysis of the target linguistic constructs. These multimodal slides served as concrete referents that

aided students in identifying relevant information to discuss. James' analysis of the word "powerful" and its Spanish version—"sin poder"—in excerpt 1 was anchored on the slide that enabled him to point at the differences between these two words. In excerpt 4, it is probable that the color coding used in the presentation about noun person forming suffixes helped Johanna identify that Spanish has gender-related inflections.

Translanguaging Shifts Can Promote Student Agency

The fluid nature of translanguaging pedagogy is related to what García and colleagues (2017) refer to as translanguaging stance and translanguaging shift. A translanguaging stance refers to the belief in the value of the diverse resources that students bring to the classroom. When these beliefs guide practice there is an openness to alter the direction of the planned curriculum and follow students' insights. This openness to students' perspectives is conceptualized as translanguaging shifts. In the lessons examined in this study the teacher engaged in these translanguaging shifts by welcoming students' contributions and linguistic insights.

The evidence presented in this paper suggests that these translanguaging shifts supported students' agency to take the floor and lead the discussion in directions that the teacher had not anticipated. For example, in Excerpt 2 (Figure 3) James felt confident to walk to the computer and make sense of the morphological differences between "powerless" and "sin poder." Excerpt 3 (Figure 4) illustrates how Johanna proposed an additional perspective on noun person forming suffixes by pointing out gender inflections, which the teacher had not considered in the presentation. Roberto and Joseph shifted the direction of the grammaticality judgment activity presented in Excerpt 4 (Figure 5) by using their diverse linguistic resources to judge the sentence.

A translanguaging stance encourages students and teachers to contribute their diverse resources opening a context for distributed expertise where students learn to acknowledge different contributions, use their own and each other's competence, and collaborate in goal-directed activities (Pontier & Gort, 2016). In these translanguaged lessons, the teacher acknowledged students' contributions by welcoming their linguistic insights, and these insights extended the ideas that had been initially proposed in the lesson design. This distributed expertise was also enabled by the students' varied language proficiencies in English and Spanish.

The benefits of integrating students with different language proficiencies have been proposed in other studies that have shown how

students build on each other's' linguistic expertise to enhance their learning (Martín-Beltrán, 2010).

Students in these translanguage lessons had the freedom to use their full linguistic repertoires, and this opened up spaces for them to display their linguistic expertise. James and Valentina, who were starting to learn English, had the opportunity to display their Spanish skills in an academic context. Roberto, Johanna, and Joseph found a context to perform their bilingualism, as well as display their English and Spanish skills. A few studies have reported similar findings, in which translanguage pedagogy supported the development of identities of competence (Cummins, 2009; Durán & Palmer, 2014; Manyak, 2004; Sayer, 2013). However, more translinguistic research should explore the intersections between language learning and identity expression and development among bilingual students.

Linguistic Analysis and Translanguage are Complementary

While the data here are constrained, we suggest they show evidence that students' understanding of language in these lessons was expanded because they were stimulated to think between and beyond languages (García & Li, 2014). Along with others, this study suggests that the role of students' prior linguistic knowledge in supporting new linguistic knowledge are heightened if they receive bilingual instruction (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011; Cummins, 2009; Hopewell, 2011), and, that being able to use their full linguistic repertoires gives rise to deep linguistic analyses.

The interactions observed in these lessons convey how the use of Spanish stimulated students to use their full linguistic repertoire as a thinking tool (Cummins, 2009). As illustrated in Excerpts 1, 2, and 3, students in these lessons typically used Spanish to discuss English language structures, something that was not possible in their SEI classroom. Other studies have also shown how flexible language use prompts students to turn language into an object of analysis and use Spanish as a mediation tool to analyze English (Martín-Beltrán, 2010). Using Spanish as a mediation tool may have enabled students to detach English from its content, and think about it as an object that could be analyzed and manipulated. This may enhance students' sense of agency and control over their new language as reflected in the distributed expertise discussed above. These different affordances arguably supported students' metalinguistic awareness since they simultaneously experienced their named languages in a meaningful learning context, thus having more referents to think abstractly about language (Kuo & Anderson, 2010).

CONCLUSION

To continue pursuing the shift from monolingual to multilingual ideologies in the instruction of bilingual students, it is necessary to increase research on the design of translanguaged curricula. In order to expand our thinking about teaching English to speakers of other languages, we must more consciously recognize and explore the bi- and multilingualism of the students who are being taught English and position them as experts with valuable linguistic insights to share that extend beyond a single named language. This study shows evidence of how translanguaged instruction can support students' active engagement in the learning process, which can only help to expand TESOL teaching and research.

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