TESOL VOICES

INSIDER ACCOUNTS OF CLASSROOM LIFE

SECONDARY EDUCATION

EDITORS, **MARIA DANTAS-WHITNEY** AND **SARAH RILLING**

SERIES EDITOR, **TIM STEWART**

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Series Editor's Preface

The *TESOL Voices* series aims to fill the need for expanding practical knowledge through participant research in the field. Each volume showcases the voices of students and teachers engaged in participant inquiry about language education. These inquiries of participants in various TESOL learning environments are told as insider accounts of discovery, challenge, change, and growth.

What constitutes TESOL classroom life and who is best positioned to research this unique ecology? Traditionally, there has been a hierarchy of credibility in TESOL encouraging the production of knowledge by credentialed "experts" in higher education who offer TESOL practitioners outsider understandings about teaching. In contrast, the *TESOL Voices* series presents insider accounts from students and teachers who are theorizing the practices of both learning and teaching for themselves. In other words, this series positions practice ahead of theory for understanding the complex phenomena of language teaching and learning. In short, the *TESOL Voices* series seeks to elevate the value of localized learning through classroom research.

In this unique series, readers will discover relevant strands of theory extending from accounts of practice. The philosophical point of departure for the series is that enduring theory in TESOL is most likely to surface from participant inquiry that happens among the clutter of classroom desks and chairs. As participants tell their stories, reflective questions and implications for language teaching emerge that illustrate the practical theory practitioners use to make decisions as they experience classroom life.

The *TESOL Voices* series attempts to give readers a view from the classroom floor on the appropriateness of current policy, practice, and theory in language education. While the accounts in these books are personal reflections colored by particular contexts, teachers are likely to find parallels with their own situation. So as you read, listen carefully to discover what the murmurs, echoes, articulation, singing, humming, silence, cries, laughter, and voices that flow from each of the six volumes might teach you.

Insider Accounts From Secondary Education

This volume showcases narrative inquiry in secondary school contexts. The editors have organized the voices of secondary teachers and students into five sections. In the first, **Language and Content Learning**, we hear the voices of student refugees developing financial literacy, students in Singapore learning geography through English, and student perspectives on a project-based approach to integrating content and language. The second section has two chapters about **Learning Through Projects, Tasks, and Strategies**. The first chapter takes us into a Swiss classroom filled with sounds of music and protest, and the second allows us to look into Indonesian classrooms where students develop reading skill through self-questioning techniques.

The next section, **Multimodal Language Learning**, contains three chapters that feature students negotiating projects collaboratively with a variety of media. The fourth section, **Language and Service Learning**, contains chapters about service learning in high schools and a preservice TESOL methods course.

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In the final section, **Teacher and Student Voices in the Learning Process**, we listen to Brazilian students and teachers sharing their impressions of language education in the public schools, learn how English teachers in Turkey use L1, and explore the experience of *flow* in coteaching. The volume concludes with a comprehensive look at the place of narrative inquiry in the TESOL field.

Tim Stewart, Kyoto University

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Introduction: Inquiry Through Participants' Voices From Secondary Classrooms

MARIA DANTAS-WHITNEY AND SARAH RILLING

Personal stories can help us understand the complexities and nuances of particular learning contexts through the perspectives of the different actors involved. The lived experiences and perceptions of learners, teachers, family members, and school leaders all inform classroom practice and educational policy. By sharing our stories, we can explore teaching-learning relationships, reflect on common challenges, develop context-appropriate strategies for our local communities of learners, and gain a deeper understanding of the impact of educational policy across social and political boundaries. Our voices and our stories are important tools to derive meaning from school situations, develop robust understandings of local realities, and develop solutions that can be adapted and applied across classroom contexts around the world.

This volume adds to the growing tradition of inquiry through participants' voices and narratives in the field of TESOL. Contributing authors write about secondary classrooms representing diverse school settings in North and South America, Europe, and Asia. Language, content, social and academic skills, teacher expertise, and community engagement are recurrent themes throughout the volume. The voices showcased in each chapter reflect everyday events and actions in secondary classrooms where English is taught as a second or additional language (e.g., the United States and Canada), where English has an official status (e.g., Singapore), and where English is taught as a foreign or additional language (e.g., Brazil, Turkey, Indonesia, and Switzerland). We define secondary school-aged learners as ranging from the fifth year of school post kindergarten (about age 11) to the twelfth grade (about age 18).

In their early years of learning, many of these students are emergent bilinguals at the beginning levels of language acquisition and socialization, but as they progress through schooling, they develop into sophisticated oral and written English language users, prepared for high school graduation, college entrance, workforce access, or international baccalaureate requirements. Consideration of age and development of learners as well as locally driven practices, community needs, and educational policies and standards, are at the forefront of each chapter. The volume is divided into five sections, each representing a major theme.

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Section 1: Language and Content Learning

The integration of English language and content instruction affords secondary learners the possibility to advance their studies in the academic disciplines, for example, learning the specific registers of the physical and social sciences, as well as meeting general educational and social needs, such as developing literacy in different genres and modalities.

Sharon Newmaster, **Ann Woomert**, and **M. Kristiina Montero** demonstrate a successful project integrating math, social studies, and business content in teaching financial and academic literacy to adolescent refugees in Ontario, Canada.

Susan L. Schwartz and her students **Kasia Przybylska**, **Chihiro Shimomoto**, and **Julio Moya** showcase two social studies and language arts projects for English learners in Massachusetts, intertwining language support with content learning.

Caroline Ho, **Natasha Rappa**, **Yuna Bong, Yvonne Chin**, and **Linda Ng** present a series of language frameworks that learners can use in interpreting and representing visual data in geography, such as reading and writing about climographs. They walk us through teacher and learner inquiry in Singapore by using these frameworks for content learning.

Section 2: Learning Through Projects, Tasks, and Strategies

Engaging language learners in collaborative tasks and open-ended projects promotes critical thinking and reflection. Working on focused strategies that target specific language skills fosters self-confidence and autonomy in the learning process. These skills and traits are essential for meeting the complex demands of secondary classrooms.

Holli Schauber and **Jayne Brady** engaged learners with protest genres combining speeches and music for literacy and oral language skills development in a high school in Switzerland. The authors also made use of a portfolio assessment system to enhance student learning and increase motivation.

Dyah Sunggingwati and **Hoa Thi Mai Nguyen** demonstrate how self-questioning strategies can increase engagement and improve reading skills in English in secondary classrooms in Indonesia. By showcasing students' voices, the authors explain that the benefits of self-questioning go beyond particular reading lessons, because students develop critical thinking skills that can be applied to other aspects of learning.

Section 3: Multimodal Language Learning

Multimodal learning combines the linguistic modality with various other means of communication, such as sounds, photos, drawings, videos, and gestures and other physical expressions, often using digital interactive tools. The integration of multiple communicative modes can provide secondary language learners with important resources for language and content learning, as well as boost their motivation and engagement.

Youngjoo Yi, **Chin-chiang Kao**, and **Joohoon Kang**'s inquiry takes place in a community-based digital literacy project for youth, where learners and teachers alike developed their technology and communication skills.

Blaine E. Smith and **Luciana C. de Oliveira** launched an inquiry into multimodal digital literacy learning in a high school English language arts class in a large urban area of the United States, and they found that students learned valuable content and literacy skills as well as technical and interpersonal communication skills.

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Anne Marie Dutcher Foltz recounts how students in a rural setting in the United States expanded a high school curriculum framed by rigid requirements for proficient writing by expressing their individuality and creativity through a digital identity text project that involved three genres of writing: poetry, argumentative essays, and expository essays.

Section 4: Language and Service Learning

Service learning has become an effective approach for language teaching, particularly in secondary settings. Service-learning experiences occur in authentic communicative environments that foster close relationships and promote collaborative reflection. These experiences often have a very meaningful and profound impact on all participants.

Barbara Page and **Toshiko Maurizio** organized a Saturday newcomer program in Oregon, where service-learning students from a local high school support middle schoolers with their school literacy projects. Learning was reciprocated, because while the high school service-learning students gained teaching and multicultural skills, the middle school learners gained confidence with interactional skills and academic literacy.

Michaela Colombo, **Sarah Bouchard**, and **Sebastian Marte** showcase the collaborative reflections of a teacher-educator, an in-service teacher, and a language learner while engaging in a service-learning experience in a secondary science classroom in Massachusetts.

Section 5: Teacher and Student Voices in the Learning Process

Many outside forces affect the local contexts of secondary language classrooms, such as national standardized tests, ideologies surrounding language teaching methods, and requirements for teacher education programs. Exploring teachers' and learners' perspectives related to micro-level classroom practices and macro-level educational policies can maximize our potential for professional development and growth.

Juliana Jandre and **Vander Viana** inquired into students' and teachers' perceptions of English as a foreign language instruction in public schools in Brazil, and found that there is a gap in their beliefs regarding desirable pedagogical practices. The authors urge students and teachers to openly discuss goals and expectations regarding English language instruction so that learning can be maximized in the classroom.

Yasemin Kırkgöz investigated the use of students' home language in second-language instruction in Turkey to demonstrate the functional patterning of first-language use by teachers. The amount of home language to use in second- or additional language classrooms is often prescribed in written or unwritten teacher policies and school cultures. This chapter opens the discussion of the role of the home language in supporting second and additional language literacies.

Andrea Honigsfeld and **Maria G. Dove** describe the qualities of optimal collaborations between English as a Second or Other Language (ESOL) and core content teachers. In their coteaching arrangements, these teachers achieve 'flow' in their partnerships using high levels of pedagogical and interpersonal skills, ongoing training, and mutual support.

In their concluding chapter, **Sarah Rilling** and **Maria Dantas-Whitney** outline a framework of narrative inquiry in TESOL built upon reflective teaching practices, systematic inquiry, and professional collaborations. They highlight themes developed in the volume, such as student and teacher identity development, literacy and numeracy learning, academic skills acquisition, advocacy, and agency. They point to how these threads represent possibilities for further investigations and collaborations.

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Expanding Our Professional Understanding

Like many of our colleagues in TESOL, we (the editors of this volume) have found ourselves occupying multiple roles and positions in different classrooms around the world: as language learners, language teachers, parents of language learners, teacher-educators, administrators, and sometimes policy advisors. We add to our understanding of teaching in additional and international language contexts with each class we teach or school we visit; every formal or informal discussion with a parent; our chats with administrators; and all of the school, community or professional meetings we attend. While teacher preparation programs provide a background in theory, a glimpse into classroom practices, and an opportunity to build professional skills, it is the sharing of ideas that builds the craft of teaching over time. Through sharing our narratives, we are able to critically examine our roles in and out of our local classrooms so we can constantly improve our practices. It is our hope that this book will add to our collective repertoire of voices in TESOL to accomplish just that.

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SECTION 1: LANGUAGE AND CONTENT LEARNING

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CHAPTER 1

A Language Experience Approach to Developing Print and Financial Literacy With Adolescent Refugees

SHARON NEWMASTER, ANN WOOMERT, AND M. KRISTIINA MONTERO

> “That’s a lot of money! Maybe I am wasting too much money going out for lunch. I could be using that money for something else. I could buy something for my mom, new shoes for me, or I could save it up.”
>
> *Salma, age 13, Student enrolled in an English Literacy Development Program in Ontario, Canada*

Financial literacy is defined as “having the knowledge and skills needed to make responsible economic and financial decisions with competence and confidence” (Ontario Ministry of Education Working Group on Financial Literacy, 2015). Youth have access to financial services (e.g., pocket money, mobile phones, bank accounts, and/or credit cards) at increasingly younger ages, and they will likely need to bear greater financial risks in adulthood than their parents (OECD, 2014). Young adults are expected to manage their own financial resources as soon as they start earning money, but without any formal training, many find themselves ill prepared and end up making poor financial decisions. Teaching financial literacy to young people seems to be the panacea for the global “personal economic crisis” (Alsemgeest, 2015), yet the lack of easily accessible, high quality resources and overloaded curricula impede the successful integration of financial education in schools (OECD, 2014).

In our respective roles as an English as a Second Language (ESL) and English Literacy Development (ELD) consultant (first author Sharon), K–8 ESL/ELD instructional leader (second author Ann), and university-based educator and researcher (third author Kristiina), we strive to minimize barriers that refugee newcomers may confront in their resettlement country. We teach financial literacy to low-literacy adolescent refugees who have experienced significant gaps in their formal schooling due to mass violence in their native countries. With more than 10 years of experience working with this population of students, we have witnessed how social, cultural, economic, and linguistic complexities impact students’ access to and development of English language and print literacy.

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One barrier is limited access to high-quality, age- and cognitively appropriate, and culturally relevant print resources (Montero, Newmaster, & Ledger, 2014). In this chapter, we demonstrate how language experience approach methods, enhanced with digital technologies (e.g., digital images, photographs, and power point), can be used to create meaningful opportunities to simultaneously understand financial literacy and engage with print literacy development. We describe how teachers might use a series of open-access financial literacy texts titled *Making Good Choices* (Newmaster et al., 2014) to help students create their own multimodal financial literacy texts.

An Emergent Literacy Approach for Teaching Print Literacy

When resettled, refugees are quickly introduced into public schools, where teachers have the greatest potential to lead them toward social and academic success and provide them with safe spaces designed for learning. Displaced children and youth often face many years without access to the foundations of formal education—literacy and numeracy. At greatest risk are refugee youth who resettle in adolescence with little or no dominant-language literacy abilities. Collier (1989) documented that it may take seven to 10 years, or more, for students with little or no schooling in their dominant language to come close to achieving second-language proficiency and academic achievement at levels close to their age-related peers. Time normally works against this vulnerable group because economic pressures weigh heavily on them to get jobs to support themselves and family members. These pressures contribute to early school attrition and prevent students from obtaining their high school diploma (Gunderson, 2007; Miller & Windle, 2010; Naidoo, 2012).

Many secondary school ESL and content specialty teachers have not had the professional training to address the emergent literacy demands of these students. This is because ESL pedagogy, particularly at the secondary level, generally relies on dominant-language literacy abilities, or the transfer of linguistic and conceptual knowledge from the dominant to the target language. In the case of low-literacy adolescent refugees, however, these dominant-language literacy skills are absent or far from being age appropriate. In order to address their needs effectively, therefore, low-literacy adolescents must be immersed in reading programs that operate from an emergent literacy perspective (Montero, Newmaster, & Ledger, 2014; Woods, 2009). Emergent literacy assumes that the precursory skills, sources of knowledge, and aptitude for reading and writing (e.g., phonological awareness, letter knowledge, language, and conceptual knowledge) can be taught within the context of print literacy development if absent or underdeveloped.

To respond to the emergent print literacy needs of low-literacy adolescent refugees coming to Canada, the Ontario Ministry of Education created a policy to support ELD programs (Ontario Ministry of Education, 2007), which are intended for students whose access to schooling has been inconsistent, disrupted, or completely unavailable. ELD programs, therefore, aim to combine language learning with accelerated literacy and numeracy development and to support students' successful transition to mainstream secondary school programs. A contributing factor to the success of ELD programs is the professional development in emergent literacy instructional practices for teachers combined with a rich collection of teaching resources. To respond to the dearth of appropriate resources, we have used language experience approach (LEA) methods to create texts for classroom use. These materials can also be used as mentor texts to help students construct their own texts, which can then be used for guided reading, an early literacy instructional method focused on print literacy development.

LEA has been a popular early literacy method since at least the 1970s and is celebrated as a "natural" way to bridge the gap between an individual's own language competencies and written language (Stahl & Miller, 1989). It combines listening, speaking, reading, and writing, and draws

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on students' life experiences to develop relevant and interesting instructional materials. It has been described as follows: "What I can think about, I can say. What I can say, I can write (or someone can write for me). I can read what I have written. I can read what others have written for me to read" (Van Allen, 1999, p. 41). LEA texts allow for more experienced writers, such as teachers, educational assistants, peer tutors, community volunteers, or content specialists, to engage with students in the co-construction of a personally meaningful written text. LEA provides opportunities for students to build vocabulary and spelling proficiency, develop reading comprehension, and make connections between reading and writing.

Financial Literacy Education

The Financial Literacy Education Initiative was established in Ontario, Canada, to help students in grades 4 through 12 learn basic financial skills by building their understanding of personal finances, the local and global economy, and the results of their choices as consumers. Financial literacy is integrated into existing courses and curriculum (e.g., mathematics, social studies, and business studies).

The Ontario Ministry of Education provided funding to various provincial subject and division associations to develop resources that explicitly connected financial literacy knowledge and skills to curricular subjects. The ESL/ELD Resource Group of Ontario (ERGO) created curricular resources to support the print and financial literacy skills of low-literacy adolescent refugee youth. The *Making Good Choices* books were written at levels commensurate with their early reading instructional levels, ranging from preprimer to grades 4 or 5. They address topics such as learning about the value of money, saving money, applying for a job, fundraising, using a bank card, understanding sales tax, opening a bank account, paying fines, and volunteering.

While authored by teachers and curriculum consultants, the books were inspired by language experience approach texts that had been previously created with students. Each text includes information related to print literacy (e.g., suggested reading level, word count and vocabulary, reinforcing skills, and book introduction considerations) and information related to mathematics and financial literacy (e.g., financial skills, building financial knowledge, and calculating percentage). Additionally, books are accompanied by a guided reading plan (including reading goals and instructional ideas to do before, during, and after reading) and a three-part mathematics lesson (including learning goals and outcomes, grade level, context and rationale, related topics, additional references, and a lesson sequence). All resources are freely available on the ERGO website (see http://www.ergo-on.ca/#!making-good-choices/c1ynv).

Next, we explore how a teacher worked with students to create financial literacy texts and the impact that coauthoring experience had on both the teacher and students.

A Teacher and a Student Co-Construct Financial Literacy Texts

Coauthor Ann wanted to find ways to help teachers maximize their use of the *Making Good Choices* books with students in ELD programs and worked with middle school (grades 6 to 8) ESL teachers and students to explore the process. To illustrate possible steps in the process, Ann helped Salma (her real name is used with permission) create a financial literacy text of her own. While Ann (and the classroom teacher) worked with Salma and her peers in a small group, other students in the classroom were engaged in literacy-related tasks such as independent writing, reading, or listening center activities.

To begin, Ann printed hard copies of some of the books in the *Making Good Choices* series and showed them to the students, emphasizing that each book focused on making good choices. Ann created a chart and had students record the book titles and the types of choices being made.

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Together, Ann and the students deconstructed a few of the storylines by focusing on characters, settings, choices, and the authors' messages.

Salma, a seventh-grade student, had resettled to Ontario 16 months earlier and was placed in an ELD program. Her verbal English language abilities were developing quickly, while her English reading skills were equivalent to those of an end-of-year first grader. Salma gravitated toward the book entitled *The Right Shoes,* identifying with the image on the front cover and the topic of the book. Ann engaged Salma in a conversation about creating her own *Making Good Choices* text:

Ann: Salma, do you ever use money?
Salma: Yes, I buy lunch almost every day. I go out and buy lunch.
Ann: Would you like to write a story about buying lunch?
Salma: Yes
Ann: What would be the choice in your story?
Salma: If I should bring a lunch to school or go out for lunch.
Ann: Do you think this would be a story that other students would like to read?
Salma: Yes, because many of my friends like to go out and buy lunch.

Together, Ann and Salma gave voice to a simple story diagram sketch outlining the setting (a sandwich shop), the time (lunch time), and some key questions to be answered in the book. Although Salma didn't have a clear idea how the story would end, Ann decided to start constructing the story using an online storybook template, with space to record Salma's text on the left side of the book and space to include an image (e.g., a digital photograph taken by the student or found in an online source) on the right side of the book. The template specifically oriented the text on the left side of the book and the image on the right side to emphasize left to right print directionality.

Ann began the story by providing Salma with the following writing prompt: "My school is close to many places to eat. I like to go out at lunch time and buy my lunch." Salma read what Ann had written, giving voice to her words. Prompted with key questions, Salma then dictated the following story while Ann scribed and offered oral and textual support such as introducing new vocabulary words and explaining decisions related to writing conventions. Through this process, Salma's voice became written text for reading and publishing.

> "Sometimes I go to a sandwich shop for lunch. I buy a sandwich, chips, and a drink. Usually I spend $7.50. Sometimes I go to the pizza shop. I buy two slices of cheese pizza, fries, and a drink. That costs $5.00. I always go home for lunch on Wednesdays."

To further financial literacy, Ann introduced the concept of charts, where together they recorded how much money Salma spent going out for lunch during a typical week (see Figure 1). The chart allowed Ann to reinforce mathematics skills and concepts such as lining up numbers with decimals in columns for addition, adding decimals where appropriate, and writing money values using correct units.

To write about how much money Salma spent on lunch in a typical week, Ann and Salma continued to cocreate texts using language experience approach principles. Ann suggested that the chart might be titled "A typical week," and then she generated the writing prompt, "One day, I decided to think about how much I spend each week." In order to encourage Salma to talk about her general spending habits, Ann asked Salma to guess about how much she spent on lunch in a typical week and introduced the verb "to estimate." Salma then said, "I estimate I spend about $25.00 each week."

Ann asked Salma to estimate how much she spent on lunch each month and each year. To do the calculation, Salma wrote $25.00 four times in a column and added the numbers. Ann then guided her to multiply $25.00 by four to introduce multiplication. This was a new mathematical connection and application for Salma (see Figure 2).

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A Typical Week

Days	Place	Spend
M	Gino's	$ 5.00
T	Gino's	$ 5.00
W	Home	
Th	Subway	$ 7.50
F	Subway	$ 7.50
		Total $ 25.00

Figure 1. "Money spent on lunch" chart.

When Salma figured out the answer, $100.00, she exclaimed, "That's a lot of money! Maybe I am wasting too much money! I could use that money for something else. I could buy something for my mom, new shoes for me, or I could save it up." As Salma considered the amount of money she spent on lunch, she decided that she would go out for lunch only on Mondays and Fridays. Following the traditions of LEA, Ann scribed Salma's spoken words that formed the basis of her written financial literacy text.

How I Spend for lunch in one month!

$ 25.00
25.00
25.00
25.00
$ 100.00

$ 25
× 4
$ 100

Figure 2. Salma's calculations of her spending.

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The Co-Constructed Writing Experience: Teacher and Student Learning Together

The process of co-constructing and conarrating a text generated multiple learning opportunities for both Ann and Salma. The writing event, which occurred over four one-hour planning and writing sessions, contributed to Salma's knowledge of financial vocabulary (e.g., to estimate, to decide, to cost, to waste, to advise), writing conventions (e.g., use of quotations or commas in a series), text features (e.g., use of bolded words throughout the text and including a glossary at the end of the book), and cross-curricular (e.g., math and literacy) learning strategies (e.g., reading charts and graphs). Furthermore, the writing event promoted critical thinking skills with immediate applications to the student's life. To continue to support ownership and identity construction, we recommend including an author biography at the end of each book. From a financial literacy stance, Salma had to think carefully about how to make the best use of her disposable income and make decisions about how to proceed in the future. At the end of the writing event, she concluded: "If you spend less money now, you will have more money for important things in the future."

From a multimodal perspective, she had to make decisions about which images would best represent the text she had co-constructed with the teacher. In this example, Ann discussed the kind of images students might use to support their text. Next, she led a small group of students on a community digital photo shoot to take photos for their personal financial literacy book. Salma wanted to include a photo of her mother in the book to illustrate her mother telling Salma that she was smart to save money. Salma asked a friend to pose as her mother, and they staged a photo to represent Salma and her mother having a conversation. The experience demonstrated how the students actively engaged in the design of multimodal identity texts (Cummins & Early, 2011) that focused on personally relevant meaning-making with image, as well as text.

From Ann's perspective, the collaborative writing experience confirmed that when working with students who have experienced significant gaps in their formal education, the teacher must begin with students' developmental strengths and needs, and through instruction the teacher can identify and fill the gaps. The cocreation and covoicing literacy development process inherent in LEA provided Ann with opportunities to probe and stretch the linguistic and conceptual knowledge of the students. When reflecting on the project with other educators, Ann emphasized:

> Part of the success of LEA can be attributed to the special opportunity of working in a small group or one-on-one with a student. I know, from my own experience, that we often find it difficult to create such opportunities in a whole-class situation. While the teacher works with an individual or small group, other students must work productively on their own for a period of time. Managing small group instruction may be challenging with students with limited or interrupted prior schooling experiences because these students are often in the early stages of learning to navigate academic type work on their own. I encourage teachers not to be deterred, however, since the benefits are invaluable. The time with Salma revealed much about her current understandings and interests and allowed me to uniquely build on what she brought to her learning. For example, I could address specific knowledge and/or skill gaps and through instruction, take her to the next stage of her literacy development.

The coauthoring experience allowed Ann to intimately understand the value of using students' current linguistic and conceptual knowledge in the creation and integration of new knowledge—an important part of the teaching-learning continuum that helps validate and empower students' learning.

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Conclusion

Language experience approach texts serve as important pedagogical tools, particularly for adolescents who have significant gaps in their education and who do not have age-commensurate literacy abilities in their dominant language. In this chapter, we demonstrated how LEA texts on financial literacy were effectively used to support content knowledge alongside print literacy development and as a way to validate and support adolescent identity development. When LEA texts are created and added to a collection of classroom reading materials, they can help address the dearth of age-appropriate, culturally responsive, and developmentally appropriate reading materials available for students with limited or interrupted formal education. These texts can then be used in early reading instructional activities such as guided reading, independent reading, and repeated reading of familiar text that respond to students' early literacy needs. LEA texts can also respond to students' interest levels and can speak to their adolescent sociocultural identities. The texts help personalize education so that the students see themselves not only represented in the educational materials but also in the educational process as a producer and consumer of knowledge.

While the educational gaps caused by displacement can begin to be addressed through LEA texts, the strength of the instruction is not limited to content. For example, upon publication of her book, Salma expressed deep pride in her work, knowing she had contributed her voice to a new text for the class's growing collection. She said: "I know that other students will be reading my story like I read the *Making Good Choices* stories. I want readers of my story to think carefully about how they might spend their money." Writing a book about financial literacy had a deep impact on Salma's sense of self as a producer and consumer of knowledge, and as an active agent in her own economic future.

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CHAPTER 2

Student Endorsements of Content-Based English as a Second Language

SUSAN L. SCHWARTZ, WITH JULIO MOYA,
KASIA PRZYBYLSKA, AND CHIHIRO SHIMOMOTO

In my second year as an English as a Second Language (ESL) teacher at a public school in Massachusetts, I taught social studies to my English language learners (ELLs) in the sixth grade, in addition to teaching other ESL classes. Initially, I had no idea how to approach this task, but I gradually found a balance between content and language instruction.

When I arrived in 1998, the K–8 school where I taught had just been redistricted to create a more diverse student body. I was the first and only ESL teacher at the school for nine years, and my classes were organized on a pull-out basis, where I saw students by grade level. Middle school students came to me for ESL support when their classmates had English language arts or social studies. My students' English ranged from beginner to advanced levels, mostly needing additional support with writing.

Two projects I designed for my sixth-grade English language learners show how teaching academic content can simultaneously develop students' language skills and help them keep up academically with their native-English-speaking classmates.

Turning First to Theory

"Simply put, for English learners to have access to core content, they need academic language and literacy skills" (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2013, p. 9). Frequently in ESL classes, students learn *about* the language and the rules and patterns for using English, but the situations in which they practice the language are contrived. Content-based ESL is an approach that combines the teaching of academic content with the teaching of English. It gives students an authentic reason for developing their language skills because they need to improve their language proficiency to comprehend the academic material taught in schools.

Echevarria, Vogt, and Short (2013) explained that, "In general, content-based ESL/ELD teachers seek to develop the students' English language proficiency by incorporating information from the subject areas that students are likely to study . . ." (p. 15). The goal, however, is not to cover all the topics that are taught throughout the curriculum: Instead, it is to select topics and

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use them to help English language learners improve their language skills. If ESL teachers are just teaching what is presented in mainstream classes and incorporating some ESL activities, then they are not really teaching a content-based ESL class.

One benefit of content-based ESL relates to increased motivation. Generally, students are more engaged when they are not merely learning general English, but rather using English to learn grade-appropriate topics (Chamot, 2009). If English language learners can relate what they are doing in their ESL class to what their English-only peers are doing in theirs, they might not feel embarrassed or self-conscious about being in an ESL program. In an online interview, Julio, a former student, provided the following reflections about his sixth-grade class:

> “In this ESL class, I felt like I was learning social studies but when it came to writing papers or projects, that’s when the teacher’s help with English kicked in, which was awesome because we didn’t have to feel different from the rest of the kids in the school.”

Putting Theory Into Practice

I implemented content-based ESL to create projects that integrated varied levels of support as suggested by Echevarria, Vogt, and Short, who point out that: “Levels of support should be differentiated so that students at each level of proficiency are able to understand expectations and be successful in lessons” (2013, pp. 104–105). To make my multilevel classes more manageable, I provided three types of support. First, I provided texts at various reading levels so that all students could comprehend the material. Second, I often had students work cooperatively in pairs and small groups. Third, I taught mini-lessons on reading, grammar, and writing topics that students later practiced independently to develop their language skills.

For my content-based ESL classes, I utilized trade books, as well as books written or adapted for English language learners. Some books were written for elementary students, some for language learners at an intermediate level of proficiency, and some for native English speakers reading at grade level.

Most books included many pictures that aided comprehension. I also introduced websites with varying levels of text difficulty because all my students liked using the Internet. By supplying materials with a wide range of reading levels, I ensured that every student had at least two comprehensible resources for their research. It is crucial that “instruction needs to be as comprehensible as possible” (Linan-Thompson & Vaughn, 2007, p.116).

Cooperative learning in groups composed of students with differing levels of English proficiency encourages peer teaching (Chamot, 2009). I used a variety of mixing techniques in my class. Mixing the groups let students follow along when stronger readers were reading more difficult material. Placing students with similar reading levels in the same group gave them opportunities to read aloud without embarrassment in front of their classmates. Students also worked cooperatively to peer edit their writing. This collaborative process was important because students supported each other during lessons.

As I became more comfortable teaching my content-based ESL classes, I made a concerted effort to communicate with my colleagues teaching social studies and language arts so that I knew the material they were covering and how they were teaching it in their mainstream classes. I did not attempt to keep pace with them, however, because I was also teaching English language skills to my students.

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Classroom Projects and Interactions

The following two projects exemplify how I implemented content-based learning in my ESL classes. After I describe each project, I present reflections of students who were in those classes, along with examples of student work.

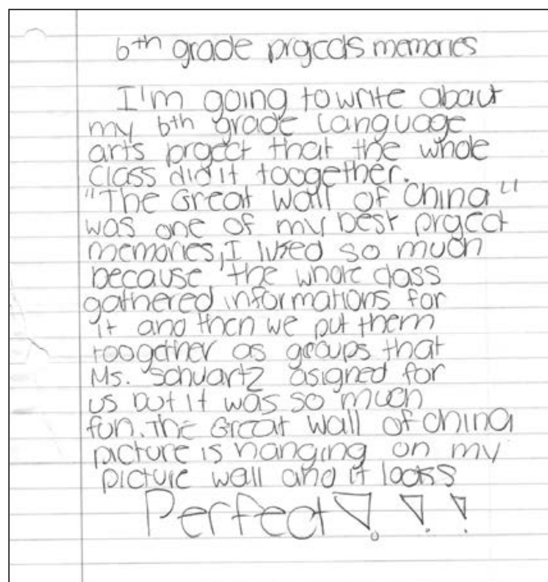
An Authentic Writing Project

"Shortcuts," created by Mr. Jeff Harris, was a Saturday feature in the local newspaper (Harris, 2003) that I used as a teaching aid in my classes. Aimed at upper primary and secondary students, it offered information about science, social studies, and language arts topics. Mr. Harris drew a group of characters who appeared in every "Shortcuts" feature and presented each week's topic through a mix of facts, puzzles, jokes, and illustrations.

I learned that some teachers had collaborated with Mr. Harris on various topics, so I wrote to him and proposed a page about the Great Wall of China. To my great pleasure, he said yes. This project involved doing research and writing about the Great Wall of China before reading a fictional story about Ancient China in the sixth-grade English language arts anthology. For my English language learners, this was an authentic reason for writing and publishing.

My students researched the Great Wall, wrote up their information, shared it with each other, revised it, and jointly wrote several drafts of their "Shortcuts" page (Harris, 2003, p. 17). Their final product was published several months later, and the students were thrilled to see their work in print. (Please go to http://jeffrey-d-harris.com/places/great-wall-of-china to see a version of the page.)

After it was published, I asked the class to write an entry in their writing journals about the project. Below in Figure 1 is what one of the students, Kasia, wrote.



6th grade progects memories

I'm going to write about my 6th grade language arts progect that the whole class did it toogether. "The Great Wall of China" was one of my best progect memories, I liked so much because the whole class gathered informations for it and then we put them toogether as groups that Ms. Schwartz asigned for us but it was so much fun. the Great Wall of China picture is hanging on my picture wall and it looks Perfect!!!

Figure 1. Journal entry by Kasia.

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As a follow up, I recently asked Kasia to describe her time in the class, and she emailed this response:

> “When Ms. Schwartz presented the Great Wall of China project, the goal was to work as a group to create an informative piece for the local newspaper. This forced me to practice speaking out loud—something that at the time was difficult for me due to a fear of saying something unusual or incorrect. . . . The project was effective in keeping my interest as I was able to express my creativity while also reinforcing my cognitive and literary skills.
>
> Ms. Schwartz employed unique approaches to instill confidence and comfortability in her students. . . . This project moved at a comfortable pace which left me feeling at ease and accomplished, unlike my other classes that often felt rushed and chaotic.”

This project motivated the students to develop their reading and writing skills because they knew their work would be published in over 300 newspapers and would be read by 10 to 20 million people (J. Harris, personal communication, April 1, 2003). The students had to understand what they were reading so they could paraphrase it accurately for their notes, and they had to use grammar structures and new vocabulary correctly so their writing was comprehensible. By negotiating meaning through working collaboratively with her classmates who had stronger English language skills, Kasia was able to develop her English proficiency while also learning about the Great Wall of China. Writing for a real audience made this project extremely meaningful for the class.

A Long-Term Ancient History Project

The “Avatar Project” that I designed for my sixth-grade ESL class was inspired by the idea of a computer avatar. Each student created their own superhero who traveled back in time with a sidekick and had adventures in Mesopotamia and Ancient Egypt—two of the ancient civilizations covered in the mainstream social studies curriculum. I had several reasons for creating this months-long project.

First, the sixth graders did not all come to class on the same days. There were only two days when all the language learners were present at the same time. Figuring out how to teach the same content to all the students was therefore challenging. My solution was to design a long-term project on which the students could work at their own pace most of the time and receive whole class instruction from me on the days they had in common.

Second, the reading level of the regular textbook was too difficult for most of my students. In my multilevel classes, a couple of students could comprehend the textbook, but most of them were reading below grade level. I had to find a way to make the content accessible to everyone by using materials with a range of reading levels and visual support.

Third, I wanted to integrate more writing into my lessons because that was the students’ weakest skill. I designed the “Avatar Project” so they would spend a significant amount of time writing about what they learned about the ancient civilizations they studied. To do that, I had to pick which civilizations to include and which to omit. Limiting the content that is taught in order to devote time to English language development is a feature of content-based ESL instruction. In addition, I built English language development into the “Avatar Project” through minilessons on language skills.

Finally, I thought my students would be more interested in the subject of ancient history if I taught it with a modern twist. I knew that if I merely had students read books, answer questions about what they read, and occasionally do activities related to the content, they would have difficulty connecting events that occurred in Mesopotamia and Ancient Egypt to their own lives. Designing a superhero avatar let students creatively include details about their lives while

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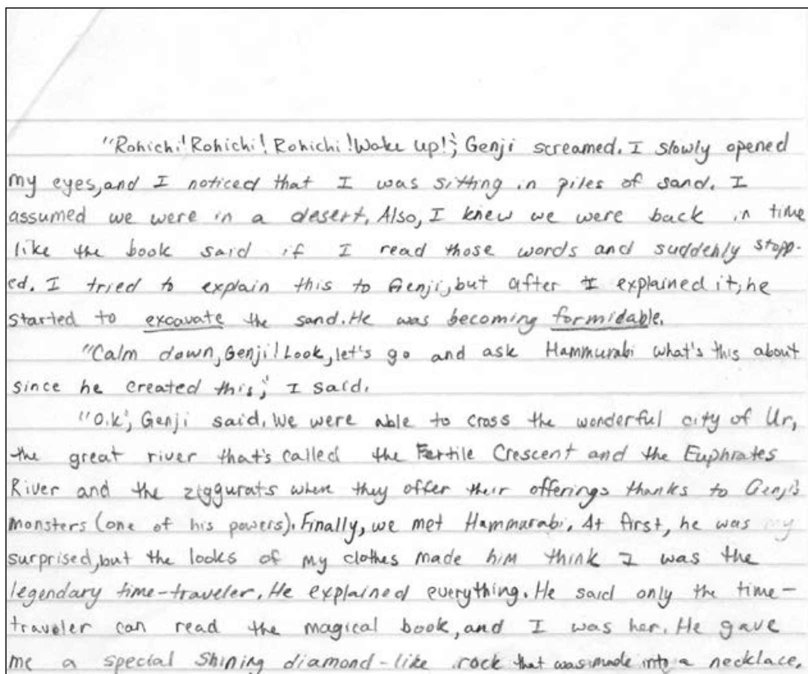
demonstrating what they learned about ancient history in their time travel stories. In other words, students used the content for an authentic communicative purpose, and not just for the sake of acquiring knowledge about the ancient world.

After introducing the project, I taught students how to write a character description. They then created an autobiography of their superhero avatar and drew a picture of it. They also wrote a biography of their sidekick. These characters were incorporated into their stories. All writing was first done individually, then peer edited and revised. I had conferences with each student before they wrote their final copy. Curriculum-related vocabulary was incorporated into the project as well as illustrations, which gave students with lower English proficiency another way to demonstrate their learning. Assessment was both formative and summative, and each piece of writing received a grade based on a rubric I designed and shared with students.

Below is an excerpt from a story set in Mesopotamia written by Chihiro (Figure 2). The underlined words are target vocabulary words. Genji is her sidekick. References to Hammurabi, Ur, the Fertile Crescent, the Euphrates River, and ziggurats show how Chihiro incorporated what she learned about Mesopotamia into her story.

A few months ago, I asked Chihiro for her thoughts about the class, and she emailed this reflection:

> The class was balanced well between social studies and English, but now that I look back, I feel that the class was leaning more towards English. Although we read from the textbook, defined terms, and answered concept questions like a social studies class, those were mostly assigned homework tasks, and the majority of the class time was about peer editing, sharing, and independent work, like an English class. I was able to improve my reading and research abilities, though, through the social studies assignments.


"Rohichi! Rohichi! Rohichi! Wake up!", Genji screamed. I slowly opened my eyes, and I noticed that I was sitting in piles of sand. I assumed we were in a desert. Also, I knew we were back in time like the book said if I read those words and suddenly stopped. I tried to explain this to Genji, but after I explained it, he started to excavate the sand. He was becoming formidable.

"Calm down, Genji! Look, let's go and ask Hammurabi what's this about since he created this", I said.

"O.k", Genji said. We were able to cross the wonderful city of Ur, the great river that's called the Fertile Crescent and the Euphrates River and the ziggurats where they offer their offerings thanks to Genji's monsters (one of his powers). Finally, we met Hammurabi. At first, he was surprised, but the looks of my clothes made him think I was the legendary time-traveler. He explained everything. He said only the time-traveler can read the magical book, and I was her. He gave me a special shining diamond-like rock that was made into a necklace.

Figure 2. Excerpt from Chihiro's Mesopotamia story.

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> I was in ESL since kindergarten, but what is most memorable about my ESL time is the Avatar Project. What I liked about it was how after we made our avatars, Ms. Schwartz instructed us to choose one of our classmate's avatars and include it in our own stories as our sidekick. That, I felt, improved my speaking since I had to go out of my comfort zone to ask whomever I chose as my avatar's sidekick for more information about their avatar's personality. What I found difficult, but which improved my vocabulary and writing skills, was trying to apply the correct grammar and making the story concise. It also made me consider the audience. Including new vocabulary was difficult but writing historical fiction gave me practice in applying those unfamiliar words and trying to be creative with my writing and sentence structure. ”

Chihiro's response refers to some of the attributes of content-based ESL: a combination of language and content that was taught in the class, working with other students to develop writing skills, and engaging with the work to achieve success.

Reflections on the Course

When designing a content-based ESL course, many factors must be considered, such as scheduling constraints, students' English language proficiency and academic needs, instructional resources available, and teacher expertise with different academic subjects. I consulted with my English language arts and social studies colleagues periodically and also used the Massachusetts standards for English language arts and social studies to select content topics of instruction. In addition, I utilized the state's ESL framework to select appropriate English language development skills to target for each lesson.

I found it easier to first select the content area topics when designing my courses and then incorporate English language development into my lessons because the content facts remained the same, but the language taught varied from year to year based on my students' needs. Creating projects that lasted longer than one week required my students to write in depth about specific content areas and work extensively with the language.

When I began teaching my ESL social studies courses, they were heavily weighted towards content. As I gained experience and learned more about content-based ESL, I increased the amount of language instruction until I reached the point where I felt I was teaching about an equal amount of social studies content and English language development. I focused on the content as a medium for providing instruction in English language skills. Having the flexibility to select appropriate content allows ESL instructors to cover academic topics in more depth for better comprehension. Because I included the social studies content in the English language development lessons, the students were more engaged, and, as a result, they were more motivated and eager to do well in their ESL classes.

Content-based ESL offers teachers a way to design classes in which students with a range of language proficiency levels can participate. In the course I describe in this chapter, I implemented long-term projects that utilized a variety of print and online resources at different reading levels. I grouped students according to their language proficiency levels to write and peer edit their work as well. When my students had to communicate with each other to write about social studies content, they simultaneously developed their English language proficiency and their academic reading, writing, vocabulary, speaking, and listening skills. I found that this approach made my multilevel classes much easier to teach.

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I end this chapter with a final reflection from Julio, a student in this class.

> “My memory about this class was it was very helpful. We did things that no other class did but with a twist. We did it in a way that it would stay in our minds. At that time, I didn’t like to read because I wasn’t any good at it. But the class gave me a big boost in my confidence level—that I could do it and it’s not hard. This was a good class that helped turn everything around for me.”

I couldn’t ask for a better endorsement of the benefits of content-based ESL.

Susan L. Schwartz is a former ESL teacher at a public school in Methuen, Massachusetts.

Julio Moya, Kasia Przybylska, and Chihiro Shimomoto are Susan’s former students.

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CHAPTER 3

Supporting Geography Students in Interpreting Visual Data in English

CAROLINE HO, NATASHA RAPPA, YUNA BONG, YVONNE CHIN, AND LINDA NG

Geography is a visual discipline (Behnke, 2014). The "creation and interpretation of visual images has always been important . . . and is what makes geography unique" (Thornes, 2004, p. 793). Analysing, interpreting, decoding, and making sense of visual input are critical competencies in geography, realised through active construction and interaction using various resources in relation to the material world as we know it (Roberts, 2013). This chapter addresses grade 9 (14- and 15-year-old) Singapore students' developing awareness of text structures and language features for effective meaning-making with geographical visual data. This skill is a key aspect in using language in content-area instruction (Chadwick, 2012) where language instruction helps English language learners (ELLs) understand content.

The Singapore Ministry of Education (MOE) Curriculum Planning and Development Division (CPDD) recognizes key geographical concepts such as space, place, scale, and interdependence, among others, that provide "a means for describing physical and human phenomena . . . and interpreting the complex patterns and interactions affecting Earth and its people" (CPDD, 2013, p. 7). Among the skills for interpreting and evaluating geographical data specified in the MOE syllabus are the following:

- comprehend and extract relevant information from geographical data (numerical, diagrammatic, pictorial, and graphical forms);
- use and apply geographical knowledge and understanding to interpret geographical data in graphs, maps, photographs, sketches, tables, and texts or quotes; and
- recognize patterns in geographical data and deduce relationships (CPDD, 2014, p. 69).

Our work draws on a Geography Literacy Guide (GLG) developed by the English Language Institute of Singapore (ELIS, 2013). The GLG is a strategic initiative aimed at developing teachers' abilities to communicate subject knowledge more clearly and effectively using English. In Singapore, English mastery is vital given that it is regarded as a lingua franca of international business, science, and technology (MOE, 2010), despite the fact that multiple languages are spoken in

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Singaporean homes. The GLG seeks to help teachers more effectively guide and support students to achieve the desired learning outcomes of developing internationally acceptable English for effective communication in all subjects (MOE, 2010).

Theoretical Underpinnings

Tools and signs including language, diagrams, maps, and mechanical drawings are means that facilitate knowledge co-construction. Conceptualising meaning-making through the multiliteracies perspective acknowledges the meaningful integration of resources and materials "where various modes interplay with each other to make meaning" (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2001, p. 2).

Teachers support students through appropriate scaffolding. Scaffolded support enables students to accomplish something independently that they would not have been able to accomplish on their own (Michell & Sharpe, 2005). The challenge for English language learners in the subject areas is to simultaneously navigate "through various practices and texts of the disciplines" (Moje, 2008, p. 102). By having students examine "relatively specialized patterns of language use, they may be better equipped to deal with the learning demands" (Shanahan & Shanahan, 2012, p. 16) of particular subjects.

Besides literacy and numeracy, geography lessons emphasize the development of visual skills geographers use to collect, present, and interpret data, with spatial cognition being central. Essential skills include: reading maps; interpreting and making graphs, sketches and diagrams; and annotating maps, photographs, and drawings (Lambert & Balderstone, 2010). Students build up skills in noticing, identifying, responding, connecting, and re-contextualizing information in the multimodal environment, and they need to establish links and coherent flows across the multimodal configuration of text and data from visual images in maps and graphs. Teachers empower students with the skills required for accurate, coherent descriptions of geographical phenomena through appropriate language-specific support.

Geography and Language Learning in Action

The students in our classes had average to low socioeconomic backgrounds, and were representative of a multiracial populace in which English was not necessarily the dominant home language. The GLG was used by the teachers (A and B) to both "identify the major types of geographical texts in the local curriculum context" and "help students become aware of the key text structure and language features characteristic of the major types of geographical texts" (ELIS, 2013, p. 285). The tasks described in this chapter were developed by the teachers, using the sample materials from the GLG as a guide.

Describing Maps

The first task presented to students was learning how to identify major plates and boundary types on maps. They were also required to describe the relationship between these plate boundaries and the distribution patterns of tectonic hazards, in particular volcanoes and earthquakes (SEAB & CIE, 2014). Through a whole-class discussion, students identified and described locations on a map using lists of content vocabulary. Students individually practised labelling a map using the relevant content vocabulary and grammar. The teacher guided students' written descriptions of active volcanoes by providing writing frames to scaffold the text structure and language features (see Appendix A).

Later, she gave them a similar task of interpreting maps and describing the distribution pattern of earthquakes around the world. They used what they had learnt from describing the distribution of active volcanoes to help them complete this task (see a sample of a student's work in Figure 1).

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Earthquakes are found at convergent and divergent plate boundaries. For example, many earthquakes are found along the Pacific Ring of Fire which spans from the west coast of North and South America to East Asia, Southeast Asia and Oceania. This belt passes through countries like the United States of America, Japan, Philippines and Indonesia. Earthquakes can also be found near the Himalayas where Eurasian and Indian plate converge. They can also be found along the boundaries of the African plate in the Mediterranean region. However, some earthquake activities also take place within the African plate boundaries between the Somalia and African plates.

Figure 1. Student's description of the distribution of earthquakes.

Describing a Country's Climograph

The second task targeted students' graphical data analytical and interpretation skills and drew on their geographical knowledge and understanding (CPDD, 2014). The task centered on describing a country's temperature (in Celsius) and precipitation (in millimeters) (see a teacher-prepared climograph in Figure 2).

Challenges in interpreting climograph data included: (1) making sense of data from line and bar graphs, and (2) describing trends in English for both precipitation and temperature. The teachers provided a structured scaffold to organize the relevant content. This structure supported students in writing accurate and coherent descriptions. Guiding questions enabled students to tease out relevant specifics as they unpacked the data. This process aimed at showing students how to think, read, speak, and write like geographers (Jackson, 2006).

In order to help students describe the country's climograph, we again developed writing frames as supporting structures (see Appendix B). Figure 3 is a sample of a student's description of a climograph, which shows that the student addressed a key question, "Why do different places experience different weather and climate?" (SEAB & CIE, 2014, p. 10).

This student was able to "explain the daily and seasonal variations in temperature at a particular location" and "compare and explain the variations in temperature" (SEAB, 2014, p. 19).

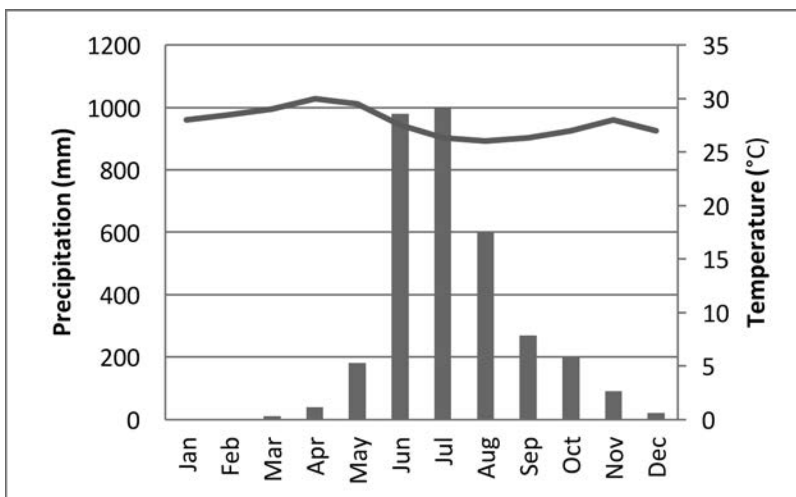

Figure 2. Teacher-prepared climograph of country X.

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Country X experiences tropical monsoon climate.

The mean monthly temperature of country X is high and constant throughout the year at about 25°C.

The highest temperature is 28°C in April and the lowest temperature is 23°C in July.

The total annual rainfall of the country is high at 3410mm.

It is seasonal throughout the year with wet seasons in May to October and dry seasons in November to April.

The highest amount of rainfall is 1000mm in July while the lowest amount of rainfall is 0mm in January.

Figure 3. Student's description of the climograph.

Teacher Perspectives

Teachers' feedback came from open-ended opinion surveys and focus group discussions centred on awareness of language-specific issues in relation to the design and use of instructional materials, as well as the impact on their pedagogic practice and perceptions of their students' learning. The following quotes are from the two teachers.

Language Awareness and Instructional Practice

Teacher A: Explicit language support helps me to clearly explain what is expected in the task. It helps me to be more conscious of how to construct meaningful dialogue specific to the topic.

Teacher B: Am more aware of students' needs in terms of language skills, e.g., focusing on types of connectors helps students better understand and organize their points when answering questions . . . the geography teacher's important role is in equipping students with the specific language skills to think and express themselves more coherently.

Teacher A: My learning tasks now require students to use specific language features to express themselves clearly in writing. My take is that different aspects of language lend themselves to conveying different types of geographical content accurately and precisely.

Teacher B: I now adopt a systematic way of unpacking language features relevant to the geographical tasks . . . scaffolding through eliciting the relevant content vocabulary needed and in guiding students' writing with appropriate writing frames. The step-by-step procedure draws attention to command words through boxing up relevant words, underlining key terms.

These teachers are connecting language instruction to content-area teaching in geography by making task demands more explicit. The teachers systematically deconstruct relevant language features and provide specific forms of scaffolding to familiarise students with language required in given tasks.

Content in Language Learning

Teacher A: Activating students' prior knowledge on the content vocabulary required helps students recall names, locations on map as well as direction words, and makes task demands clear.

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Teacher B: Marked improvement in my students' work after a year with adequate practice and organization of answers. They are now able to write relatively fluently and clearly without any scaffolds. Students recognize patterns, trends, and are able to justify explanations with supporting evidence.

Teacher B: The ability to write and use language-specific skills for tasks that require a combination of language skills rather than merely one core skill. (e.g., compare and assess the effectiveness).

Following the principles of scaffolded language and multiliteracy instruction, these teacher comments demonstrate that students construct coherent and accurate written responses to data analysis by drawing on existing knowledge to engage and extend content and language learning. At the same time, scaffolds are acknowledged as temporary forms of support on which students should be less reliant over time in order to develop their abilities to write fluently and independently. By assisting their learners in creating connections between language, graphic images, and geographical concepts, the teachers are meeting the Ministry of Education's curriculum learning goals for content and language learning (CPDD, 2013).

Student Perspectives

Students' voices were elicited through a survey, which showed that 93.1% of the 39 students from one class and 95% of 21 students from the other class said they gained language and content understanding from the use of specific scaffolds. The quotes below demonstrate their perceptions about what they learned.

Enhanced Understanding of Task Requirements

Student A: The focus on language use helped me in remembering points required in answering "distribution" questions as I normally do not remember or tend to overlook certain points.

Student B: This language support [question analysis] has helped me for all the questions. This enables me to better understand the questions, as for the first class test I didn't understand the question, "with a well-labelled diagram." However, after this guideline, it helped me to understand questions better.

Student C: Describing volcanoes earthquake was difficult as I did not know what I can describe. But the lesson helped me a lot as I was able to define what describing requires now.

These students' voices show the effectiveness of an overt focus on language in facilitating content learning. These young readers learned to read and think like geographers (Moje, 2008) while using appropriate multiliteracy tools. They could recognise and articulate the requirements of different tasks in terms of genre (e.g., "describing" distinctive features in visual maps, as opposed to "explaining" how these features came to be).

Content Recall and Reinforcement

Student D: The use of words such as "regions" and "directions" allowed me to recap what I have learnt in Lower Secondary which made it easier to understand our current syllabus as I was able to recall what I have learnt more easily.

Student E: We learnt the terms "map direction," "locations," and we refreshed our memory with our teacher referring to these terms along with teaching new terms like "continents" and "oceans."

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Student F: This can make me understand better by not just memorizing the important points and words that I don't know.

Applying content knowledge to English instruction supported language learning for these students, but it also served as a tool for continued content learning. The students were actively making sense of key vocabulary within the new context of interpreting maps. In so doing, they were better able to comprehend the topic and complete the necessary tasks in the geography classroom.

Content Precision, Appropriateness, and Coherence

Student G: She taught us a variety of words that we can use to better describe things and be clearer. She stresses suitable preposition for particular content, for example, "along the plate boundaries."

Student H: The language support helps me to phrase my sentences well and describe the distribution patterns of volcanoes and earthquakes specifically, step by step, breaking down the text, using some of the phrases.

Student I: Organising the frame and structure was very helpful as our answer will be neatly arranged in terms of answering the requirements of the question in chronological order.

Student J: I always had difficulty in deciding on the order I should present my answers. Thus, the writing frame was meaningful.

These students indicate the value of precision in language use when describing geographic features. They could explain spatial patterns of geographical features and phenomena using the sentence frames provided by their teachers. In doing so, they developed an awareness of the language expectations of a specific community of practice and started using vocabulary and language structures in the same ways that geographers do.

Internalizing Content and Form

Student K: The language support gave me a guideline of what I had to write generally for distribution of volcanoes and earthquakes with examples of the anomalies so I could mentally refer to the guideline when attempting another question.

Student L: She taught us the steps to tackle certain difficult questions and use our knowledge to brainstorm and come out with the correct answer, rather than to stick to the model answer, that may be wrong at times.

These students met curricular goals for critical thinking in that they can use and apply language support in the learning and application of content knowledge. They indicated that different forms of language support enabled them to identify and describe geographical patterns, which subsequently facilitated their written descriptions. They were not just memorising content: They were also developing a deeper understanding of how to apply their knowledge of writing demands to a new context.

Conclusion

This chapter has demonstrated how students' visual data analysis and interpretation for description of geographical processes and phenomena can be strengthened with the appropriate language support. However, it is important to remember that language-specific scaffolding is meaningless if it is de-contextualised and taught in isolation without consistent and explicit links to key concepts in the content area.

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There is also the danger of supportive scaffolds being overused, with teachers becoming overly rigid with a formulaic approach. Scaffolding, in whatever form, is best gradually released over time in order for students to eventually complete tasks independently. We acknowledge that this study was small scale, involving a relatively small number of participants. More studies of this nature can contribute to a deeper understanding of how teachers, through language support, can help students to see, think, analyse, and interpret visual data in the same way that experts do in their respective disciplines.

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Appendix A

Writing frame for description of distribution patterns in map

TEXT STRUCTURE	SENTENCE FRAME	LANGUAGE FEATURES
Describe general pattern	Volcanoes are found *along* ____________________ __________ plate boundaries	Content vocabulary: convergent, divergent Preposition phrase, e.g., along
State specific locations	For example, many volcanoes can be found *along* the Pacific Ring of Fire, which spans *from* the west coast of ________ *to* _______ America *to* ______ Asia and ____________________________________ (hint: look at continents and regions) The belt passes *through* some countries like __________ ________________________ Volcanoes can also be found *along* __________________ ____________________________________ (hint: look at the Atlantic Ocean and Mediterranean region)	Content vocabulary: Pacific Ring of Fire categories of continents, regions, countries, e.g., Mid-Atlantic Ridge, the boundaries of the African plate in the Mediterranean region Prepositions/phrases (describing direction, location), e.g., along, from . . .to . . . through
Describe anomalies	*However*, some volcanic activity also takes place ______________________________	Content vocabulary: Developing plate boundary Connectors, e.g., however

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Appendix B

Writing frame for description of country's climograph

TEXT STRUCTURE	SENTENCE FRAME	LANGUAGE FEATURES
Climate type of country	Country ________ experiences ____________________ ____ (adjective to describe type) ______ climate.	Content vocabulary: Tropical monsoon (describing climate)
Temperature: Pattern	The mean monthly temperature of country ______ is (adjective) _____________ (when) _____________ at about (figure and unit of measurement) ______	Adjective (describing temperature) Time phrase
Maximum and minimum temperature	The highest temperature is (figure and unit of measurement ______ in (when) _____________ and the lowest temperature is (figure and unit of measurement) ______ in (when) _____________	
Rainfall Pattern	The total annual rainfall of the country (adjective) _____________ is high at (figure and unit of measurement ______ It is (adjective) _____________ (when) ______ with (adjective) _____________ seasons in (when) ______ and (adjective) _____________ seasons in (when) ______	Adjective (describing rainfall) Content vocabulary: seasonal (describing pattern) Time phrase
Maximum and minimum rainfall	The (adjective) _____________ amount of rainfall is (figure and unit of measurement) ______ in (when) _____________ while the (adjective) _____________ amount of rainfall is (figure and unit of measurement) ______ in (when) ______	Adjective (describing rainfall) Time phrase

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SECTION 2: LEARNING THROUGH PROJECTS, TASKS, AND STRATEGIES

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CHAPTER 4 Using Protest Speeches to Develop Voices in English as a Foreign Language

HOLLI SCHAUBER AND JAYNE BRADY

In this chapter, we feature the expectations that teacher-educators and teacher-learners have of one another and of their own roles through the collaborative voices of a teacher-educator (Holli) and a teacher-trainee (Jayne). We highlight Jayne's emerging professional knowledge and competence through a sequence of lessons based on secondary students writing protest speeches read to music. The learning objectives of exploring and developing genre-specific listening and writing were tied to a lesson sequence providing a socio-historical and socio-cultural analysis of U.S. civil rights-era protest discourse. This theme was presented in English reading material assigned throughout the four years of high school in Geneva, Switzerland.

Our aim was to help learners develop their voices through these speeches set to music. Accepting the premise that "language learning through the arts extends the learners' understanding of themselves and their world while guiding them in creating meaning and developing their range of self-expression" (Eddy, 2008, p. 3), we considered: (1) how to develop English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students' listening strategies, (2) how to develop EFL students' personal voices while heightening genre awareness, and (3) how to link those learning opportunities to a portfolio assessment system involving the EFL students in the assessment process. To pursue these questions, Jayne developed an EFL lesson sequence as part of her required final year didactics project in a two-year practicum and methods course at a leading university in Geneva.

Theoretical Underpinnings

Listening Strategies

We began our exploration of listening strategies by reading Vandergrift (2012), who suggested that not all learners understand what listening in a second language (L2) involves. Oxford (2011) explained that "effective listeners, compared with ineffective listeners, used four groups of strategies more often: selective attention, self-monitoring, elaboration using background knowledge, and inferring meaning" (p. 251). We decided to apply Vandergrift and Goh's (2012) detailed

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listening lesson sequences, useful appendix of listening strategies, and listening questionnaires as a diagnostic and consciousness-raising tool. Our decision to use music in the lesson sequence was based on the notion that it can provide rhythm and a cadence for the students when reading, and that it replicates the protest music that inspired their protest speeches.

Genre-Based Writing

We had fundamental questions about writing, including the objectives behind our writing tasks, the role of content, and how learners would manipulate it. We used a genre-driven approach to help students view texts as regulated but supple. Text-types should not be presented as rigid structures; otherwise students simply follow the given "models of correct language. . . . It does not contribute to help students realize and master . . . the important features of any text-types" (Tuan, 2011, p. 1471).

Genre-based writing is essentially "goal-oriented" (Schulze, 2011, p. 133), and our lessons followed Schulze's instructional framework: (a) orienting the reader and listener with relevant background information, (b) taking a position and justifying it using examples, and (c) including some form of resolution and recommended actions. Tuan's (2011) model also influenced our lesson sequence: (a) modeling to demonstrate social purpose, schematic structure, and linguistic features; (b) negotiating of the text with the teachers and peers through joint construction and planning; and (c) individual student writing activities followed by teacher and peer feedback.

Assessment Criteria

Assessment criteria and rubrics encourage teachers to structure assessments that serve as guides for students. We subscribe to the view that the purpose of portfolio assessment is to promote active participation by learners as they document their learning process and reflect on it. We agree with Nunes (2004), who believes that assessments should be "dialogic" and "reflective" (pp. 328–329). In addition, portfolios invite learners to revise their work "based on a learning dialogue between the teacher and each individual learner . . . positive as well as corrective" (Smith, 2002, p. 39). Equally relevant for the course was Lee's (2012) notion that "the development of genre-specific criteria to guide students' writing . . . enables teachers to unify teaching and assessment by making sure that they teach according to the assessment criteria and share learning goals with students" (p. 122).

The Practicum

As teacher-trainees like Jayne sequence their lessons, they are required to consult the *Common European framework of reference for languages: learning, teaching, assessment* (Council of Europe, 2011). This guide demonstrates instructional competence and an understanding of what EFL students should be able to do with the language. In the teaching methods courses, I (first author Holli) emphasized the value of using strategies and personalizing tasks as a way to augment the meaningfulness of course tasks.

The lesson sequence was taught in a public Swiss French-language secondary school EFL class of 22 first-year students ages 15–17 over nine 45-minute periods. The sequence was inspired by an abridged text (McLean, 2007) on the life of Martin Luther King and was motivated by how EFL students might develop their voices through exposure to the *protest speech genre* as listeners and writers (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012).

The lessons meet curricular goals for second-year EFL high school students (mandated by the Department of Public Education in Geneva, 2007): (1) develop a range of listening strategies (global, selective, and detailed) to use with authentic aural texts (protest songs and speeches) appropriate to the needs, interests, and language level of the students; and (2) produce genre-specific written texts demonstrating linguistic and syntactic accuracy and range, using vocabulary, grammar, and discourse conventions encountered throughout the course.

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Instructional Sequence: Tasks, Materials, and Assessments

Jayne began her sequence by reading the abridged reader about Martin Luther King's (MLK) life with first-year high school EFL students in order to identify core sociopolitical and cultural themes in preparation for their own protest speech content. The chapters on MLK's legacy were the basis for the students' own protest "speech-songs." Learners used their own voices to communicate a political message. Music from the period was discussed and served as background for student protest speeches.

Holli, the teacher-educator, suggested strengthening this connection in order to immerse students in the artistic genre of the period. To promote listening strategy training and genre awareness of protest speeches, we collaborated on the selection of materials to make learning as authentic as possible. Students prepared for the task of writing their own protest speeches by listening to various protest songs, as well as MLK's speech. The listening objective was linking the generic conventions contained in the protest speech with the listening strategies as students prepared to create their own protest speeches.

The worksheets Jayne prepared guided students toward an understanding of the content and linguistic features of protest music and speeches within the historical context of the 1960s civil rights movement in the United States. The students were encouraged to interpret and react to the genre by incorporating their personal and contemporary perspectives into their own protest speech-song. Task prompts for work on listening strategies were inspired by Vandergrift and Goh (2012), as Jayne introduced prediction collaboration and inferencing to promote self-regulated monitoring.

Jayne assessed the EFL students through formative teacher and peer feedback, summative evaluation grids, and a self-assessment tool. To facilitate revision and further the learning process (Rollinson, 2005), Jayne guided the students in the creation of a rubric of genre-driven criteria based on the organizational and linguistic elements of protest speech. Along with the rubric, the teacher used portfolio assessment to promote learner autonomy and extensive evaluation throughout the course (Nunes, 2004).

From the Classroom: Reflection and Feedback

Strategy Use

We found Vandergrift and Goh's (2012) initial questionnaire very helpful as a diagnostic tool for learning about students' existing awareness and use of listening strategies. Students referred to this list regularly. Questionnaire results also provided data for midterm portfolio reflections.

In their portfolio reflections, each of the 22 students mentioned a different listening strategy, suggesting that they prefer to use a variety of strategies. It was gratifying to learn that strategy training had been appropriated and that there was the potential for the learners to apply these further. Many of the learners felt they could now use strategies in a test situation or in general: "j'écoute mieux les compréhension oral et je sais comment les comprendre" (I understand now how to listen and understand better). Some students also mentioned socio-communicative strategies learning in terms of applying what they learned in the future: "if later I have to make a little speech in English" or "when I want to convince other people" to "regler un conflit" (solve a conflict).

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Genre-Based Writing

The writing component was particularly successful in terms of creating an appropriate challenge for learners, while giving them a framework in which they could "safely" express their own ideas and even take risks. Of the 22 students, one student claimed to have learned how to "write and express myself," while many said they learned a lot about segregation. The prewriting stage began by my asking students to describe in advance which theme they wanted to write about. They needed time to think about how to personalize their speech and visualize how to use the generic conventions presented to them to express their thoughts in a dynamic way. We were impressed by each of the final speeches. All of them were different but conformed to at least some of the genre conventions. Moreover, by adding modern music to a protest speech, students learned to combine multiple means of communication to give voice to their ideas.

Pronunciation, Intonation, Rhythm, Music, and Message

When the EFL students recorded their speeches, some of them mimicked the word emphasis and American accents they heard from MLK. This highlights the value of establishing a sociocultural and sociohistorical context for their work, as suggested by Schulze (2011). Using background music at the end of the instructional sequence allowed the students to situate themselves as participants in cultural history, voicing their own concerns, which included the pressure to succeed at school, conform to a particular social image, recognize environmental change, and oppose war, modern-day racism, and police brutality. Moreover, the students also explained in their portfolio reflections how the music allowed them to keep a rhythm while reading their speeches aloud. The background music also allowed their messages to be conveyed in a more emotional and universal way.

Portfolios

As mentioned earlier, the portfolio framework allows students to assess their effort, progress, and product; provide them with feedback and assistance at their individual levels; and help them become metacognitively aware (Nunes, 2004; Smith, 2002). Holli suggested that Jayne assign a peer-mentoring role to the students whose work stood above the others because it was coherent, persuasive, and complex in range and content and could be used as a model for the others. The portfolio encouraged students to pay more attention to the pre-established assessment criteria when completing each task because they realized that each activity would ultimately contribute to some kind of self, peer, or teacher assessment.

Teacher Reflection

Holli and Jayne met together after each lesson sequence and throughout the practicum experience to debrief each other about the lessons and revisit instructional themes. As a result of this process of mediated reflection with Holli, Jayne identified several changes she would make to future versions of this instructional sequence:

- reduce the focus on the musical aspect and increase attention to the rhetorical elements in the protest speech genre;
- increase the number of differentiated activities and scaffolding (especially for weaker learners) in order to deepen students' understanding of the songs and speeches;
- make the learning strategies training more explicit at each stage of the sequence to strengthen practice opportunities;
- provide a key vocabulary list for some of the songs to facilitate access to and comprehension of the content.

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Conclusion

For Jayne and her students, this instructional sequence was a process of exploration and discovery. They explored cultural themes associated with MLK while developing listening strategies and genre awareness of protest speeches. By using a mix of self-, peer-, and teacher-led assessment based on collaborative criteria building, and by facilitating an extremely personalized final product, Jayne and her students built rapport. Student speeches were of genuine interest to them as they developed their voices in English to express a concern they really believed in. Jayne expresses her new knowledge as follows:

> “I now have a stronger ability to set objectives in sync with my activities and evaluation, which in turn strengthened my lesson planning. Using music in the language classroom was a process of experimentation for me as a teacher and represented a challenge for discovery and looking at cultural themes from a different perspective.
>
> I recognize the language-learning value of not overwhelming the learners with too many strategies or concepts. The theory systematized many aspects which until then I had suspected but never necessarily enumerated or developed into a specific learning sequence in this regard.”

The teacher-educator, Holli, had several observations:

> “It became clear that even when there was agreement about how or why to implement something in a certain way (listening strategies, modeling protest speech elements, developing assessment criteria with the students), Jayne appeared to doubt their relevance and utility until she could confirm or refute them in practice. I likewise recognized the advantages of using portfolio assessment, and I found the theoretical explanations provided in the methods courses and during our debriefings extremely helpful, not only in the development of the sequence but also in ongoing feedback. Through the portfolio approach, not only did my trainees become more reflective, but I became a more reflective practitioner.”

We feel that the personalized nature of the protest speeches facilitated a close rapport between the teacher and students. Learner speeches were something all class participants genuinely wanted to hear. The students developed a voice of protest to express something in English they really believed in, reinforcing the value of authenticity in language learning as a motivational force (Viau, 2002).

The key seems to have been the sequence of the lessons. Through the sequence, Jayne sought to merge the personal (voice of protest) with the academic (genre-driven features of protest speeches and range of listening strategies) and link them with a formative portfolio assessment that made visible elements of performance and reflection (Nunes, 2004; Smith, 2002). The portfolio was particularly suited to a long-term sequence, giving the student’s time to evolve in their thinking, and Jayne the time to give appropriate genre-driven feedback and adjust the sequence if required (Lee, 2012). Teaching this unit was a process of personal discovery learning for Jayne and her students that allowed them to develop authentic voices instead of just singing along to the same old song.

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CHAPTER 5 Self-Questioning Strategy Training: Voices From Students in Indonesia

DYAH SUNGGINGWATI AND HOA THI MAI NGUYEN

Moving Beyond the Textbook

For a long time, English as a Foreign Language (EFL) education in Indonesia has reflected a teacher-centered approach focusing mostly on grammar rules and vocabulary with little opportunity for student interaction in class. In 2004, a new national curriculum was introduced that focused on a competence-based model (Lie, 2007). Even though this approach emphasizes the integration of the four language skills, most classroom teachers still focus on reading skills. Students are expected to comprehend various types of passages such as narratives, descriptions, expository pieces, reports, and news articles. As a result, teachers have a strong preference for using authentic reading passages and teaching strategies in English reading lessons that emphasise comprehension.

In our recent study (Sunggingwati & Nguyen, 2013b) to investigate reading instruction in Indonesia, we found that teachers heavily depended on textbooks to design their lessons. By observing classes, we discovered that the reading passages used for lessons were rarely challenging and relatively short, meaning students were not able to engage their critical reading skills. The comprehension questions provided in the textbooks were often simple factual questions that rarely required higher levels of thinking.

In our assessment, the textbook provided limited opportunities for students to actively engage with texts and achieve high levels of reading comprehension. Based on the results of this study, we looked for ways to encourage teachers to move beyond the textbook in their reading lessons. One particularly effective strategy we found was the use of self-questioning, so we conducted training on self-questioning strategies for selected English teachers and their students. In this chapter, we present the students' perspectives on self-questioning based on the results of this training.

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Teaching Reading Through Self-Questioning

Self-questioning is defined as an ongoing process in which readers produce questions related to the information in a passage they read. Readers generate questions on the basis of clues found in the passage. As students pose questions for themselves, they develop interest in the topic, which guides their thinking while reading (Rosenshine, Mesiter, & Chapman, 1996). This strategy is commonly used in inquiry-based learning approaches (Caram & Davis, 2005).

Teaching reading through the use of self-questioning is an effective approach to improve students' levels of reading comprehension, recall of written information, and incidental vocabulary acquisition and retention (Taboada, Bianco, & Bowerman, 2012; Wood, Browder, & Flynn, 2015). Self-questioning also fosters cognitive development, enhances the potential for self-directed learning, and allows students to become more independent and critical readers.

Several scholars (e.g., Palincsar & Brown, 1984; Rosenshine, Meister, & Chapman, 1996) have emphasized the need to train students to use the self-questioning strategy while reading. There has been a dearth of research on its application in EFL, especially in the Indonesian context, so we were therefore eager to demonstrate to teachers how to apply this strategy training and explore its impact on their students.

Training Indonesian Teachers and Students in Self-Questioning

We conducted a series of seven workshops on the self-questioning strategy for three English teachers and their students in Grade 11. The classes represented three different schools with a total of 101 students ages 16–18 years. During the workshops, the teachers learned how to vary the level of their questions based on Bloom' taxonomy (Bloom, Engelhart, Furst, Hill, & Krathwohl, 1956), and they practiced the self-questioning strategy with each other. They later applied the strategy with the students in their classrooms.

After explaining to students the purpose and importance of self-questioning for reading comprehension, the teachers distributed cards containing different levels of questions to each student. The students highlighted key words for each level and formulated their own questions using the highlighted key words. They then practiced asking different questions in pairs and in groups. The teachers also modeled how to generate questions during reading and demonstrated the reciprocal peer-questioning strategy, which involves pairs of students helping each other monitor the comprehension of a reading passage.

Students' Voices

In order to learn the students' perceptions on the self-questioning strategy, we interviewed 19 selected students after the workshops were completed. We present below the themes we found in the interview responses.

General Perceptions About Self-Questioning

The students in general perceived that the self-questioning strategy was quite useful for their learning. For example, one student emphasized that, "Self-questioning should have been given not only to the research participants. As the aim was very useful for students, it should be taught and emphasized to other students. So, all students should have learnt self-questioning" (Afdel, School 2). He was advocating that teachers implement this strategy training across the institution.

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Another student complained that self-questioning was taught to students too late in the program:

> I think self-questioning helped students be more critical but it came too late. We learned this when we were already at Grade 11. Why it was not given earlier? It should have been taught from kindergarten or elementary levels, moreover when we were kids we had lots of questions. (Yunita, School 2)

The implementation of the self-questioning strategy produced several important benefits. Students were able to develop more complex questions beyond the ones available in their textbooks, improve reading comprehension, and increase their ability to link the passage to their previous knowledge and experience (Anthony & Raphael, 2004; Fordham, 2006; Handsfield & Jiménez, 2008).

The Role of Self-Questioning in Developing Active Learning

The students also learned specific skills from the implementation of self-questioning such as improved reading comprehension, development of critical thinking, and awareness of language features. Most students reported that after learning self-questioning, they had gained a better overall understanding of English reading passages because their focus changed from learning vocabulary in isolation to constructing meaning from the entire passage.

Students indicated that self-questioning was valuable for developing their ability to think critically; for example, one student said, "It made me more critical about the passage so that we did not only accept what the passage was written for example the passage said that female should become a career women . . . we did not accept this immediately" (Helmi, School 2). Self-questioning made this student more aware so that he could think about the information presented rather than reading passively and simply accepting the writer's opinion. Clearly, these higher order reading and thinking skills assist students in generating deeper comprehension of reading content.

Language Features

Students also reported that self-questioning developed their oral language skills and knowledge of vocabulary and grammar:

> Self-questioning helped me to improve my speaking skills. (Yunita, School 2)

> It . . . added more vocabularies so that made me understand more (Fika, School 2)

> It was very good because it trained me how to generate questions. This also trained me in grammar. (Putri, School 1)

Real-Life Applications

Most students across the three schools reported that they were able to transfer the skills that they learnt from self-questioning to other subjects and to make use of them in their life. It appears that self-questioning encouraged more interaction with peers and less dependence on textbooks in class, thereby promoting active engagement in class activities as the reflections below indicate.

> . . . we had to be independent to search for information, discussed with friends and then clarified this with teachers. As we had to write report projects that required our own thinking and not rely on the passage books. (Afdel, School 2)

> I was happy, made me cleverer. What I meant here was that I wanted to be a journalist. And of course a journalist had to make a list of questions, so that self-questioning helped to do this. I had some experience. (Adi, School 2)

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> “From different levels of questions we could generate better questions and in order to answer the questions we could get information from the real life.” (Helmi, School 3)

The students created and pursued related personal strategies to more actively engage in learning. They became more independent learners and had opportunities to take more responsibility for the learning process (Brown, 2003; Schuh, 2004).

Teacher Voices

When asked to reflect on the implementation of the self-questioning strategy within their classes, all teachers said that the students who were able to generate questions could understand more fully what they had read. They also indicated that self-questioning helped students with vocabulary development. The teachers also reflected on the immediate impact of the self-questioning strategy on their pedagogies.

For example, teacher 1 realized that she seldom asked students to draw conclusions about what she had taught, while teacher 2 wondered if her students did not answer her questions because they did not understand them. Teacher 3 recognised that self-questioning strategies would provide more opportunities for students to express their opinions and ideas. Moreover, all teachers reported being more confident in teaching reading by applying the self-questioning strategy with their students (Sunggingwati & Nguyen, 2013a).

Conclusion

Self-questioning was a valuable strategy for developing critical thinking skills and for transferring the learning of particular language features to broader aspects of learning. Self-questioning helped students to develop a deeper understanding of other subjects and apply this understanding to the real world.

Overall, students identified positive outcomes from participating in the self-questioning training. The adoption of the self-questioning strategy meant that they did not focus on the words and translations alone to understand a reading passage, but they were still able to construct meaning in English. Therefore, their center of attention shifted from a shallow to a deeper understanding. As their knowledge developed, the students perceived that their critical and analytical thinking skills were enhanced.

The use of self-questioning can be quite beneficial for teachers in EFL contexts such as Indonesia, where large classes with 30–40 students are common, and there are limited opportunities for student involvement and interaction. Student-generated questions can facilitate exchange of information, increase the level of negotiated interaction, and maximize the amount of comprehensible input being produced in the classroom (Baleghizadeh, 2013).

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SECTION 3: MULTIMODAL LANGUAGE LEARNING

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CHAPTER

6 Digital Multimodal Composing Practices in an After-School Program

YOUNGJOO YI, CHIN-CHIANG KAO, AND JOOHOON KANG

Everyday literacies for many school-aged children are becoming digital and multimodal. More and more English language learners (ELLs) around the world participate in online media to be connected with people who share similar interests, disseminate and obtain information, and keep up with current issues. While participating at those sites, English language learners are likely to encounter and may design digital multimodal texts that might include language, images, and sound. Among the emerging multimodal literacy practices, digital storytelling is one of the most common. It's a form of multimedia composing that consists of combining still or moving images with background sounds and a voice-over narrative. Of note, digital storytelling involves both traditional, print-based writing and digitally mediated multimodal writing practices.

We decided to teach digital storytelling to adolescent English language learners in an after-school program at a local Asian American Community Center (AACC) in a Midwestern city in the United States. Yi (first author) had previously taught digital storytelling to middle school language learners in the summer program sponsored by the Latin American Association (LAA) in the southeastern United States, and she conceptualized the current digital storytelling project based on her insights from that experience. Kao (second author) had already volunteered to teach English to adult immigrants in the AACC, so he was familiar with the context and people there. Third author Kang had a personal connection with a staff member through his church. Together, we set out on this teacher research project.

We considered ourselves competent technology users. When we expressed our interest in teaching and researching adolescent learners' digital storytelling practices, the staff at the AACC was supportive. We enjoyed the double roles we played as teachers and researchers throughout the project. As teachers, we hoped that our students would be able to design digitally mediated multimodal texts to express themselves; as researchers, we wanted to explore ways in which our students could employ and coordinate multimodal modes of communication for meaning-making and self-representation.

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Theoretical Framework

Recent research has shown that digital storytelling helps learners increase their awareness of linguistic features (Hur & Suh, 2012), express or perform identities in their second language (Wilson, Chavez, & Anders, 2012), and foster engagement in independent and autonomous learning and peer teaching (Hafner & Miller, 2011).

Using the perspective of literacy as social practice, we drew upon multimodal theory to design and teach digital storytelling to adolescent learners. Multimodality is a social semiotic approach that claims "all communication is multimodal, and any communicative event entails simultaneous use of multiple modes which may realize meanings that complement, extend, and/or contradict each other" (Early, Kendrick, & Potts, 2015, p. 448).

Multiliteracies, initially proposed by the New London Group (NLG) (1996), is another key theoretical construct that informed us in designing our digital storytelling project. Multiliteracies is an approach to literacy pedagogy that emphasizes the strategic use of multiple communication channels and media and acknowledges increasing linguistic and cultural diversity. Rowsell and Walsh (2011) explained the relationship between the two concepts of multimodality and multiliteracies this way: "Multimodality comes first in that it informs how we make meaning, and multiliteracies, as a possible pedagogy, gives us tools for doing so. Multiliteracies as a pedagogy simultaneously accounts for linguistic diversity and the use of multimodalities in communication" (p. 56).

The notion of multiliteracies suggests a theory of pedagogy that integrates four related components to literacy education, namely, "situated practice, overt instruction, critical framing, and transformed practice" (NLG, 1996, p. 83). Situated practice is an "immersion in meaningful practices within a community of learners who are capable of playing multiple and different roles based on their background and experiences" (NLG, p. 85). Overt instruction is teachers' active intervention to "scaffold learning activities," guiding students in their attempts to "gain explicit information" (NLG, p. 86) and make sense of what they are learning. Critical framing helps students to analyze contexts of designs and the purposes of texts. Transformed practice takes place when students transform existing meanings to create new meanings.

First author Yi had previously used these four components to design and implement digital storytelling to teach middle school language learners at the Latin American Association (LAA) (Angay-Crowder, Choi, & Yi, 2013). We similarly employed these four components to teach adolescent learners in our context.

The Digital Storytelling Project

Overview

As noted above, our digital storytelling project was situated in an Asian American Community Center (AACC) in the United States. One of the missions of the AACC is to provide educational services to help Asian Americans deal with every day matters. With the center's support, we established our digital storytelling project for adolescent learners as an after-school program. We advertised our project through personal networks and local Asian community websites. Six Asian learners, including four Chinese-speaking and two Korean-speaking middle schoolers, joined our project. They ranged from newly arrived beginning learners to advanced learners who had lived in the United States for several years. They all had computers at home and basic computer skills (e.g., they knew how to navigate the Internet, check emails, and create MS Word documents). Some already knew how to use video editing software (e.g., iMovie and Photostory), and others were skilled enough to learn quickly how to create a digital story.

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We collaboratively taught 14 one-hour sessions in which learners created two digital stories: (1) a narrative digital story, and (2) an argumentative digital story. We chose these two particular genres because we believed that narrative digital storytelling could be useful to engage learners in writing personal stories and exploring and expressing self (Wilson et al., 2012), and argumentative digital storytelling could help learners better understand how to make an argument and write for academic and social purposes. We hoped that our six students would learn to orchestrate multiple modes for meaning-making, use technology to produce and publish writing, broaden conceptions of literacy (writing), exercise creativity, write a compelling story about themselves, write arguments with claims and relevant evidence, and increase awareness of purpose and audience.

Getting Started

In the first session, we offered an overview of digital storytelling (e.g., what digital storytelling is and how digital stories are designed). Learners viewed several examples of digital stories created by other English language learners, and they were invited to critique them. The seven sessions that followed (sessions 2 to 8) were devoted to creating their multimodal narratives.

We began the second session by making a brief digital presentation about the elements of digital storytelling (Lambert, 2002), which helped them understand what to consider when they designed their stories. We asked them to select a topic of interest and share ideas with peers. They brought their initial drafts for a narrative digital story to the third session. Some of the learners used traditional tools of paper and pencil, while others composed their initial draft via computer. They read aloud their drafts and engaged in peer feedback. It was interesting to us that the intermediate and advanced language learners seemed to enjoy the peer feedback activity but that the two beginning learners did not effectively engage, due in part to their limited English proficiency. Thus, we quickly modified our plan: The intermediate and advanced learners engaged in a peer feedback activity by filling out a handout we prepared, while the two beginning learners had an individual conference with us to improve their drafts.

Final Touches on Digital Narratives

In the fourth and fifth sessions, learners continued to revise their drafts based on the feedback from peers and teachers while creating storyboards. Beginning with the fifth session, we focused on locating and using nonlinguistic multimodal resources such as images and sounds to enhance their narratives. We discussed the fair use of copyrighted material (especially music and pictures) for personal and educational purposes. We recommended several websites at which they could access materials that people can freely copy, distribute, and use for non-commercial purposes without violating any copyright laws.

In the sixth session, learners continued to work on their storyboards, and we briefly taught them how to use editing software (e.g., Photostory, iMovie, and Audacity) to put their digital story together. At this point, we re-watched one of the digital story examples from our first session because we wanted them to pay attention to how multimodal modes were orchestrated for a digital story. Finally, each of the middle schoolers finished their digital narratives and shared them with peers and teachers in the seventh session.

The Argumentative Digital Story

For the argumentative digital story (sessions 8 to 14), we followed the same process that we used for the narrative. Given the challenges of writing an argumentative essay, we gave short lectures on how to construct arguments by demonstrating how to write claims, evidence, and warrants, as well as how to write an essay, including an introduction, body, and conclusion. We read a sample argumentative essay to analyze and identify topics and theses, reasons, and supportive examples. We then invited the learners to share their experiences with argumentative writing in their first

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language with their Chinese or Korean peers. In the final session, they shared their argumentative digital stories as well as their opinions about their experience in creating digital stories.

Looking Back on the Project

Throughout the project, we integrated four components of multiliteracies. First, learners engaged in *situated practice,* selecting and exploring topics that were personally meaningful and important to them, thereby being invested in the learning experience. They engaged in multiple roles as writers, readers, and technology experts in producing drafts, providing peer feedback, and helping their peers with technological aspects of design.

Second, we provided *overt instruction* defining digital storytelling, how to search for information online, how to make arguments, and how to use audio and video editing software.

Third, we engaged learners in *critical framing*. In the twelfth session, for example, we watched and critically examined advertisements and TV commercials that provoked discussion about sociopolitical issues such as racism, sexism, and gun control. We hoped that learners would read and interpret daily ads and commercials with critical eyes and examine their choice of multiple modes (especially image and sound).

Finally, learners engaged in a *transformed practice*: They transformed their text-based draft into a storyboard and a digital story, which required them to locate multiple modes (text, image, and sound) of expression and coordinate them for effective communication.

While we engaged our learners in discussing the similarities and differences between text-based writing and multimodal writing and reflecting upon their own transformed practice, we hoped that they would expand their notion of writing or literacy. Learners were also asked to put the knowledge of how to make arguments and write argumentative essays into practice in a new context. As such, these four elements of multiliteracies were re-enforced throughout the project.

Voices of the Adolescent English Language Learners

Discovery

Learners immediately discovered that multimodal composing is different from traditional, print-based writing. An intermediate learner, Weiran, noted, "This [digital storytelling] project has more steps than paper-based writing. You need to find materials to make a video. The steps are quite different." More important, while recognizing the use of multiple multimodal resources, the students seemed to learn the semiotic power of multimodality in composing. The most advanced student in the group, Annie, expressed her belief in the power of image and sound in meaning-making. She noted, "An argumentative digital story is more effective to persuade or convince people than a print-based argumentative essay because it makes people focus more on the topic with images and music as well as increase [the] audience's interest." For the same reason, some learners used self-created images (e.g., photos or drawn images using computer software) in order to accurately illustrate their points or support their claims.

The Challenge

A major challenge that these learners faced in digital storytelling was directly related to what they discovered. Although learners had developed the concept of integrating multiple resources into digital storytelling, they experienced the challenge of putting this concept into practice. It was not easy to locate and select or create suitable images or sounds for their digital stories. Annie told us that even after finishing her digital story, she would have changed some images if she had been

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able to find better ones. She felt that some of her images failed to fully convey her messages. On a positive note, the learners adopted a strategy to cope with this challenge. For example, they used key words in both English and their first language in Chinese, Korean, and English language search engines in order to locate the most suitable images or sounds for their digital stories.

Change and Growth

When we spoke with the learners about the most important lesson they had learned through digital storytelling, the first point that they excitedly mentioned was about learning "how to make a video [a digital story]." This was not very surprising given that previous research (Yang & Wu, 2011) demonstrated that English language learners improve their technological skills through digital storytelling. Although our learners first mentioned an increase in their technological skills, they also believed they improved their English language skills. A newly arrived beginning learner, Yanyang, noted that she felt more confident in writing and speaking English after she produced multiple drafts and practiced reading aloud to record a podcast as voice-over in her project. Furthermore, the learners voiced a great sense of accomplishment and pride after successfully completing their digital stories. They were initially overwhelmed, but at the end they all felt satisfied with their final products.

Some learners seemed to explore and express their identities as a learner, a newcomer to an American school, or a bilingual individual as they designed their digital stories. As Annie noted, "I had an opportunity to *delve into myself*." Other learners examined themselves in a new light demonstrating growth as a multilingual individual.

Voices From the Teachers

Discovering the Authentic

Of the many important discoveries made during our project, we focus here on the possibilities of digital multimodal literacy practices for language learners. First, although our specific goal was to teach multimodal composition, we realized that learners practiced and possibly developed all four language skills (speaking, listening, reading, and writing) throughout the project. The learners engaged in continuous discussions and oral and written feedback; repeatedly recorded their narrations while paying great attention to accurate pronunciation, intonation, and stress patterns; listened to narrations of their own and others' digital stories; read online resources to write a draft; and wrote multiple drafts.

Argumentative essay writing in particular can be a daunting task for language learners. We found, however, that our learners felt more comfortable and more engaged by using multimodal resources than using texts alone when they constructed their arguments. Learners seemed to develop a clear sense of three major elements to argumentation (i.e., claims, evidence, and warrants), and they often used images as evidence to support these.

We were initially concerned about teaching language learners with very different English proficiency levels (they ranged from newcomers to those who had lived in the United States for several years). We came to realize, however, that digital story projects could be implemented successfully with mixed levels of English proficiency. This project allowed enough such space for personal and academic growth. While advanced learners independently worked on their drafts or storyboards, beginning learners had individual writing conferences with us. With the advanced learners, we often gave feedback on their drafts and other materials via email since we knew they could read and understand our comments. Learners with advanced English proficiency or technological skills helped others as well, so learners were able to scaffold language and technology learning for each other.

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Finally, multimodal practices are authentic, engaging, and meaningful to language learners, as evidenced by our learners actively and voluntarily investing time and effort in their digital stories. It would have been impossible for learners to finish two digital stories if they had not worked on their projects beyond our sessions. They seemed to develop a sense of ownership of their digital stories because they cared about them and other people's opinions of them.

Challenges to Extracurricular Practice

The learners appeared to believe that academic writing, mostly print-based, is more important and rigorous than out-of-school writing, even though they found digital storytelling more appealing. We speculate that digital storytelling was not as highly regarded as academic writing by our learners, perhaps because digital storytelling was done outside of school or it was not exclusively a print-based composing practice. We noted that these middle schoolers seemed to perceive images or sounds as supplementary to language. That is, they considered the linguistic mode as the most important element in their multimodal composition, with voiceovers, images, sounds, or music in supporting roles.

We faced another challenge when we found that our learners engaged in a linear process of composition. Learners tended to finish their print-based drafts first and then begin searching and aligning images or music with corresponding texts. Because digital composing is cyclical (stories can be constantly revised), some learners believed that they couldn't begin finding images or music until they finished their drafts. Therefore, we stressed that they could go back and forth between writing a draft and adding non-linguistic resources to the stories.

Recommendations for ELL Literacy Pedagogy and Theory

We recommend that teachers lead much more open and explicit discussions about the multiplicity of literacy practices, especially the concepts of multiple literacies, multiple communication channels and media, and multiple modes of representation. As Hur and Suh (2012) suggested, it is teachers who should understand the significance and necessity of implementing multimodal literacy practices along with diverse technologies. Learners are likely to better understand that multimodal writing is just as important for meaning-making as print-based writing, and that language is "only part of a larger constellation of semiotic resources" (Nelson & Kern, 2012, p. 47).

When teachers attempt to integrate digital multimodal literacy practices into large classes, we recommend they create group projects. Although learners engage in a collaborative project, they are likely to practice independently and use English throughout. In addition, a group project tends to create a social context for peer teaching and learning.

Traditional TESOL pedagogy has emphasized teaching linguistic modes; however, our English language learners may have already experienced or contributed to forming the ever-changing contemporary communicative landscape that "requires addressing the full range of semiotic resources used within a community and/or society" (Early et al., 2015, p. 448) to meet contextually defined needs. Although many learners use multimodal resources for everyday communication, they may have a bias against non-linguistic resources. The emerging area of inquiry into multimodal practices in TESOL could benefit from rigorous inquiry by teacher-researchers. We need to link theory and practice in this new area to explore ways in which a multimodal perspective can increase our capacity to serve second-language learners to meet the changing communication demands in contemporary schooling and in society.

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CHAPTER 7 English Language Learners' Collaboration Through Multimodal Composition

BLAINE E. SMITH AND LUCIANA C. DE OLIVEIRA

In today's digital and networked world, students need to be both critical consumers and skillful producers of digital multimodal texts. Over the past several years, TESOL practice has been conceptualized as attending to reading, writing, speaking, and listening focused on linguistic resources (Brown, 2007). Attention has recently turned to *multimodal resources*—linguistic, visual, audio, gestural, and spatial elements—as essential for the teaching and learning of English in the United States and other countries (Unsworth & Heberle, 2013).

In this chapter, we illustrate opportunities for productive collaboration made possible for English language learners (ELLs) when working with multiple modes in digital environments. Specifically, we closely examine the collaborations of two high school students as they create a multimodal informational website during a literature unit. We reflect on their collaborative efforts and offer suggestions for teachers interested in multimodal composition.

Instructional Context

This study was conducted in a 12th-grade Advanced Placement (AP) Literature and Composition class at an urban magnet school located in the United States. Students participated in a seven-week literature unit in which they created three multimodal projects connected to the Vietnam-era novel, *The Things They Carried,* by Tim O'Brien. Students first designed an informational webpage on a chosen topic related to the Vietnam War or American culture during that time period. Using Weebly, an online tool that allows users to easily create websites (www.weebly.com), they were asked to combine artifacts of research (e.g., images, videos, songs, primary documents) with a written synthesis of multiple sources to explore and explain historical phenomena.

Students next created a hypertext literary analysis. Students paired up and selected a chapter from the novel and wrote key passages on PowerPoint slides. Specific sections of text from these passages were hyperlinked to other slides with which students explored key words and phrases, literary devices, intertextual connections, questions, and personal reactions.

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Finally, they created an audio letter with Audacity software to record soundscapes that layered voice narration, music, and sound effects to express a character's physical and emotional experiences during the novel. Students were given the freedom to create their audio letter from the perspective of any main character, and were instructed to convincingly "tell the story in a way that seems true to the character" (assignment sheet).

Throughout the literature unit, the class participated in a Scaffolded Digital Writer's Workshop (Dalton, 2013) designed to support students in seeing themselves as *designers* and understanding how multiple modes can be used for expression and communication. This workshop model also focused on developing a supportive class community where students shared their work, assisted each other with technical aspects, and relied on one another as resources.

The workshop laid out a series of steps to scaffold the composing process (Dalton, 2013). When introducing a project, the teacher first demonstrated *why* and *how* a multimodal project was created—providing both teacher-created and real-world examples that illustrated possible design decisions a composer could make. The students next had to choose to work individually or collaboratively during workshop time, and were encouraged to share strategies and resources. Students sharing their work both in class (e.g., whole-class presentations, gallery walks, and peer workshops) and with a wider audience (e.g., class website) was the third step. Finally, students submitted typed reflections with each of their final projects that addressed specific questions (e.g., What were your successes and struggles while creating this project? How did you work with others to create your project? What modes did you use?) aimed at uncovering their process, collaborations, and design decisions.

The class was taught by Mrs. Buchanan (all names are pseudonyms), a second-year teacher who had some experience integrating technology into her instruction and who recently graduated with a master's degree in English Education that reflected a digital literacies perspective. There were 19 students in the class. Two of them—who were the focus of this study—were identified as Redesignated Fluent English Proficient (RFEP) because they had recently exited the English as a Second Language (ESL) program.

During the qualitative study, the first author (Smith) was a participant observer who collaborated with Mrs. Buchanan to apply the scaffolded workshop model in a way that aligned with her unit goals. The second author (de Oliveira) assisted in analyzing the data. During the literature unit, a variety of data were collected, including screen recordings of students' laptops, video observations, semistructured design interviews, and artifacts of student work.

Focal Students

In this chapter, we highlight the multimodal composition experiences of Evelyn and Catie—two students who chose to collaborate on all three of the multimodal projects (website, hypertext literary analysis, and audio letter). Evelyn and Catie shared many similarities academically and in their lived experiences. Both were emergent bilinguals who emigrated from Africa as children—Catie moved from Nigeria when she was four and Evelyn from Kenya when she was 10—and both spoke primarily their native languages at home, Igbo and Bantu Swahili, respectively. Each was highly involved in various extracurricular activities, including the track team and the National Honors Society. Mrs. Buchanan described the pair as "highly motivated" and driven to excel academically.

Catie and Evelyn's similarities also extended to their use of technology outside of school, which mostly centered on connecting with friends via Facebook, email, and Twitter, or for writing school papers. Mrs. Buchanan described both as "strong writers"; in class, however, they exhibited limited proficiency working with computer programs such as Word, PowerPoint, and Audacity, and neither student reported using technology creatively for their own purposes at home.

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Communication and Multimodality

A multimodality framework for communication is based on the assumption that various modes—including text, sound, visuals, and movement—are integral in meaning-making (Kress, 2003). Each mode contains specific affordances, and the interaction between modes is significant for communication. Furthermore, the unique combination of different modes constructs a message that no single mode can communicate on its own (Jewitt, 2009).

Research on adolescents' multimodal composing practices reveals that these types of digital projects often create space for students to draw upon their cultural experience and out-of-school interests (Smith, 2014). Multimodal projects provide multiple entry points—particularly for English language learners—that allow students to express themselves in ways not typically afforded with written texts (Pacheco & Smith, 2015). According to Black (2009), emergent bilinguals may also develop English proficiency while participating in self-sponsored multimodal composition outside of school, along with leveraging their cultural backgrounds.

In secondary school contexts, research on multimodal composition also illustrates its collaborative nature. Often working in pairs or small groups, students typically collaborate at all stages of the composition process—from brainstorming ideas, composing with technology, editing, and presenting their final products (Bruce, 2009). Students often build upon each other's strengths, challenge one another, discuss their modal decisions, and make visible their composing processes and connections to content. Students take on different pieces of a project as their own and then integrate their contribution with the overall composition (Smith, 2013).

In the field of TESOL, collaboration is seen as a major 21st-century skill. Collaborative learning tasks enable students to practice important language skills and specific communication moves needed for group work such as taking turns, asking questions, elaborating and providing feedback on partner's ideas, negotiating tasks, and handling disagreements (Wisconsin Center for Education Research, 2014).

A Classroom Snapshot

Throughout the literature unit, Evelyn and Catie closely collaborated to create their multimodal projects. The pair strategically divided up aspects of the projects based on their interests and abilities, and later integrated and revised their work. Sometimes working separately, they reconvened throughout their process to read aloud to one another, synthesize information, edit the written text, and discuss design decisions. Control over the computer was equally shared because they took turns typing and controlling the mouse. It was crucial for them to work together to first gain an understanding of the assignment, digital tools, and content before they began composing and working together throughout the process.

An example of their close cooperation was illustrated during the first in-class workshop for their informational website that focused on the "Aftermath of the Vietnam War." First, Catie and Evelyn gathered as much information as they could on their topic from online resources and those around them. Taking turns, they then reviewed the goals and expectations by reading sections of the assignment sheet aloud to one another. They verbally synthesized the websites they encountered during their initial research and brainstormed new directions for their inquiry. At one point, they stopped to discuss the topic of "hippies" when they read the group was associated with the anti-war movement:

Catie: It [Vietnam] affected movies and like hippies.
Evelyn: What are really hippies? Like?
Catie: Hippies are people who wanted to get along and no more wars.
Evelyn: And it started during the Vietnam War?

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In this exchange, we see Catie and Evelyn negotiating the meaning of *hippies* by trying to define who hippies were and when the hippie movement started. This kind of exchange is particularly important for language learners in mainstream classes because they learn new vocabulary and cultural/historical content connected to a collaborative task.

Catie next took control of the computer, searched for "Hippies + Vietnam War," and read relevant sections from the website aloud to Evelyn. After discovering that protest music was associated with the hippie movement, Catie asked Pete, a peer sitting next to them, about possible ways music was connected to the aftermath of the Vietnam War. They also sought clarification by trying to define their topic with those around them, including Pete and Mrs. Buchanan:

Evelyn: So lasting aftermath, which means that it's something still going on now?
Catie: Or like five years ago after the Vietnam War or maybe two years ago after the Vietnam war. That would be the aftermath.
Pete: You want to talk about how it affected, specifically like, you could take Jimi Hendrix for example because he was part of the whole anti-war movement.
Catie (to Mrs. Buchanan): So Mrs. Buchanan for the lasting aftermath thing, do you want something that's still going on now or like something that was going on then and it's still affecting us now?
Mrs. Buchanan: It's pretty open-ended. You can go and look to see what you find. Some of it might be ways American culture was affected and some of it might be direct. I can give you a specific example to pursue: We used something called Agent Orange and other chemicals during the Vietnam War to strip the jungle of leaves and things so we could see into camps and that had really terrible health affects for people who lived there and that carried on to diseases and that kind of stuff.

This exchange between Evelyn, Catie, Pete, and Mrs. Buchanan showed they were negotiating the meaning of *lasting aftermath*. Evelyn and Catie engaged online and offline resources to assemble their understanding. Pete can be considered an "offline" resource—a peer—on whom the pair relied as a more knowledgeable student who could assist them. Catie also engaged with the teacher as a resource to clarify the exact meaning of *lasting aftermath*.

During the multimodal workshop sessions, Mrs. Buchanan assumed the role of facilitator by circulating to answer student questions and provide just-in-time technical support. She even let students step forward as experts by showcasing their specific technical skills to the class. Mrs. Buchanan's voice was crucial in the collaborative assignment, as a facilitator and teacher guiding all students through this process, and especially the English language learners as they engaged in specific discussions about content.

For the remainder of the workshop, Evelyn and Catie visited numerous websites—taking turns reading aloud while the other wrote notes (Figure 1). They worked together throughout the composing process to synthesize information, brainstorm images and videos for each subsection of their website, refer to the expectations of the assignment sheet, and ask those around them clarifying questions.

Even though Evelyn and Catie remained focused—working side-by-side during in-class workshops—outside of class, they strategically divided up their work both by content and media. They also separated design tasks for the webpage. In interviews, Catie explained that she "was in charge of choosing the color scheme, images, videos, and song" and "Evelyn was in charge of putting the text and pictures on the actual page."

Their close collaboration and clear task roles were crucial for completing all of their multimodal projects. Evelyn and Catie relied on each other to gain an understanding of the assignment, content, and technical tools and gave each other feedback throughout each stage of their process.

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Figure 1. Evelyn reads aloud from an informational webpage while Catie writes notes by hand.

When integrating their text, the pair worked meticulously to craft their language and ensure their writing "made sense." As learners, their tendency to read class materials and websites aloud to one another and work closely together to fully understand the assignment, content, and tools demonstrated how crucial collaboration was to their success.

Evelyn and Catie's final webpage on "The Aftermath of the Vietnam War" included four slide shows of photographs, an image collage, and the song "Fortunate Son" by Creedence Clearwater Revival, which automatically played when the page is first loaded. In her written reflection, Evelyn explained some of their design decisions:

> " We wanted an organized site, yet loud enough in modes to make the audience feel the experience not just read about it. Therefore we chose a sad song with a slightly pumping beat. A collage, but only on one side of the page. Pictures and slide shows, but neatly organized big enough to pop out and make the audience notice. We wanted it to be an organized chaos, somewhat like the shambles that both countries were trying to pick up at the end of the war, and there afterwards, even to now. " (Webpage interview)

Mrs. Buchanan felt that the pair was effective in meeting her instructional goals for the informational webpage product:

> " They did a good job of using a variety of different sources to gather information. I think the success of this page was that they managed to broadly cover the topic and introduced the viewer to the idea that there were all these different ways in which the Vietnam War had an impact. . . . There is in my mind some clear thinking on design. It's a little bit jumbled once you get to the bottom and the layout is a little disorganized at the bottom; however, I think those are minor weaknesses that were the result of not having been asked in the past to integrate multimodal elements like that. I think it was very interesting to see this pair's growth with this project. " (Teacher interview)

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When reflecting upon Catie and Evelyn's collaboration, she emphasized the importance of the students having the freedom to choose their partners, which contributed to their success. Mrs. Buchanan noted that the pair strategically divided up the work based on subsections of their website and different types of media. She explained, "They would each do work independently and then bring it together during class time and I think some of that was out of necessity, but some of it was just that they found this to be an efficient way to work. To some degree they trusted each other to do quality work."

This was one of the first multimodal projects Mrs. Buchanan assigned in her class, and she learned valuable lessons about how to effectively scaffold the process for students. The workshop structure allowed Mrs. Buchanan's students—who were at "such different levels with technology"—to receive both just-in-time technical support from her as well as technical assistance from their collaborative peers.

Pedagogical Implications

This case study demonstrates the importance of collaboration for English language learners when creating digital multimodal projects. Because Evelyn and Catie possessed the same limited skill with technology, it was imperative for them to work together at all stages of the composing process. Collaborative skills were a critical aspect of students' composing experience—including the division of labor and students' ability to successfully negotiate and leverage their unique skills and interests. Allowing students to choose their partners enabled Catie and Evelyn to work comfortably with a friend with whom they had a shared composing "mindset." Catie believed that she and Evelyn "worked really well with each other" because they were "really good friends" and had the ability to consider one another's ideas and "agree to disagree."

In order to foster productive and balanced collaborations while still providing students with collaborative choice, it is important to consider ways to equalize disparities in technical skills. Mrs. Buchanan tried to address the variations in technical experience by overtly teaching her students how to use tools early, when she assigned the multimodal project. She also demonstrated how to examine sources critically, follow copyright rules, and remix Internet content.

Mrs. Buchanan also served as a facilitator during the workshop time. She worked with students one-on-one and gauged common technical issues, which she addressed with a technical minilesson. The introduction of new tools and programs are an additional means to disrupt technical inequalities and place students on equal footing. This does not suggest, however, that it is not valuable (and realistic) to have variation in student expertise, and for a distributed model of technical skill and interest to be applied. What teachers should avoid, however, is the creation of an underclass of students who feel so technically inadequate that they are relegated to the sidelines. It is imperative for teachers to be aware of their students' technical skills and access to technology outside of school, as well as understand the tools themselves in order to know how to best support students.

Conclusion

The case study in this chapter aligns with prior research (Smith, 2013) that shows collaboration to be extremely important for students' multimodal composing processes. Students divided the project labor, provided one another with feedback, and tackled various pieces of the projects based on their own skills or interests. Through collaboration, a collegial environment was established where students valued and actively sought out one another's skills and perspectives in order to complete each project.

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This case also contributes theoretically to our understanding of multimodal composing processes in literacy classrooms. Digital tools are inherently more open and interactive than traditional print-based writing. They allow students to distribute work physically (e.g., by controlling different pieces of technology), modally (e.g., by choosing which modes and media to work on), and according to content (by choosing subsections to tackle), all important skills for language learning. In addition, the open nature of multimodal composition allowed students to collaborate by looking at each other's screens to monitor progress and provide feedback, sharing their work with a more global, authentic audience, and learning from each other about the appropriate use of language through multimodal composing processes. The unique openness of multimodal composition provided these emergent bilinguals with multiple entry points for communicating, as well as the ability to learn from and share their work with peers.

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CHAPTER

8 Challenging Deficit Perspectives With Digital Identity Texts

ANNE MARIE DUTCHER FOLTZ

Narrowing Education to Training

"I write, but it is never good enough." This statement, from a student in an intervention Writing Skills class at a rural high school in Oregon, is indicative of how someone can internalize and accept the condition of failure in the increasingly constrained environment of public schools in the United States. The accountability trend in U.S. education has resulted in tailoring curriculum to train students to do well on tests rather than emphasize higher level thinking and creativity. The narrowing of what qualifies as academically acceptable writing, and indeed what writing even *is*, can be especially problematic for English language learners (ELLs).

Since 2013, high school students in Oregon have had to demonstrate proficiency in writing, deemed an "essential skill," in order to earn a standard diploma ("Writing Essential Skill," 2016). Students who do not fulfill this requirement through testing or college entrance exams can do so by passing work samples, which are essays written in testing conditions that they complete without direct instruction or help. In the Fall of 2012, when the first group of high school seniors was approaching the deadline for meeting this requirement, I embarked on a project with a high school language arts teacher at a rural school in Oregon.

The Project and Context

The teacher, Mr. Greene, began the semester with two classes containing 60 students each, all of whom still needed to meet the requirement. Absenteeism was common in both classes because of students leaving the country to visit relatives or to travel, or because of the demands of parenthood. The classes were evenly divided by gender, and all students were either 17 or 18. Two thirds of the students were cultural minorities, with the remaining students either currently or previously receiving school district services as English language learners.

Mr. Greene's Writing Skills class was designed specifically for students in their last year of high school who had not reached the required level of writing proficiency. Mr. Greene was in his eighth

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year at the school, which had been labeled “In Need of Improvement” the prior year. I had taught high school language arts for nine years and was then working on a graduate degree in education and English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL).

He and I were both increasingly concerned about the constraints being imposed on students and teachers from the top. We assumed that students in the class would be at risk of feeling disenfranchised as writers because of the immense pressure to conform to the state-imposed standards for graduation. We wanted to challenge the narrow definition of writing and create a space where these students’ voices mattered. We also wanted to bring in powerful texts to inspire students. We designed a six-week unit during which students would produce their own essays, poems, and, ultimately, a digital story. The theme of the unit was “Carrying Culture across Borders.”

We had the students study published writing, which we called “mentor texts,” that could serve as inspiration (Kittle, 2008). George Ella Lyons’ poem “Where I’m From” (as cited in Christensen, 2000) mentored students as both poetry and as an idea. We encouraged students to think about their own cultural stories. Stephen King’s (2000) essay “Toolbox” and Julia Cofer’s (1995) poem “My Grandfather’s Hat” inspired students to see how everyday objects are imbued with meaning; both pieces served as inspiration for the students’ expository essays about an object. Finally, we introduced Marianna Corona’s digital story “Distance” (2012) to expand students’ understanding of text by incorporating a digital format because we wanted students to produce their own digital stories to share with varied audiences.

Early in the six-week unit, students wrote persuasive and expository essays that they could use as “work samples.” They also experimented with poetry. The school district did not allow students to submit any narrative essays because they were not deemed “academic” enough; therefore, we encouraged students to take a more creative, personal approach to this project by affirming their own personal stories. They later chose one of their writing samples to adapt as a digital story. When designing the project, Mr. Greene and I purposely built in opportunities for students to share their digital stories with different audiences: other students in class, online readers of the teacher’s blog, and district stakeholders at a school board meeting. This project encouraged students to resist the “test writing” their academic experience had been reduced to.

Identity and Struggle in Theory

The concept of identity features language learners engaging in the act of writing. Norton (2008) insisted that a student’s ability to effectively acquire language largely rests on the student’s perceived benefit of engagement. As teachers, we sought to find ways for our students who were labeled as “struggling” to challenge the narrative that they are failed communicators. Our solution was to provide access to meaningful writing practices so they could “claim alternative” and “more powerful identities” and thus become more active, invested learners in the classroom (Norton & Toohey, 2011, p. 415).

Technology offers opportunities for both students and teachers to challenge the “teach-to-the-test” practices and less creative curriculum that pervade schools today, especially for English language learners (Norton & Toohey, 2011). Rance-Roney and Young (2010) found that such learners engaged readily with technology in a digital storytelling project because they were able to discover new “control, authority, and legitimacy” (p. 80). We modeled various digital formats for students to choose from, and while some chose to use the slideshow program with which they were most familiar, many ventured into new territories, appropriating online animation platforms and storybook publishing software.

“Identity texts,” which are creative products or performances that students create to share with audiences, expand their understanding of what counts as literary texts. When language learners incorporate their home languages into their work, they are able to make connections between

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their native and new languages, often producing work of a higher caliber than might otherwise be expected of students still below their grade level in second-language proficiency (Cummins & Early, 2011). Incorporating first-language use encourages academic engagement through the affirmation of the students' linguistic assets.

Identity texts also allow teachers to experience their own liberation through what Cummins and Early (2011) called the "collaborative creation of power" (p. 10). This approach to pedagogy rejects the notion that power is a limited commodity and instead insists that power can be cultivated and shared through the affirmation of students' knowledge and the communities they come from. This stance encourages teachers to question and even resist the dominant discourse of high-stakes testing. They can do this by creating spaces in which their students' identities are affirmed through telling their own stories in the languages and formats they choose.

The Students and Their Projects

"Margarita" aptly described herself as "shy at first, like before you get to know me. And then, after that, I get loud, because I feel confidence." She moved between districts in elementary school after arriving from Mexico around the fourth grade. Her project focused on her family and bicultural identity, as shown in Figure 1 and Figure 2. Like other students in the class, Margarita enjoyed the personal topic, saying, "You know everything and you know what to write, and you can make descriptive phrases" because "we choose the topics we wanted to talk about."

"Thomas" was born in southern California and then moved to Oregon as a baby. He grew up in a nearby city and moved to the school district after his mother and sisters decided to join his step-father, who had been deported to Mexico. Thomas chose to stay in Oregon with his aunt so he could finish his education. Unfortunately, his aunt passed away.

Thomas described his grief over his aunt's death, as well as a sense of being a burden because his uncle did not really want to have him around. Despite these conflicting emotions, Thomas believed his decision to stay positive "helped me mature." Thomas was torn between his lack of interest in school and his determination to graduate. Mr. Greene showed particular concern about Thomas, noting the long hours he worked at a local fast food restaurant while attending school and taking care of himself.

Figure 1. Excerpt from Margarita's project.

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Figure 2. Excerpt from Margarita's project.

Thomas's project focused on his family and cultural heritage. He described himself as someone who "liked writing, just not at school." Toward the end of the unit, students shared their projects with the whole class, and he reacted to his classmates' comments about his writing style, saying, "It kind of felt like they were judging me, but it was more of a positive than a negative . . . like, when they said it sounded like a rap, and I was like, 'Oh, well that's cool.'" Thomas appreciated being able to open up, saying, "I got to showcase who I was, and . . . I got to show me more of a view of how my life was."

Thomas also discussed the artful backgrounds he discovered on one slideshow program. He said he chose a particular template because of the "layout" and because "It had a background of stars and the galaxy, and in a metaphorical way, it shows the feature of the 'Dark Past,' but the stars were the light . . . like light coming into the dark" (Figure 3). He revealed how much more

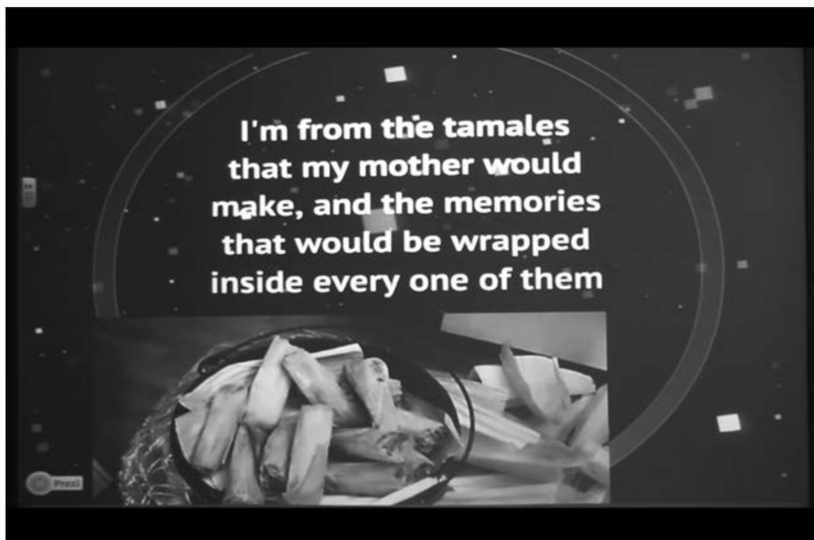

Figure 3. Excerpt from Thomas's project with a "Night Sky" theme.

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powerful this project was because he customized the visual effects based on his own intended meaning, affirming the importance of multiliteracies.

After Thomas presented his project for feedback, he was asked by his classmates to translate an expression for those in the class who did not speak Spanish. He explained the pun he included, "*Te aplacas o te aplaco*," as "Apply yourself or I will apply myself to you."

"Alfonso" talked about specific friendships and relationships with teachers as touchstones of his experience in school, which was quite a contrast with his experience attending elementary school in Mexico, where he got into fights daily. Still enrolled in English Language Development courses and considered an English language learner by the school administration, Alfonso had a lot of trouble passing any work samples because of his failure to master the "conventions" described in the state scoring guide. He described his project and his choice of an animation site because he liked how its "backgrounds," its "domos" (cartoon figures), and its images went "with my story," which was a humorous reflection about losing his phone (see Figure 4).

He reflected on the feedback he received, saying, "It was really great, good. How I presented and they gave me advices." He also enjoyed making his peers laugh by saying, "They think that it was funny, [and] I wasn't expecting that." Mr. Greene expressed some frustration that the final product was not perfectly edited. Alfonso clearly felt some pride in this project, however, and I was impressed that he was truly pleased that he entertained his classmates with his text.

"Edgar" was born in the state of Washington, but when he was just a few weeks old, his parents returned to Mexico. When he was 10, his family arranged for him to return to the United States with some guardians. He said that the main goal of returning was to get an "education here." He communicated a clear sense of responsibility or "owing it to the family" to take advantage of opportunities afforded by his citizenship, which his siblings did not have. At the same time, he was frustrated by the writing test, complaining that it was a nearly impossible feat for language learners to pass it and that he did not see the writing test's purpose in education.

He found testing to be especially unfair for students who have come to the United States from elsewhere. "If they speak English, shouldn't that be enough?" During the project, however, Edgar appropriated English writing to explain why he was in the United States without his family: "When people ask me, it's kind of hard 'cuz it's a long story." Edgar said the project made him

Figure 4. Excerpt from Alfonso's project.

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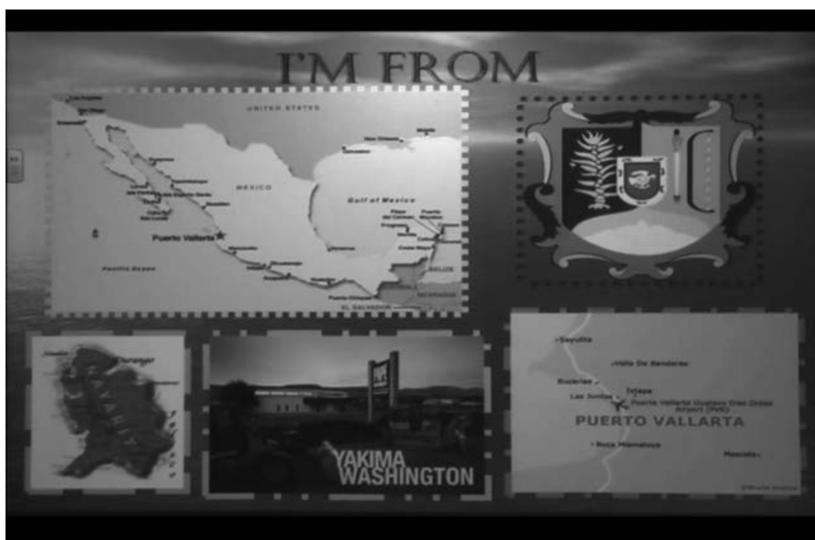

Figure 5. Excerpt from Edgar's project.

realize what he has accomplished: "I'm kind of proud because I'm the only one that's gone this far." I found it interesting that he so clearly made a connection between his project and his ability to explain his origins and his current struggle.

The Teacher's Reaction

Mr. Greene characterized the identity text project as an antidote to a class that would otherwise "just be deadly dry" due to state requirements. However, some students expressed frustration with taking time away from "test-writing" in order to work on a creative project. He addressed this issue, saying that in the high-stakes testing context, "What is the most enriching to students is the first thing on the chopping block when it comes to time." He felt schools were taking away what was most important to students in the quest for higher test scores. He struggled with his own complicity in this, however, by saying he was "feeling that tug to go faster when what we were doing was good for kids, and then feeling guilty that I felt that."

Mr. Greene felt the project was successful because the students were "feeling good about what they did" with their projects. He said he was especially "impressed with their bravery" and used one example to illustrate what was most meaningful for him:

> We had one particular student who wrote a poem that was clearly difficult for him to write. He was very proud of himself. He came back and shared it with me a number of times, and he presented it to the class, which was, you know, very brave. And he got some really positive reception and got some good feedback. And I think it connected him to his peers, but I think it showed him that he could connect himself to a place through writing. And that's huge. If ANY of my students can learn that writing can help them put down a root or two in the world, then that is something that is really valuable to me.

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Reflections and Recommendations

Choosing the content of their projects and how to address the theme of "Carrying Culture across Borders" was clearly important to the students showcased in this chapter. The theme resulted in the elevation of students' stories and defied the typical devaluation of their cultures as irrelevant or unworthy of celebration. One student, Jorge, commented that the project prompted him to have conversations with his mother about his cultural and religious background.

This point was amplified by Mr. Greene, who recognized the project's ability to foster students' deep thinking about their cultural identities. Students' experiences were not only 'permitted' in the classroom, they were elevated to the status of the central topic, creating the type of identity affirmation that is so important for academic investment. Students' languages, cultures, and personal experiences were legitimized, which was a powerful difference for marginalized students, who rarely see themselves reflected in the curriculum. In interviews, many students stated that writing about something meaningful helped them succeed with the project. For example, a student named Cristina said, "I liked [the poem] because it was easy to write, like where you're from, like your culture, I think . . . when you write something that you believe, then I think it is easier." It seems that allowing for such a deep personal connection to the curriculum is imperative for engaging these students who distrust their own ability to succeed in school.

Throughout this project, the students challenged notions about which language is the "right" language and who has the right to speak. Too often, and especially in remedial writing classes that focus on discrete skills, a student's native language is seen as a hindrance to the goal of writing fluently. Within the scope of this project, students' abilities to draw on other languages were not only accepted, they were celebrated. Students' other languages were not a deficit but an asset with which they could enrich others' experiences.

Student participants in this identity text project used the writing of the project as a vehicle to confront issues of their past that had significant impacts on their identities. Because many of the student participants had experienced hardships beyond their control—immigration, leaving family behind in Mexico, suffering the loss of loved ones—using the process of writing to discuss and discover their own trajectories was an empowering exercise that defied the test-writing practice of the typical "remedial" writing classroom. In this regard, one student revealed that she had once been homeless, prompting one peer to respond, "I like that she opened herself to share with us." This was the result of a teacher searching for new ways to create meaningful space for such intimate interaction in his classroom.

Too often, adolescent English language learners feel "like imposters in their second language" (Rance-Roney & Young, 2010, p. 70), so it is especially profound that these students, who had been labeled failed writers, experienced using the tool of writing to reveal themselves in new and liberating ways. The central importance of these projects was to show students how writing can be used to express who they are. This learning experience encouraged them to value the academic writing process more.

The biggest challenge was satisfying the desire for more time to spend on the project rather than the standard curriculum. This desire illustrates the central tension for teachers who choose to purposely resist the dominance of the testing culture in U.S. public schools. Ultimately, Mr. Greene's resistance to the test-writing curriculum allowed his students to create personally meaningful and digitally creative texts and afforded him the experience he most prizes as a teacher: seeing his students find new ways of interacting with their contexts and identities through writing.

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SECTION 4:
LANGUAGE AND SERVICE LEARNING

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CHAPTER 9

A Cycle of Success: Extending Learning for Newcomers With High School Volunteers

BARBARA PAGE AND TOSHIKO MAURIZIO

This is the story of a Saturday English program for newcomers at an Oregon middle school in the United States. It began with a group of bright and eager English language learners (ELLs) who inspired us, their teacher and principal, respectively, to create an extended learning program to help them learn English and adjust to their new country. Within two years, the Meadow Park Saturday Newcomer Academy (SNA) expanded to grades 5–12 district-wide and included a dedicated team of volunteer tutors from nearby high schools.

For our district's many newcomers from around the world, attending a welcoming English language class filled with talking, laughing, and learning has become a Saturday morning ritual that helps to accelerate language learning and ease the adjustment to a new country.

We are an experienced teacher of English as a Second or Other Language (ESOL) (first author Barbara Page) and an administrator with a background in ESOL (second author Toshiko Maurizio) who share a sense of urgency. Since our middle schoolers have a critical window of opportunity to catch up in their language proficiency before attending high school, we wanted to harness their natural aptitude for language learning through peer interaction and provide extra time for language practice.

The Saturday academy we established was able to accomplish this thanks to the hard work of teachers, community liaisons, and our team of local high school volunteers. Many of our volunteers are former English learners who spend up to 18 Saturday mornings during the school year as English tutors. Volunteering on Saturdays allows them to earn community service hours that count toward high school credits, fulfill requirements for honors diplomas, or work on their college applications. Through their empathy for the newcomers and their commitment to the program, these volunteers hone their linguistic expertise and leadership skills. They empower the newcomers, and themselves, by their role as language-learning mentors. The academy leverages the bilingual, bicultural talents of volunteers and the determination and energy of newcomer students and families, creating a cycle of success.

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Context and Rationale

The Saturday Newcomer Academy is based in a public school serving grades 6, 7, and 8. The school is part of the Beaverton School District, which serves over 5,000 English language learners from a variety of backgrounds, including many recent refugees. When veteran TESOL specialist Barbara Page came to Meadow Park in 2012, her English Language Development classes included students who had interruptions in schooling and virtually no experience with print concepts. Others had learned some English grammar in their home countries but had little confidence speaking English.

Their mainstream teachers had training in strategies to help newcomers access the content of their lessons, but the learners needed more time for specialized English instruction and practice to prepare for high school. Because Principal Maurizio ran a Saturday class for homework assistance for all Meadow Park students, Barbara suggested that her beginning English learners come to her classroom on Saturdays for extra practice. Toshiko, a former TESOL practitioner herself, was enthusiastic about the plan.

The program started with a small group of Meadow Park's eager newcomers. As a former high school teacher, Barbara knew that high schoolers often seek community service hours for college applications or course requirements, so she invited high school volunteers to tutor the newcomers on Saturdays. The high school mentors were a huge success, and as word about the class spread among the newcomers, their siblings and friends started to come as well. It became clear that the need and interest for a more formal Saturday English academy existed.

Creating the Program

Our district has many English learners at all levels, but we wanted to focus the program on the specialized learning needs of newcomers facing special challenges as they prepare for high school and college (Short & Boyson, 2012). The term "newcomers," as defined by our program, refers to students who have been in U.S. schools for three years or fewer and who have scored at the beginner level on assessments of English proficiency. We took into account that academic demands and the English vocabulary gap between a new language learner and an English-speaking peer are much greater in higher grades, thereby increasing the urgency to catch up before high school. We decided to focus the program on our preteen and adolescent English learners who were new to English and U.S. schools.

The Saturday Newcomer Academy is a drop-in, voluntary program open to newcomers currently enrolled in grades 5–12. Students are referred to us by their home school's ELL specialist or community liaison. We collect information—grade level, home language, and English proficiency level—on every student, with permission from parents or guardians. At our first session of the school year, after welcoming icebreaker activities and introductions, we administer a multiple choice vocabulary test and an oral interview as preassessment screeners. We try to limit the program to our highest-need newcomers because we want to maximize one-on-one interactions.

Best practices for such students include extended learning time and a focus on the skills newcomers need to catch up in academics as well as language development. District funds were allocated for the teachers and bilingual facilitators who plan the curriculum and supervise the volunteers and the newcomers. Together with the district's volunteer coordinator, we developed an informational pamphlet, a volunteer agreement, and an orientation packet. This included a "Tutoring Tips" flyer explaining how to assist with English language learning. We require all volunteers to attend a one-hour orientation, led by our lead bilingual facilitator, in order to complete the required documentation and background check and to receive training on how to be effective language tutors. All volunteers are under the supervision of ESOL specialists.

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The high school volunteers earn service-learning hours for their time. As noted earlier, in some cases, the high schoolers have been able to use the service hours toward an elective credit at their school. One high school senior even turned her volunteer work into a service project for her honor's diploma. Volunteer hours are carefully documented by our bilingual facilitator, and volunteers received a certificate of service at our end-of-the-school-year recognition party. By May of 2015, the program had grown to include 30 newcomer students from around the district and a team of 20 dedicated high school volunteers.

Grounding Practice in Current Theory

The theoretical foundation for the Saturday Newcomer Academy is based on interaction as a means for supporting English language acquisition (Foster & Ohta, 2005). Students' enthusiasm about the program and their warm connections to our volunteers and teachers led us to include enhanced school engagement as an additional outcome (Birman & Tran, 2016; Suárez-Orozco, Pimentel, & Martin, 2009). We also noticed other benefits, because the high school volunteers used their own multilingual and multicultural skills to help scaffold learning and ease cultural adjustment (Manyak, 2004). Our program included three goals: (1) accelerated language acquisition for the newcomers, (2) establishment of positive peer and teacher bonds, and (3) enhanced academic identities for the high school volunteers.

Multilingual and multicultural competence are unequivocal assets, and we encourage students to use, value, and maintain their home languages. When asked why he volunteers with the newcomers, one high school junior replied, "I learn too!" and stated that the interactions with students from different backgrounds has broadened his own world view.

Our main goal is to create a welcoming, inclusive environment. We believe that validating the linguistic and cultural capital of our students and their families helps to establish an atmosphere of mutual respect that is conducive to learning. The resources and language skills that minority students and their families bring to their schools and community are also known as "funds of knowledge" that can be described in this way: "Based on a simple premise: people are competent and have knowledge, and their life experiences have given them that knowledge" (González, Moll, & Amanti, 2005, p. 4). The importance of experiential knowledge is a core value of our program, so we actively seek to acknowledge and embrace the many strengths of our students, their families, and our volunteers.

Newcomers with a strong academic foundation in their native languages transfer that knowledge to English fairly quickly; others with interruptions in schooling need more time on the fundamentals of print literacy and academic concepts (DeCapua & Marshall, 2010). Refugee students, many of whom have undergone trauma, may be especially at risk, so providing a safe, respectful, and welcoming place for them is very important.

Our program allows us to connect refugee learners to a circle of caring teachers and peers and provide specialized instruction to meet individual needs. For newcomer immigrant youth, "supportive school-based relationships strongly contribute to both the academic engagement and the school performance of the participants" (Suárez-Orozco, Pimentel, & Martin, 2009, p. 713). Nurturing this personal touch is especially crucial for students with limited or interrupted formal schooling, because, according to DeCapua and Marshall (2010), these students "learn by doing, by following a role model, by operating within a context, and by obtaining feedback from the results themselves or from other people" (p. 8).

Our program is grounded in both cognitive and constructivist theories (Foster & Ohta, 2005), and the pedagogical focus is on maximizing the oral language interaction between newcomer English learners and volunteers. As supportive interlocutors, or language partners, volunteers provide the priceless opportunity for one-on-one conversations in the target language. For our

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Figure 1. Learning stations focus on foundational language skills.

newcomer learners, the time they spend with a patient volunteer partner is crucial (Carhill-Poza, 2015). "The more I allow the volunteers and students to interact with each other, the more students tend to open up," noted one of our ESOL specialists.

The curriculum for the newcomer program is focused on building fluency and confidence in English foundational and survival language. Volunteers use pocket folders labeled by theme for working on functional language: days of the week, numbers, money, time, and school-related vocabulary. As students progress and master these skills, more complex conversational tasks are introduced, such as talking on the phone, going to the school nurse, or explaining how to make something.

Instructional activities are designed around a series of stations serviced by the high school volunteers (see Figure 1). Using flashcards and realia, we design high-interest tasks involving collaborative problem-solving or information gaps. Volunteers provide scaffolding, or temporary assistance, to lead students to independent proficiency. ESOL specialists monitor the interactions between students and volunteers, observing, collecting anecdotal records, and intervening as needed to make sure students are getting maximum oral language practice.

Volunteers as Intercultural and Language Mentors

High school students who sign up to be volunteers at the SNA make a significant commitment of time and energy, and they also bring their own impressive intercultural communication skills. When asked what they like about volunteering, the most common reply is that they "know what it's like" and want to help. This statement reveals their empathy, but beyond that, we discovered that the collegial interaction taps into learners' funds of knowledge, their cognitive strengths, and communicative competencies, skills most have been developing in their homes and communities for years. Many children of immigrants serve as family interpreters, using their knowledge of language and culture to help their families navigate various aspects of life in a new country. This interpreting or "para-phrasing" (Orelana et al., 2003) involves complex cognitive and linguistic

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skills and includes children as active participants: "Their expertise really matters for families' health, survival, and social advancement" (p. 18).

We had anticipated that volunteers' bilingualism would be an asset, but as we watched them interact with children from varied backgrounds, we saw that the bilingual volunteers' ability to gauge the needs of the learners and modify their interactions transcended mere interpreting. They knew intuitively when and how to reframe questions, use gestures, extend an activity, or move on when working with their young charges. As one ESOL specialist stated, "Volunteers automatically create extension questions or modify questions depending on the oral language level of the student. Language instruction seems to come naturally to them."

Because the volunteers are, in effect, initiating the newcomers into American school life, their role is that of an academic mentor, a role that is empowering and confidence building for the high schoolers. Their bilingualism is viewed as an "emblem of academic competence" (Manyak, 2004, p. 17), in contrast to deficit views of multilingualism. By acting as more capable guides to academic English and the school experience, their own academic identities are strengthened and reinforced (Orelana, Dorner, & Pulido, 2003; Suárez-Orozco, Pimentel, & Martin, 2009). As one of our ESOL specialists observed, "One of the most thrilling things for me as a SNA teacher is to see a student from my elementary English language development class who is now a high school volunteer. It is an amazing opportunity for former ELLs to shine and share their experiences and expertise."

Voices From the Newcomer Students

> “When I first came here, I didn't know how to read [English], but the Saturday Academy helped me a lot.” (Sahra,[1] a former SNA student)

Several of the regular attendees of the program are Somali Bantu students born in Yemen. Like many refugees, they had sporadic schooling, if any, before coming to the United States (Birman & Tran, 2015; Dryden-Petersen, 2015). In interviews about the program, they said they learned foundational skills, like spelling, and cultural concepts, such as telling time and counting money. Because students with limited or interrupted formal schooling benefit from instruction that is tailored to their needs (DeCapua & Marshall, 2010), the one-on-one interactions with volunteers at the Saturday Newcomer Academy "can help you catch up," according to Sahra.

Her sister, Fathia, now in high school, described trying to read when she first arrived as a seventh grader: "They told me to read, and I was like, 'What is this? I don't know how to do this!' but now I know how to read, and the Saturday school was a big part of it." She said she "strongly agrees" that newcomers benefit from the extra instruction (see Figure 2).

> “You learn, but you have fun too.” (Carlos, a former SNA student from Mexico)

Newcomers face special challenges, but they are also adolescents who are often concerned with fitting in socially with peers. Developing a sense of well-being in their new environment is crucial to their language learning and school success. School-based relationships that help English learners with acculturation issues like loneliness, depression, and culture shock build resilience so they are able to participate in the acquisition of language and succeed academically (Suárez-Orozco, Pimentel, & Martin, 2009).

A former newcomer from Mexico, Angelina, advanced three levels in her English proficiency during the year she attended the SNA as a sixth grader. This was a point of pride for her as well as for her parents. Angelina also stressed the friendships she made: "It helped me make friends

[1] All names other than the authors' are pseudonyms.

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Figure 2. "We learn from each other!" through one-on-one interactions.

I could practice speaking with so I could improve my English." Former refugee Sahra was a regular at the Saturday program for two years. This positive connection to school helped her to persevere with learning to read, an obstacle many in her situation find overwhelming, according to DeCapua and Marshall (2010).

Voices From the Parents

"Sahra was very behind when she came here," said her mother, "But when she started attending the Saturday Newcomer Academy, she started to progress and she started liking school more and more." The importance of building positive relationships at school transcends cultures (Birman & Tran, 2015). The crucial point about newcomer centers such as the SNA is that they provide more individual attention and learning time in support of students' academic and social needs.

One very important benefit of the program is the safe, welcoming atmosphere in which beginners can practice English. One parent from Iraq said:

> "When all of the kids are beginners, they feel more comfortable speaking English together, whether their native language is Arabic or Spanish or Somali. In a mainstream class with English speakers, beginners might feel hesitant to speak up even if they know the answer, but when they are all together at the same level, they have the courage to participate. They know they're all learning together."

Because parents' educational attainment often affects school outcomes, families understand the value of the extra academic support for their children. Parents also noted that it helps them

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because their children can assist them with English at home. They said the students pass along what they learn to other family members too, an example of the important role children can play in helping their families and communities adjust to life in a new country (see Orelana et al., 2003). "Es como una cadena" (It's like links in a chain). These words of a father from Mexico best captured the cycle of learning, growing, and giving back to the community. As he explained, the volunteers are role models in how to adjust to a new country and "seguir adelante," keep moving forward.

Volunteers Develop Their Voices

The sense of mutual benefit was also evident in conversations with the volunteers. Three of the volunteers were former English learners themselves who stressed how much they enjoyed helping others. Volunteer Isabel said, "I know how hard it is, and I know they might feel really insecure, but I'm able to make them feel better." She added, "I tell them, 'You may not get it on the first try, but eventually you're going to get it.'" These particular volunteers, all bilingual in Spanish and English, reported that they have been using their language skills as family interpreters since about third grade. They felt that this experience helped them as language tutors for the newcomers, regardless of where the students are from. Victoria explained, "When I translated for my mom, I would have to use other examples to explain things, and that helps me teach them."

One volunteer, Miguel, said that he had been very shy before he began to volunteer, but that the program has made him feel more confident and comfortable. "I'm more open minded," he said, "It encourages me to volunteer more." Isabel and Victoria also felt that volunteering had given them more confidence and that the experience of interacting with others helps them to speak up more in other situations, to find their own voices, and to discover career interests and character traits they didn't know they had. High school junior Isabel told us, "I learned that I like kids and I'm patient!" which will be helpful in the pediatric field she's considering. Miguel said that volunteering has helped him explore what a career in education might be like because, as he put it, "I feel like a teacher already!"

An SNA staff member who works with many of the volunteers as a bilingual facilitator noted, "The returning tutors have so much more confidence in their speaking, communicating and socializing skills; they are learning too. It is a win-win opportunity." One of the EL specialists claimed, "Their own understanding of the world is expanded because they're learning about all these different places, and people and languages."

Reflections and Recommendations

According to Carhill-Poza (2015, p. 692),

> More needs to be done to provide adolescent English learners with opportunities to develop social networks that include academically engaged and English-proficient peers so that they can experience the sustained, linguistically rich interpersonal interactions that they need to use and learn academic English.

Before we started the program, we knew we needed to do something more to help our newcomers catch up in English and academics. Since it was founded, the Saturday Newcomer Academy has provided hundreds of hours of extended learning time for our district's newcomer students in a welcoming space.

Of course, there are logistical and programmatic considerations. For example, overhead costs require district support, and we need to coordinate with building administrators. Volunteers have to be recruited and monitored by bilingual facilitators. Our biggest challenge is time. As full-time teachers, our ESOL specialists are so busy that it's a challenge to add Saturdays to their schedules.

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Since all our staff volunteered to be part of the SNA, we share a commitment to our newcomers' well-being and academic success. As we reflect on progress so far toward our goals, it's apparent that the research-based practices of the SNA have accelerated newcomers' English language acquisition and provided more positive connections to school and academically engaged peers. We have also seen our high school volunteers flourish as academic mentors, instilled with confidence and a sense of accomplishment.

The objective of the Saturday Newcomer Academy was initially to support the language and literacy acquisition of newcomer English learners and help them build the relationships that we know can help them adjust and thrive in U.S. schools (Birman & Tran, 2015; Suárez-Orozco, Pimentel, & Martin, 2009). As the program developed and the positive relationships between the newcomers and their volunteer mentors flourished, an additional benefit evolved: the leadership role for the volunteers gave the high school students an opportunity to shine as bilingual role models, gain valuable service-learning experience, and give back to their community. This dynamic resulted in a program that is a mutually beneficial and sustainable cycle of success.

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CHAPTER 10 Service Learning, Reflection, and Narrative Inquiry: Teaching and Learning in the Science Classroom

MICHAELA COLOMBO AND SARAH BOUCHARD, WITH SEBASTIAN MARTE

In this chapter, Sarah, Sebastian, and Michaela tell the story of how service learning, integrated into a TESOL methods course, fostered reflection on teaching and learning in Sarah's eighth-grade science classroom. Michaela was the instructor of the TESOL methods course, and Sarah, a monolingual woman in her fifth year of teaching, was a student in this course. A one-time scientist in private industry, Sarah had a great amount of expertise and understanding for teaching science. She enrolled in the TESOL methods course as a requirement for a master's degree program with teacher licensure and a Sheltered English Instruction (SEI) endorsement. Sebastian was a thoughtful and curious 13-year-old English language learner (ELL) from the Dominican Republic and a student in Sarah's science class. He spoke Spanish as a first language and arrived in the United States three years ago with solid academic ability in science. He was the focus of Sarah's service-learning project that we describe in this chapter.

The TESOL methods course serves pre- and in-service teachers seeking teacher licensure. It has three overarching and connected goals. The first is to prepare teachers with English as a Second Language (ESL) instructional strategies and a grounding in TESOL theory. Because teaching and learning do not occur in a vacuum, the second goal is to prepare teachers to implement strategies based on individual learner needs, which requires a cycle of action and reflection (Farrell, 2015). Most students in the methods course are monolingual English speakers. Thus, the third goal is to foster understanding of the broad contextual factors that influence the education of language learners, such as the type of language development program, the role of previous education, and the conditions in which students and their families live.

Service Learning in the TESOL Methods Course

Several years ago, the TESOL methods course was taught in a university classroom. Students learned theories and strategies, observed ESL classes, and learned about English language learners through case studies. Students demonstrated their understanding by developing instructional units, critiquing lessons, and analyzing case studies. Yet often their understanding seemed

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formulaic, as though the implementation of a certain instructional strategy directly resulted in specific learning for all English language learners. Reflecting on these limited outcomes, Michaela adjusted the course by incorporating service learning.

Course participants now meet once a week at a local school. The preservice teachers arrive 90 minutes prior to the methods class to first teach English language learners in an after-school program. Immediately following this service learning, the methods class begins. This structure works well for preservice teachers who are not yet employed. In-service teachers like Sarah, however, must arrange service-learning experiences within their own schools and districts, after which they attend the methods class with the preservice teachers.

Service learning is a teaching and learning approach that integrates meaningful service with instruction and ongoing reflection. A central tenet of service learning is that it engages both the provider (in this case Sarah) and the recipient (in this case Sebastian) in respectful and mutually beneficial relationships (Jacoby, 2015). Like volunteers, service learning providers are unpaid, but the centrality of a mutually beneficial relationship distinguishes service learning from volunteering, in which benefits to the provider are incidental.

Service learning has been shown to foster content knowledge, enhance teaching skills, and promote critical reflection about less visible aspects of teaching for regular education preservice teachers (Verducci & Pope, 1999). The limited research on service learning for teachers of language learners suggests that service learning promotes understanding about the barriers language learners encounter and appreciation for the perseverance they bring to the classroom (Eyler & Giles, 1999).

Service learning requires a structure, such as the methods course, to ensure that service is connected to learning and that there are ongoing opportunities for reflection (Jacoby, 2015). The framework grounding the TESOL methods courses comprises three components: (1) reflection, (2) service-learning experience as a structure for reflection, and (3) written narrative as a tool for reflection (see Farrell, 2015; Jacoby, 2015; Johnson & Golombek, 2011).

Reflection is a cyclical process that is critical to teaching. It begins in practice, which evolves as teachers engage in reflection (Farrell, 2015). This reflection cycle requires that teachers notice an experience, describe and analyze the experience, and then take action based on their analysis (Dewey, 1916/1944; Farrell, 2015). Reflection requires time, which is often elusive in U.S. schools today, where teachers experience constant pressure to raise standardized test scores (Franklin & Snow-Gerono, 2007).

Situating the service-learning experience into the TESOL methods course provides in-service teachers impetus to interact with one or two learners and time to notice, describe, and analyze those experiences. Embedding service learning within the methods course also ensures structured time for reflecting with others. During the first 30 minutes of each TESOL methods class, students discuss their service learning in small groups and share with the larger class.

The methods course requires written reflective narratives, which account for 60% of the final course grade. Each week, the teacher-students write what they have learned about language learners and themselves as teachers. They speculate about how their backgrounds may differ from or be similar to those of the language learners they work with. They reflect on the strengths and needs their students bring to the classroom. They also reflect on instructional strategies and their effectiveness. Writing is a powerful tool for reflection (Johnson & Golombek, 2011), and forces pre- and in-service teachers to slow down, describe, and analyze their service-learning experiences. Johnson and Golombek (2011) found that by writing their own narratives, in-service teachers made sense of their day-to-day practices, applied theory to practice, and made sense of practice through theory. Additionally, narratives written across a semester become a written record of practice and reflections that teachers can systematically examine.

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The School District and Sarah's Classroom

The university and Sarah's school district enjoy a long-standing partnership that includes ESL licensure courses tailored to district teachers and ongoing in-service professional development. Spanish is the first language for approximately 70% of students in the district, and 31% of them need continuing English language support. The district was classified as underperforming based on student scores on state standardized assessments, and consequently test preparation has become normative practice. At Sarah's school, teachers in grades 5 through 8 administer three standardized tests each spring in preparation for the annual high-stakes state test. As a result, students and teachers experience test fatigue, and there is little time for reflection.

English-proficient students and English language learners, including Sebastian, are grouped together in Sarah's classroom. Sarah and Sebastian share a love for science, which may have implications for their teaching and learning relationship. Science as a subject has the potential to provide language learners with a meaningful entry point into academic language and literacy (NSTA, 2009). This seems especially true when students have access to rigorous materials and instruction that promote English language development through science content (NSTA, 2009). When teachers employ ESL strategies in science classrooms, students benefit from both conceptual knowledge and content-area academic language (August, Branum-Martin, Cárdenas-Hagan, Francis, Powell, Moore, & Haines, 2014).

Sarah and Sebastian's Service-Learning Experience

Sarah chose to complete her service-learning assignment with Sebastian because of his curiosity and interest in science. Sarah wanted to know more about how Sebastian learned and to provide additional support for him, so she worked with Sebastian for 60–90 minute sessions after school, completing 15 hours of service learning. At the beginning of the semester, Sarah wrote in her narrative:

> “I sincerely love science. Students tell me that I explain things well and that I help them sort out their misunderstandings and misconceptions. I work hard to avoid simply “covering” content and I will not move on if assessment indicates that my students need more time with a concept. Unfortunately, I am not as comfortable teaching English language learners. I just do not feel prepared.”

Sebastian provided[1] an overview of his motivation for learning science:

> “My family moved here so I would get a better education. My father is an automotive mechanic. I enjoy exploring how car engines work because I can connect it to science. My goal is to go to college and become an engineer. I like school very much, but it sometimes it is still difficult for me to understand everything in my classes, and especially my English language arts classes.”

When Sebastian and Sarah agreed to work together after school, they were unaware of how much they would learn from one another.

[1] Sebastian's quotes have been captured by Sarah and Michaela—and reviewed for accuracy by Sebastian.

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Understanding the Strengths of English Language Learners

The objective of the first written reflective narrative in the methods course is to engage the pre- and in-service teachers in a process in which they begin to notice, describe, and analyze similarities and differences between their experiences and those of the learners with whom they are working. As Sarah explains:

> The most obvious commonality between us is our love of science and our mutual desire to become all that we can be, both from an academic perspective and from a character development perspective. Things that appear to *click* for Sebastian and make sense in science class are things that also *clicked* for me. His enthusiasm for his education is something that I truly appreciate and relate to. I feel invested in doing my part to send him to high school prepared for chemistry and biology courses. . . . I share none of Sebastian's struggles as an English learner and have trouble relating to the experience of moving to a new country and adapting to a new culture and language. Truly, I can only imagine what this must be like.

Sarah analyzed the similarities (their love of science and desire to be the best they can be) and their differences (Sarah grew up in the United States and spoke English, whereas Sebastian was learning a new culture and a new language). Based on her analysis, she continued to develop an appreciation for Sebastian's strengths and the barriers he confronted (moving and adapting to a new culture and language). She made a commitment to provide Sebastian with extra support that endured well beyond the TESOL methods course requirement.

Sarah wrote that prior to beginning her work with Sebastian, she had perceived the learners in her classroom as a "burden or source of extra, unwanted work and planning." Through reflection, Sarah concluded that this feeling stemmed from the fact that she had felt "intimidated and overwhelmed by her learners and did not engage them at the same level as fully English-proficient students." She identified and described a problem in her practice: She was "isolating learners" by not including them meaningfully in instruction.

By midsemester, Sarah's ongoing analysis of the service learning showed an increased comfort level to "engage with all her English learners." The combination of Sarah's teaching, structured time for reflective discussions (30 minutes per week in the TESOL course), and weekly written reflective narratives contributed to Sarah's increased confidence teaching ESL students.

Sebastian appeared to gain confidence as well, perhaps because of a sense of support. As Sebastian explains: "I think what was most important about working with Mrs. Bouchard is that she made me know that I would be able to do well in school. She always had time to work with me. She believed I could succeed and she was willing to help me to do so." Sebastian and Sarah illustrate that teaching does not follow a prescribed formula; rather, ongoing instructional decisions are based on a teacher's reflections of strengths and needs of each student.

Reflecting on Sarah's service-learning journey, Michaela suggests that her learning path is typical for many of the pre- and in-service teachers who complete the TESOL methods course. Developing teachers often reflect on their initial concerns about teaching language learners and their growing understanding on the learners' strengths. Through teaching, reflecting with others, and writing reflective narratives, they begin to identify pathways for teaching them more effectively.

Assessing English Language Learners and Analyzing the Demands of Texts

Sarah describes two incidents below that thrust her into a cycle of reflection that transformed her theory of assessing English language learners. Referring to science concepts, Sarah wrote:

> " I am learning not to take a student's statement of understanding at face value and to probe deeply to verify their understanding. I now ask students to apply concepts to new situations

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in order to confirm their understanding. It is my work with Sebastian and other EL students this semester that is making me realize how crucial it is to verify understanding by having ELs explain their understanding in new circumstances. ”

Sarah's reflection illustrates her growing awareness of the importance of teaching language learners for their depth of content understanding, moving away from her previously linear and formulaic approach to teaching and learning. She now works to find ways for students to "apply concepts to new situations" within the time constraints in a school environment that demands rapid pacing of the curriculum and student success on multiple standardized tests.

The following passage is an example of how Sarah assessed Sebastian's understanding of water vapor using familiar references (the can of soda) that enabled Sebastian to apply his knowledge to a different situation. Sarah describes the first incident:

> “ I asked him to describe why a cold can of soda removed the refrigerator "sweats" when it is left out for a while in the summer. He used knowledge of evaporation and condensation and academic language to explain the condensation that occurs on the side of the soda can. Then I knew he understood. ”

In another incident, Sarah assessed Sebastian's understanding of informational text that students read as part of the regular science curriculum.

> “ I asked Sebastian if he understood a scientific nonfiction passage. He said he did, but when I asked questions it was clear he was confused. I specifically asked him about *this, that,* and *it,* which referred to events or ideas previously discussed in the text. He acknowledged that he didn't always know what the *this, that,* or *it* sentence construction was referring to. Reflecting on this experience resulted in a change in my instruction: I now model reading and regularly ask Sebastian to retell what he has read. ”

In this example, Sarah applied strategies she learned in the TESOL methods course, such as analyzing content-area texts for language forms and structures that may be difficult for ESL students, such as pronoun referencing. Think-aloud protocols (Olshavsky, 1977) required the pre- and in-service teachers to model how they make sense of text structures in the readings they ask their learners to read. Sarah's reflection on this stimulated a change in her instructional practice, and she learned to use science content to teach English literacy.

Using Science Texts to Teach and Assess Reading

Sarah's general reflection on Sebastian's ability was: "Sebastian's strengths are plentiful. He is motivated and intelligent. He hardly ever misinterprets or misunderstands concepts. He nearly always understands the content, frequently with far more ease than his fully English-proficient peers." In contrast, Sarah described him as "more dubious" when she introduced a unit on scientific text.

Sarah later reflected on a formative reading assessment she conducted with Sebastian and concluded that a "lack of confidence in English may prevent Sebastian from becoming fully proficient in literacy," which Sebastian compensates for by "sticking with what he knows he is good at and avoiding other tasks." To help Sebastian develop his academic reading skills, Sarah elected to teach him reading literacy through science—a subject that motivates Sebastian. She explains:

> “ This week, Sebastian and I worked together on a scientific nonfiction article I chose because it supports the scientific nonfiction text Common Core standards. I realize too how important promoting literacy in science is for my learners. Sebastian and I read the article together. First, I read it aloud. I modeled how I processed the text by stopping frequently to show how I thought about the words and phrases in the text. I asked and answered questions and summarized the text by saying, 'Ok so what I think the author is saying here is . . .' I essentially did a read-aloud strategy. ”

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Sebastian explains how he benefited from Sarah's literacy instruction:

> Mrs. Bouchard helped me to be able to read science articles in English. She also worked with me—and sometimes other students to make sure that we understood the reading. She would read with us together and then show us what she did when she didn't understand what she had read. One day Mrs. Bouchard read an article aloud with Ana, Maria, Sophia (pseudonyms), and me. She showed us how she stopped when she read and asked questions. Then we each played a part in the article. I was the carbon in the carbon dioxide molecule. Ana was one of the oxygen atoms, and Maria was the other oxygen atom. Sophia was the sun. She shined a flashlight on Ana, Maria, and me. We had to look at the article and then move around until we were able to break apart into a carbon atom (me) and an oxygen molecule (Ana and Maria). We did a lot of things like that with Mrs. Bouchard. It helped me to remember to stop when I read, to ask myself questions, and to make sure I understood. I still do this when I read.

As Sebastian illustrates, Sarah's use of modeling and total physical response (Asher, 1966) made the article comprehensible. She also modeled strategies frequently enough that Sebastian adopted the strategy, which he continues to use.

Conclusion and Recommendations

In this chapter, we illustrated the power of service learning. We showed how each component of the service-learning framework contributes to *learning*. The service learning we outlined was embedded in a TESOL methods course. This integrated structure appears to be critical for educators because it provides essential time and space for reflection with others (Jacoby, 2015). Teachers make sense of their service learning through these reflections. Written reflective narrative is a powerful tool for teachers' reflection (Johnson & Golombek, 2011). It is also a powerful teaching tool for teacher-educators, who can read narratives between classes, reflect on what teachers and students are learning, and provide timely and purposeful feedback.

We encourage teacher-educators to consider integrating service learning into their TESOL courses. We have found that service learning is not as effective when it stands outside the course as an additional assignment. The approach we took was integrating the service-learning component into a TESOL methods course through major assignments, in-class reflection, and weekly written reflective narrative assignments. Receiving the written narrative between classes enabled the instructor (Michaela) to read Sarah's reflections and plan instruction accordingly. Service learning provides an authentic setting for novice teachers to learn about English language learners and about themselves as ESL teachers because the teaching and learning is grounded in context rather than dictated by formulas.

Our experiences and the analysis Michaela has conducted of her students' narratives have convinced us that service learning has the potential to transform teaching and learning for everyone involved. In this case, Sarah became a more confident and reflective teacher, and Sebastian learned strategies for reading academic text that he continues to apply today. Reading students' narratives such as Sarah's on a weekly basis throughout the semester continues to transform the way Michaela approaches the TESOL course. Rather than teach generic TESOL methods, she teaches her students TESOL methods to reflect on and plan for the language learners they teach. We conclude that service learning has done us all a tremendous service in many ways as learners and teachers.

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SECTION 5: TEACHER AND STUDENT VOICES IN THE LEARNING PROCESS

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CHAPTER 11 Student and Teacher Attitudes About English Education in Brazilian Public Schools

JULIANA JANDRE AND VANDER VIANA

Foreign Language Education in Brazil

Public education in Brazil is offered by federal, state, or municipal governments. Although all three levels are autonomous, they are required to comply with federally defined guidelines for education. Primary and secondary schools do not have to follow a specific national curriculum, but they have to abide by broad subject-specific recommendations, e.g., those that stipulate that foreign language education should be grounded in a socio-interactive perspective, emphasizing communicative fluency over a rigid focus on grammatical accuracy.

In looking at Brazil's official educational regulations, it is apparent that little attention has been paid to the study of foreign languages, especially English (Leffa, 1999; Paiva, 2003). In fact, it was not until 1996 that foreign language education was introduced into the official school curriculum. This late introduction of foreign languages in the school curriculum may help to contextualize the belief among Brazilians that English is not learned at public schools but rather at private language institutes. Having taught in Brazil for over 10 years, we have heard this belief throughout our teaching careers.

In fact, English language teaching (ELT) in Brazil has become a very successful business: In 2012, for example, there were more than 70 private ELT companies, with about 6,215 branches nationwide, according to the Brazilian Franchising Association (Education First, 2013).

As practicing teachers in this context, we have experienced the issues reported in the research literature: a limited number of contact hours, large class sizes, and lack of infrastructure and materials (British Council, 2015; Gasparini, 2005; Paiva, 2003). Previous studies have also suggested that teachers do not know how to motivate their students (Gasparini, 2005), while students' appraisal of their English classes is lower than their appraisal of other school subjects (Perin, 2003). We believe these unfavorable work conditions have strengthened the belief among Brazilians that it is not possible to learn a foreign language within a public school setting.

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However, English classes at Brazilian public schools have received increased attention from government officials. The State of Rio de Janeiro, for example, started a project called *Global Child* in 2009, which was aimed at teaching English to six-year-old primary school students. In that same year, secondary students' reading skills in English started to be measured in the national exam for university entrance. We believe these two initiatives might help raise the status of English language education in public schools. Given our experience as researchers in the field of language education, we decided to investigate whether this is the case by listening to students' and teachers' voices in a Brazilian secondary school.

Social Representation of Brazilian Public English Language Education

Consciously or unconsciously, we all bring to the classroom preconceived ideas of how relevant it is to engage in the teaching or learning of a subject. For example, those who denigrate or dismiss a topic of study might decide not to take it seriously (e.g., students might skip classes and teachers might not adequately prepare themselves for their lessons). One way of examining participants' beliefs is to draw on the concept of social representation, which is defined as the knowledge constructed and shared collectively within a society (Moscovici, 1988, 2003). Social representations are embedded in social structures, and our representations of the world are permeated by our interaction with other people.

The theory of social representation informs our analysis of participants' symbolic thinking on English language education. The rationale for our study is to bring to the forefront students' and teachers' understandings of the school context they inhabit, that is, to make their beliefs visible. We believe by doing so, these agents are likely to become more aware of how their beliefs influence their practice.

Previous educational studies in Brazil are generally consistent in their identification of the social representation of English language education in public schools (Dias & Assis-Peterson, 2006; Gasparini, 2005; Perin, 2003; Souza, 2009). These studies have shown that teachers, school administrators, students, and parents generally do not believe that English classes at public schools help students learn the language. English language education in Brazil is not viewed as democratic: Only those who can afford to pay extra tuition fees can actually learn. This perspective was reinforced in a recent study carried out by the British Council (2015), which revealed that learning English is not considered an educational priority: Some Brazilians consider it to be a luxury, while others regard it as an extracurricular activity. We wanted to find out whether these views also hold true in the specific context we investigated for this study.

Context and Participants

We investigated the social representation of Brazilian public English language education held by students and teachers in a federal school in Rio de Janeiro, which is regarded as top quality in the country's public educational sector. The students come from diverse social, economic, and cultural backgrounds. Most of the teachers have permanent contracts and work exclusively at this school.

Foreign language education is offered from grade 6 (with a student average age of 11) until grade 12 (with a student average age of 17).[1] From Grades 6 to 9, only English is offered as an

[1] In Brazil, school education totals 12 years: nine for primary education and three for secondary education.

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option, while in secondary education (Grades 10 to 12), students can choose to study English, French, or Spanish as a foreign language. Similar to our other teaching experiences, our main teaching goal at the secondary level in this context was the development of students' reading skills. Reading is identified as the most relevant skill because it can support other school subjects. In addition, reading can be taught in large classes and with limited technological resources. It is also worth pointing out that reading is the only foreign language skill assessed in Brazilian university entrance exams.

The Students

At the beginning of our research project, Juliana visited the school, requested permission to conduct the study, presented the research project to both students and teachers, and recruited participants. Three students and three teachers agreed to participate. The three student participants—Arthur[2] (18), Maria (16), and Rafael (17)—were from the same class and had begun studying at this school in their first year of primary school (i.e., when they were six years old).

They had different proficiency levels. Maria was the only one who considered herself fluent in English. She began studying English at a private language institute when she was six. She acknowledges having a lot of contact with the language: She continues studying at a private institute; constantly listens to English through movies, TV series, and music; and is planning to take an international English exam.

Arthur and Rafael, on the other hand, did not regard themselves as fluent English speakers. Arthur had attended a private institute for two years; however, because he did not graduate, he felt that his English was mostly learned at the school. He perceives his proficiency level of English as basic, although he uses it outside the classroom through Internet games, music, and movies. He comments on his occasional need to interact with foreigners when playing interactive online games and on his difficulty when expressing his ideas orally. Rafael has also studied at a private institute for 18 months. As an aspiring athlete, he did not dedicate much time to his studies and acknowledges his difficulties with English. Like Arthur, Rafael thinks that his English was learned at school and finds it difficult to communicate. His contact with English outside of school is through his aunt, who lives in the United States.

The Teachers

The teachers—Ana (30), Marcus (38), and Ruth (52)—all have bachelor's degrees in Letters (emphasis on English and Portuguese). Ana and Ruth are full-time teachers, while Marcus was on a temporary contract. Ana began working at this school in 2014 and has some ELT experience at private schools. She was enrolled in a graduate certificate program in Inclusive Education at the time of the interview.

Marcus began working at the school in 2014. He emphasized that it was an honor to be selected over other candidates with more teaching experience. At the time of the interview, he was working at a private institute and at another public school. Most of his ELT experience, however, has been at private language institutes. Unlike the other teacher participants, he had experience living abroad (i.e., England, Spain, and Argentina).

Ruth has been teaching ELT at schools since 1982, and has been at her present school since 1995. She holds a master's in Educational Evaluation and was the school's English coordinator, which meant that she was directly involved in pedagogical and administrative decisions.

[2] Pseudonyms are used throughout this chapter to preserve participants' identities.

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Students' and Teachers' Voices on English Language Education

Juliana interviewed the six participants individually. The semistructured interview questions focused on students' and teachers' experiences with English language education at this particular school. The interviews were conducted in Portuguese, the participants' mother tongue, so that the participants were able to express their opinions fully. The interviews lasted 20 minutes and were audio recorded, transcribed, and coded manually. The excerpts used in this chapter are translations of the original text.

When asked about their English education at this school, the three students highlighted the focus of their classes, described their class activities, and evaluated their experiences.

> “I think it depends a lot on the school, doesn't it? Because I see other schools and they are stricter. I have a lot of friends at [different school names], so I see that, I think that their English education is way stronger, but here it is English for specific purposes, isn't it? So, it is only for the university entrance exam and stuff like that, but it is not anything major. Those who only study English here will not know how to speak English. They know how to sit an exam but cannot communicate well and the like.” (Maria)

> “[English language education at this school] is not bad. However, [...] it is very shallow, you know? They approach just a little bit of the content and drop it; they don't recycle it to see if the student really acquired that or not. They go deeper [in their approach] a little bit, but this is not as thorough as it would be if it were a private English language institute, which would go until the end. I think that, at [school name], they only try to teach the maximum for the student to be able to sit exams outside the school, not to make the student work with English itself, you know? [...] Or for the student to travel, to use English fully; it is more for him to know a bit and use this bit when it is necessary in exams, or in any composition for work, or something like that.” (Arthur)

> “I don't think [English language education at this school] is very strong. It is something that the students consider irrelevant, you know? [...] Because it is easier than what they study at an institute, and, like, lots of people take such a course and say: ‘ah, English here is fine,’ like, they don't give [it] much importance.” (Rafael)

The three students were unanimous in their belief that the English classes at this school did not meet their needs. Rafael referred to a common issue in English language education at public schools: the diversity of students' proficiency levels. He commented on the fact that “lots of people take such a course” at private language institutes, but this does not hold true for all the students. Even the ones who do study at private institutes are likely to be at different proficiency levels. When deciding to target an intermediate proficiency level, teacher activities are likely to be met with advanced students' indifference. Arthur and Maria stressed what they perceived as a negative backwash effect in the school curriculum: They believed that the primary objective of their classes is to prepare students for university entrance exams. These students' voices show that they share the social representation that English is not learned at schools. They do not fully appreciate the pedagogical work conducted in this educational setting.

Both Arthur and Maria shared the representation that learning English has to go beyond learning how to read and write. They emphasized the skills of speaking and listening. They did not consider the focus on reading as conducive to learning English. Maria, for example, stated,

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> I think it [English language education at this school] is something very basic for you to sit an exam. You know how to do [an exam], but, unfortunately, I think that people, most of them study English outside [the school], but I think that those people who do not take [extra English courses] cannot have a good [knowledge] base.

The teachers, on the other hand, believe that this focus on reading is positive, as revealed in the interview excerpts below.

> I think [English language education at this school] is committed, I mean, serious. We try to enable them [the students] really to be able to get a text and read [it]. It is a type of teaching very focused on comprehension, right, so, we work with reading techniques, grammar, but never decontextualized, always coming from the text, so [the student] can notice that what he is seeing has a meaning, right? [A grammar item] appeared there [in that text], and, if he is able to understand that in that specific context, it will appear in others. So, this contextualized grammar, reading, I think that we aim at developing a very serious work on these [aspects]. (Ana)

> Here I like [English language education] because we work with reading, right? To work with texts and genres. [The approach] does not aim at 'oh, you will be talking in English by the time you graduate.' You won't, you know? [The approach] does not have this aim, sorry, and I think it is really important: that's what we are. We will work with texts, and the book […] that the school has chosen is entirely aimed at texts and reading, comprehension, and the student infer [meanings], he does not use dictionaries. He is going to have to understand the vocabulary in the, in the context, right? I think it is really important, which is what they use in general. (Marcus)

> I think [English language education at this school] is really good because when we started to work with reading in a more detailed way, the teachers from other disciplines told us that the students had improved in their subjects, right? Like, in Math, it does not suffice to know how to calculate if he [the student] does not know which operations he has to do, because he does not interpret the problem, right? They are learning how to interpret and this is being useful everywhere, right? (Ruth)

These teachers described their pedagogical work, which centers on language development through the teaching of reading. Although both students and teachers can identify this focus, they evaluated it in different ways. While the students seemed to resent not being able to work on the other skills, the teachers were proud of their work with reading. Ruth explained how this focus has helped students improve in other disciplines. In her opinion, when students start to learn how to read in English, they read better in Portuguese as well, and, as a result, they are more successful in other subjects.

This is one of the key differences between a regular school and a language institute: While the latter is focused on developing students' English proficiency in all four skills, the former has a completely different agenda, one that favors a more integrative view of learning. English language education is seen by these teachers as a way to develop student competencies in other disciplines. In addition, reading skills also develop students' critical thinking, which is important both within the school environment and in the wider social context.

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Reflections on the Gap Between Teachers' and Students' Beliefs

Social representations are beliefs constructed collectively by people of a certain society throughout time (Moscovici, 1988). The starting point for this chapter was the negative social representation of public English language education held by Brazilians. Although the literature seems to suggest that it is possible to identify a single social representation collectively shared, our findings reconceptualize the scope of social representations. We found that there is a divide between students' and teachers' social representations of English language education.

The main pedagogical implication of this study is that the lines of communication between students and teachers should be opened. In the short term, teachers should clarify to students the purpose of English language education, emphasize the relevance of reading, and explain to students the reasons why it is not possible to follow the type of work characteristic of Brazil's private language institutes. A comparison between public schools and private institutes is not fair because they have different resources and educational purposes. Although English language education at this school lacks the focus on skills other than reading, its pedagogical agenda is holistic. The school aims at educating future generations of citizens who will be able to engage with different subject matters effectively.

In the medium to long term, the school should investigate the possibility of grouping students according to their proficiency levels so that the English classes are more challenging to students who are concurrently enrolled in private language institutes. Smaller class sizes would enable a focus on speaking development. However, we should not overlook the resource implications of such a decision (e.g., the additional staff and space that would be required).

In conclusion, we would like to stress the need for students and teachers to communicate their views about what goes on in their classrooms. It is vital that they openly discuss matters related to curriculum and pedagogical practices. It is important for students to verbalize their expectations and for teachers to explain the rationale for their decisions. Once communication channels are opened, negative social representations in Brazil might begin to change at a faster pace. When students and teachers hold positive social representations about the subject matter and agree on the goals they want to achieve, learning opportunities can be maximized. This investigation tells us that a change in social representations needs to be a grassroots process that starts in the classroom and positions both teachers and students as active social actors.

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CHAPTER 12

Exploring English Teachers' Uses of First Language in Turkey

YASEMIN KIRKGÖZ

As a teacher-researcher at a state university in Turkey, I conduct research in K-12 schools. It is clear from my recent observations of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) lessons that teachers often use Turkish in their classes. My observations led me to initiate a study to gain a more systematic and realistic view on the use of teachers' first language (L1) in EFL classes in Turkish secondary schools. The questions I wanted to address were: (a) What functions do the teachers' use of L1 serve? and (b) What are the teachers' perspectives on the use of L1? To answer these questions, I conducted lesson observations and interviews in five schools. The issue of whether or not to use the learners' L1 in foreign language classes is especially relevant in contexts such as Turkey, where the majority of the learners speak the same home language.

Relevant Theory and Research

In the debate concerning the use of L1 in the second-language (L2) classroom, more attention has been given to the question of how the use of L1 can maximize the learning of the L2. Researchers now argue that L2 has an important role as the language of instruction and communication, yet L1 can serve as a facilitative tool in that process rather than a hindrance or an interference (Brooks-Lewis, 2009).

Cummins (2008) provided two main arguments in favor of L1 use. The first refers to the activation role that L1 plays in the learning process. The second is that L1 plays a major role in facilitating the transfer of specific linguistic knowledge and phonological awareness to L2 learning.

Teachers' and learners' use of L1 has been studied in different contexts. Tang (2002) found that teachers use L1 to give instructions, explain word meanings, complex ideas, and grammar points. Copland and Neokleous (2011) investigated the use of L1 in private language schools in Greece and found that teachers used L1 mainly for explanations, opinions, instructions, questions and answers, and reprimands. Sali (2014) studied three Turkish EFL teachers' use of L1 in a secondary school and observed that teachers used L1 to communicate the content of lessons, for classroom

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management purposes, and to deal with social and cultural issues. These studies suggest that limited use of the L1 can have a powerful, and positive effect in foreign language classrooms.

Context

I conducted my study in five public secondary schools in Adana, a large urban area in Southern Turkey. Five EFL teachers, all native speakers of Turkish, participated. The teachers were between 27 and 42 years old, and their teaching experience ranged from eight to 22 years. They each worked at a different school.

The number of students in each class ranged from 22 to 38. The students were all 14 years old, and their L1 was Turkish. They were in their last year of secondary school (i.e., equivalent to eighth grade). The main EFL teaching material used was a book locally produced and approved by the Turkish Ministry of National Education (Şener, 2014). As reported by one of the teachers in the study, "we use mainly the textbook *Middle School Upturn in English 8* in our lessons." The classroom activities emphasized the four language skills, in addition to grammar and vocabulary. Classes met four times a week, and each lesson lasted 40 minutes.

I observed eight lessons of each teacher at the beginning, middle, and end of the 16-week semester. I audio-recorded the lessons and took field notes to record the purposes of Turkish use in class. I also conducted interviews with the teachers, allowing them to elaborate on their perspectives regarding the use of L1 in the classroom.

Voices From the Classrooms

Using the transcribed lessons, I identified instances of L1 use and subdivided the utterances into different categories, according to their function. My findings indicate that the use of L1 in the five classrooms served a number of different functions. The most common were (in order of frequency): giving instructions, classroom management, explaining aspects of the English language, and establishing rapport. Other functions of L1 use were also observed, but not as frequently. These were: comprehension checks, praise, translation, drawing attention, monitoring, and reviewing.

In my meetings with the teachers, I asked for their opinions on the use of L1 in class and their reasons for using it. After transcribing the classroom interactions, I also asked them to read the transcripts to elicit their rationale for using L1 in each specific instance, as a kind of stimulated recall. The teachers reported that they saw pedagogical value in the use of L1, which confirms the research discussed earlier (Copland & Neokleous, 2011; Sali, 2014). The four functional categories observed most frequently are discussed below.

Classroom Function 1: Giving Instructions

Giving instructions was the most frequently noted function of L1 used by the teachers. They generally used L1 at the beginning of the lesson or before they started a new activity to clarify the instructional message. In the following excerpt, one of the teachers, Fatma,[1] asked the learners to focus on the dialogue in the book and to follow her reading of the dialogue. She then called on two learners to read a similar dialogue. Bracketed italics indicate L1 use translated into English:

> “[*What we are going to do now is this. Open page 14 in your book. There is a dialogue there. In the dialogue there are sentences expressing what we like and we don't like. First I will read the dialogue. Now Arda you read Jack's part, Özge you Linda's.*]”

[1] All names are pseudonyms.

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In the interview, the teacher (Fatma) justified her use of L1 in this way:

> “The use of L1 gives students courage and motivation. If they do not understand me I cannot be productive in lessons. Students' level of proficiency is not suitable to have a lesson only in English.”

Similarly, another teacher, Afife, provided information about the objective of the lesson to facilitate her learners' understanding of what they were supposed to do.

> “[*Children, as you know today we will talk about our hobbies and interests. I will first teach you the simple past tense as required by our topic*].”

Afife expressed an affective reason for L1 use, stating that some learners need the security of the mother tongue.

> “I don't want to discourage my students by only using English. When I use L1 in the lesson, they become more participatory. They feel more comfortable and more confident. In the secondary schools, using L2 is very difficult. I need Turkish to narrate the grammar rules of English and explain the vocabulary. If I don't use L1, I'm sure they wouldn't understand anything, as a result they lose their interest and self-confidence and they can be demoralized.”

Hamdi was the only teacher who gave his instructions in L1 followed by L2, which, according to him, would help weaker learners in his class, as explained in the interview:

> “Understanding instructions in English is very important. So I give each instruction in both languages to help particularly weaker students to understand.”

As seen in these excerpts, the teachers feel that L1 aids in the clarification of instructional messages, giving students confidence and decreasing their anxiety about the tasks they are being asked to do in class.

Classroom Function 2: Classroom Management

The second most frequent function of L1 was observed when the teachers were dealing with classroom management issues such as discipline problems, which emerged mainly from student side conversations, excessive noise, or misbehavior.

> “[*Furkan today you're being very naughty. Are you aware? I shall lower your grade.*]” (Seval)

Similarly, in the following classroom excerpt, Hamdi asked a question related to the topic of the lesson, and most of the students wanted to reply at the same time, making a lot of noise:

Students: [*Teacher teacher!*]
Hamdi: [*If you don't quietly raise your hand, I will not see you and carry on with the lesson.*]

I observed another instance of L1 use for classroom management purposes when teachers were taking attendance. In the following excerpt, while taking attendance, the teacher, Fatma, noticed that two boys were swearing at each other and are getting ready to fight:

Fatma: [*What's happening over there?*]
Student: [*He's swearing at me, teacher*.]
Fatma: [*I don't want such things in my classroom. You should get on well with each other. You can solve your problems in a polite way.*]

Ziya was the only teacher who used the L2 for discipline purposes. She stated:

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> I rarely use L1 for classroom management because they can understand such simple statements like 'keep quiet' in English. Therefore I use L1 when my students cannot understand.

Cameron (2001) noted that when there are serious instances of misbehavior in the classroom, the use of L1 might be required to strengthen the effect of teachers' messages. My dialogues with the teachers about their justification for using L1 confirmed Cameron's view. However, I agree with Cook (2001), who, referring to high school classes, suggested that "saying 'shut up or you will get a detention' in the L1 is a serious threat" (p. 185). The teacher Ziva seems to agree that classroom expressions in English such as "be quiet please" and "be polite to your friends" can be used to resolve conflict in the EFL classroom.

Classroom Function 3: Explaining Aspects of English

Giving explanations was the third most widely observed function of L1, serving purposes such as explaining L2 grammar, correcting errors, and giving examples. In the following excerpt, Afife made a rather complex rule of English grammar more straightforward for learners by mixing the L1 with English.

> [*Today we'll learn comparative structures. We'll learn what structure to use when comparing two things. While using comparative structures, we place the suffix -er at the end of a word. However, our rule changes with irregular words such as good and bad, and words with three and more syllables*.]

My interview with Afife indicated that she used L1 to lessen the students' cognitive burden:

> As this is a difficult structure for the students to grasp, I explain the rule in Turkish.

Fatma used the L2 far more than the others in her lessons, and believed that English should be the primary language of communication in the classroom. Her decision to use L1 came only after many attempts to explain in English the meaning of a word, or a grammar point. In her interview, she voiced a pedagogical concern about using the L1.

> I wouldn't recommend the use of L1 immediately. I shift to L1 after I've tried to communicate ideas in the L2 and students still appear not to have understood or to be confused.

Hamdi and Seval thought that the primary language of instruction should be English, but that Turkish can be used when needed.

> We need to use the L2 as much as possible so that students can be exposed to the L2. If the teacher does not speak the L2, students cannot make progress in English. L1 should only be used when teaching complex subjects and when students cannot understand.

This perspective is illustrated in the classroom excerpt below:

> [*Children, I'll first give you information about our new topic, the simple present tense. We use it to explain general events. Auxiliary verbs are do and does. These helping verbs are not used with affirmative sentences. They are used in negative and interrogative statements*.] (Fatma)

In such cases, as noted by Tang (2002), the L1 serves a "supportive and facilitating role in the classroom" (p. 38). Seval reported that using the L1 was necessary to teach complex grammar topics, to save time, and to enhance students' comprehension.

> I use L1 so that students can understand some topics better. It is difficult to explain some grammar topics in the L2. Therefore I find it necessary to use the L1. Additionally, to prevent wasting too much time I use the L1.

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These examples validate previous studies, which highlight teachers' use of L1 when working with language systems to facilitate student understanding (Copland & Neokleous, 2011; Sali, 2014).

Classroom Function 4: Establishing Rapport

The L1 was also frequently used by the teachers as a classroom strategy for establishing rapport with students. In the following excerpt, Ziya uses Turkish to show his surprise when one of the students, who was often absent, came to class.

> “[*Mehmet, surprisingly you've turned up today.*]”

Ziya's views on this function of L1 are illustrated in the following interview excerpt:

> “My use of L1 in this example was to give a social message and to create a comfort zone between myself and the student. I observe this makes the student feel relaxed.”

Similarly, in the following excerpts, Hamdi used the L1 to maintain student interest and motivation.

> “[*Yes, children, it had been raining for the last couple of days but today it is better isn't it?*]”

The following interview excerpt illustrates Afife's views on this function of L1 use.

> “I sometimes switch to Turkish to create a more sociable atmosphere. To my experience, using L1 in such cases gives a break from the routine instructional practice to something more social between me and the student.”

Conclusion

My study provides insights into Turkish EFL teachers' perspectives on and actual use of L1 in public secondary classrooms. The teacher participants agreed that the main medium of communication in the EFL classroom should be English. Yet, they also believed that the use of Turkish can serve as a tool to achieve greater comprehension when explaining complex grammar structures, giving instructions, maintaining discipline, and establishing effective teacher-student rapport. The use of L1, a standard practice for all teachers in this study, was based on learners' affective and cognitive needs. This seems to confirm Carless' (2007) findings that “in order to maintain students' attention, interest or involvement, contributions in the MT [mother tongue] needed to be permitted” (p. 3).

Given the nature of the varied uses of L1, I suggest there is a need to help language teachers identify when L1 can be a facilitative tool in foreign language classes. The voices that reverberate in this chapter demonstrate that through heightened awareness of the facilitative roles that L1 can play, teachers are in a better position to decide when it's effective to use the L1 in the language classroom.

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CHAPTER 13

The Coteaching Flow Inside the Classroom

ANDREA HONIGSFELD AND MARIA G. DOVE

Take a visit with us into an urban high school. We enter a classroom of 27 students and meet some English language learners (ELLs), some bilingual students who no longer need extra language services, and some monolingual English speakers. We see groups of students working intensely, supported with many resources. There are seven languages spoken in the classroom because the students' families come from four continents.

What is even more unusual about this class? They have two teachers, each interacting and working with all the students. The teachers seem to have forged a type of partnership that resembles a carefully choreographed dance: They move from group to group, in a flow that covers the entire classroom. Each works individually with the students, yet is fully aware of the other's presence. At a certain point, they signal to each other and turn to the whole class in unison to continue the lesson with a group exploration. One takes the lead to discuss the topic; the other creates a chart and summarizes key points while also interjecting with short examples and explanations.

A few minutes later, the roles are switched. The synergy is palpable, and the flow of this cotaught class leads to high levels of student engagement and instructional intensity offered by this team.

This chapter is an exploration into what makes coteaching successful for English language learners. We conducted a multicase study that included surveying and interviewing secondary coteaching partners about their experiences. In analyzing the data, we applied the concept of "flow" from motivational psychology. Before grappling with the concept of flow, we introduce relevant theoretical and contextual background.

Segregation and Possible Solutions

Not every classroom serving English learners looks like the one in our opening vignette. In U.S. public schools today, English learners may frequently find themselves segregated from their English-speaking counterparts on at least two levels. Based on demographic patterns and housing availability, many learners attend schools with peers of the same ethnic, linguistic, and

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socioeconomic backgrounds, thus resulting in school- or community-based segregation. Gandara and Orfield (2010) observed that English language learners may be "*triply* segregated in the schools to which they are assigned: by ethnicity, by poverty, and by language" (p. 4). Day-to-day classroom instruction that is built around a pull-out, stand alone, or Structured English Immersion (SEI) model for language development may result in a fragmented school day for these learners. As a result, they may not only be segregated from their English-speaking classmates but also from the general education curriculum (Honigsfeld & Dove, 2010, 2014). They may therefore miss opportunities to learn essential skills and content that their classmates are learning.

With a pull-out model, some students might have a diminished sense of belonging. To counter the effects of these negative experiences, Gandara and Orfield suggested organizing instruction "in ways that can mitigate, not exacerbate, this segregation for students who are learning English" (p. 4). Successful integration strategies include grouping language learners in and outside the classroom with English-speaking peers as much as possible to recognize and support language acquisition as a socio-cultural process (Walqui & van Lier, 2010).

Since segregation continues to be a major concern surrounding equitable education for English learners in the United States, an increasing number of school districts have moved toward integration, such as using coteaching between an English as a Second Language (ESL) specialist and a content teacher. The St. Paul Public Schools (SPSS) in Minnesota have been at the forefront of offering support services within in the context of the general education classroom. Close to a decade ago, Pardini (2006) reported the success of St. Paul schools, where English learners are rarely removed from their regular classes. Pardini explained:

> Instead, ELL services are delivered through a collaborative model in which ELL and mainstream teachers team teach. The goal is: to teach language through—not prior to—content. As a result, ELL instruction is closely aligned with and integrated into the district's standards-based curriculum. (p. 21)

Similar shifts in programming for English language learners have taken place in numerous other states across the United States. In New York, *The Blueprint for English Language Learners Success* (NYSED, 2014) articulated a noncompromising vision for inclusion and collaboration for the sake of English learners. This document identifies eight research-based guiding principles and powerfully opens with the following statement:

> The mission of the New York State Education Department's (NYSED) Office of Bilingual Education and Foreign Language Studies (OBE-FLS) is to ensure that all New York State (NYS) students, including English Language Learners (ELLs), attain the highest level of academic success and language proficiency. We strive to ensure that all students' individual educational paths and socio-emotional needs are met in multiple languages leading them to college and career readiness. NYSED believes that all teachers (emphasis added) are teachers of ELLs. (p. 2)

Invariably, inclusive instruction in cotaught classes creates an environment for learning in which language learners develop English language proficiency along with content area skills. In this way, students stay on a constant path toward meeting the requirements for high school graduation. Genesee and Lindholm-Leary (2013) also noted that when content and language instruction are integrated, there is "authentic communication in the classroom about matters of academic importance that provides critical context for learning the communicative functions of the new language" (p. 6). If English language learners have limited access to the core content and do not engage in authentic, meaningful communication with their English-speaking peers, language acquisition falls short, as does content learning.

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Coteaching for English Language Learners

We believe that inclusive ELL instruction requires systemic and sustained collaboration among all teachers who share ownership of and responsibility for educating English learners. We define coteaching as a collaborative practice in which an ESL teacher and a core content teacher engage in shared delivery of instruction with a focus on both language development and content attainment. In research based on school visits, classroom observations, interviews, and surveys, we found that coteaching must be supported by three phases of the collaborative instructional cycle of coplanning, coassessment, and reflection to be successful for English learners (Honigsfeld & Dove, 2010, 2014).

Coteaching does not come without its challenges, and at times, what is actually push-in ELL instruction might be mislabeled as coteaching. In discussing a push-in initiative in which the ESL teachers instruct English learners in grade-level or content classes with no coplanning of instruction, McClure and Cahnmann-Taylor (2010) found "ESL teachers portray themselves as often being treated like glorified teaching assistants, asked to do errands assigned by the grade-level teacher rather than be treated as a professional peer" (p. 120). Successful coteaching for language learners is heavily dependent on a fully collaborative instructional cycle (see Stewart, Sagliano, & Sagliano, 2002): Omitting coplanning, coassessment, or reflection, therefore, limits the impact of the program (Honigsfeld & Dove, 2010, 2014).

In our work, we encourage teachers to embrace the notion that coteaching is a shared ownership of and full participation in all phases of content and language instruction for English language learners.

Coteaching and Flow

To explore what makes coteaching successful for language learners, we conducted a multicase study that included surveying and interviewing secondary coteaching partners about their experiences. Our sampling was strategically aligned with the research goal of documenting successful practices, so we systematically sought out coteachers who had built strong partnerships and began to achieve high levels of effectiveness with learners through a collaborative, integrated approach to instruction. We focus here on three pairs of coteachers who have each reported exceptional satisfaction with their professional relationships and a willingness to creatively explore the possibilities of the collaborative integrated model of instruction for language learners.

For this study, we utilized a theoretical framework and a key contribution from research on motivation, the theory of *flow*—a mode of being in which one is deeply involved, energized, and present in an activity in order to better understand successful collaborative practices. Csikszentmihalyi (1993) first applied this term to explain an optimal state of fulfillment and engagement, and he asserted, "to experience flow one must begin with a certain level of skill, training, and discipline" (p. 177).

Seeing the Benefits of Collaboration

A strong interest in collaboration and the ability to cooperate and communicate with others while establishing mutual respect appear to be common characteristics of many highly motivated, successful coteachers. As one of our participating coteachers noted:

> “I have always been an advocate for collaboration; early on in my career, I recognized that I could not ‘go it alone.’ I have found [my coteacher] to be a role model and friend, which makes our collaboration time enjoyable, rather than obligatory. We make time for one another and treat each other with respect. We are equals both in and out of the classroom.”
> (Grades 9–11 English language arts teacher)

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Willingness to Negotiate Differences and Take Risks

A student-centered approach and willingness to innovate also dominated successful coteachers' preparation and practice. In addition, a positive mindset—the belief that language learners can meet favorable academic outcomes—was critical, coupled with teachers' willingness to take risks and be open minded. As another participating coteacher indicated:

> “I want each student that I teach to find success. And, I know that I can't do it without a coteacher that believes the same. Lisa and I share the same belief that we want our students to graduate. We also are both willing to try new ideas, even if they fail. We have days where we disagree adamantly, but motivation does not waver. We trust and respect each other to a point, where it's ok to disagree because our goals are the same. I am willing to try her ideas, and she is willing to try mine. We objectively judge together whether strategies work for our students. We don't carry our egos anywhere.” (Grades 7–12 ESL/social studies teacher)

A shared goal (student success), mutual respect, and openness to multiple perspectives all contributed to partnership building. Disagreement did not mean that the relationship was in jeopardy; on the contrary, willingness to negotiate perspectives and experiment with new strategies contributed to the success of coteaching.

Building Solid Routines

Routines and structures were also found to be commonly shared characteristics of successful partnerships. Rather than daily reinventing of their instructional practices, effective coteaching teams tended to create predictable class procedures that not only frame their coteaching methods and techniques but also built a reliable and safe environment for their learners. As one coteacher reported:

> “I like a highly structured classroom. I talk with my coteacher to establish routines for the processes he will teach. We provide a visual to assist students with the procedure. We practice procedures regularly.” (Grades 9–12 social studies teacher)

Another positive outcome of routine procedures was the increased engagement of students in the learning process:

> “Routine is key in our classes; not only because our students are transitioning from middle school to high school, but also because it sets the tone for daily productivity. We have high expectations and stick to our plans (unless we encounter those rare teachable moments that undoubtedly drive us off course a bit). We've noticed that our students are more prepared, eager, active, and responsible because of the routines that we established on the first day of school.” (Grades 9–11 English language arts teacher)

Professional Training and Commitment

The core content teachers each expressed a strong interest and commitment to working with language learners and readily accepted the assignment to teach an integrated class. The teachers we surveyed noted the benefits of a range of varied training opportunities they had participated in. Workshops, conferences, professional development courses, and coaching sessions were among the most frequently cited forms of professional learning. Each of the teachers also noted their own personal investment of time and effort and deep-rooted commitment to exploring further the meaning and purpose of coteaching. They frequently emphasized that they did so in collaboration with their partners, thus establishing an even stronger, shared ownership of the collaborative process:

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> Through my district, I received training about the different models of coteaching and was able to view these models in multiple, meaningful contexts. However, the most valuable training has been the personal time that I have devoted to working with my coteacher to discuss our students' needs, and how we can codesign our lessons to meet them. (Grade 9 ESL teacher)

Experiencing Flow

As we surveyed and interviewed successful coteachers, we found that flow theory helped explain the intrinsic motivation that drives their coteaching practice, originating in the subjective experience of being fully immersed in an activity while lacking self-consciousness (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). When we asked coteachers to recall such moments of flow, they described lessons that demonstrated both teachers' full engagements in the teaching and learning processes:

> I felt in complete control when my coteacher and I were teaching the same short story to two different groups. My coteacher was using the original text and focusing on comprehension and analysis, while I previewed vocabulary and plot using pictures before reading an adapted version of the story with integrated comprehension questions. I felt that because we were parallel teaching, the class was somewhat unified, but I felt completely in control of the pacing, focus, and level of rigor embedded in the lesson. However, while this feeling of 'complete control' is familiar and comforting, I enjoy teaching simultaneously with my coteacher because I can learn from his style and see a different approach to the same material. I feel that this not only benefits me professionally, but the students as well. (Grade 9 ESL teacher)

While the flow experience is often described as free of feeling self-conscious or even cognizant of what is happening, the teachers we spoke to were very conscious of how it all began. For example, one teacher, trained in both social sciences and ESL, recalled how a lesson about teaching paragraph writing to ninth-grade students contributed to building professional rapport with his coteacher, which, in turn, led to mutual appreciation and their first flow experience, which he described as follows:

> When I first met my coteacher, Lisa, she wanted support in teaching how to write paragraphs. I implemented a strategy called Step Up to Writing to demonstrate paragraph construction. Over the course of a couple weeks, most students grasped the concept. Through the strategy's effectiveness, trust and respect grew. In that time, we developed a professional rapport. We began to have instances of flow when one teacher would prompt for content, while the other would prompt for language. We felt comfortable enough to interchange roles early on in these instances involving paragraph writing. This would be our first instance of flow: We finished each other's sentences; We interchanged responsibility of who taught content and who taught language; One teacher could handle a student's individual issue, while the other led the class. We both understood the goals, activities, and students in the classroom. (Grades 7–12 ESL/social studies teacher)

Coteachers also noted that rather than competing with each other, they complemented each other's abilities. They harnessed their individual strengths and did not worry about failure. This dynamic is demonstrated through another coteacher's words:

> Where one of us falls shorts, the other effortlessly saves the day. We transition smoothly whether we are leading a whole class discussion, answering questions, or reading aloud by maintaining eye contact, being considerate of one another, and checking in every few minutes. (Grades 9–11 English language arts teacher)

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We have found that when coteachers achieve a flow-like state, they can be in complete control of the shared teaching experience, no longer self-conscious about their own participation in the act of coteaching. Instead, they appear to be "in sync" with each other and harmoniously codeliver lessons. One coteacher likens the experience to an automatic switch setting things in motion:

> "The space opens for your coteaching partner to just step into the lesson. After some time you really understand your partner and there is a flow of activity that takes over the classroom because you know each other, have mutual respect for each other, and learn to work with and around each other." (Grades 6–8 ESL teacher)

Coteachers who experience flow operate in an orchestrated way with a natural flow. In the midstream of a lesson, they are able to step in and take the instructional lead without interrupting the natural rhythm of the lesson. This ability to perform seamless transitioning and turn-taking in instructional sequences is the ultimate goal of team teachers (see Perry & Stewart, 2005).

Conclusions

Optimal conditions for collaboration and coteaching may not be easy to achieve. Csikszentmihalyi (1993) cautioned that the state of flow is not attained without some prerequisites. When translated to the context of collaborative, integrated instructional practices for English language learners, we found that these prerequisites for coteachers to experience the flow in their partnership (both in and outside the classroom) include high levels of pedagogical and interpersonal skills, training and ongoing coaching, as well as openness and personal discipline.

The coteachers we worked with each demonstrated that positive coteaching relationships—partnerships that have a "coflow"—foster risk-taking, open-mindedness, and professional learning in planning and teaching. Highly-developed coteaching teams provide integrated classes via predictable routines, methods, and techniques that create an environment for learning in which language learners develop English language proficiency along with content area skills in a highly engaging learning environment.

While further research is needed to identify what additional factors help coteachers achieve a state of *flow*, as researchers and teacher-educators, we continue to explore the complex interconnectedness among (a) content-based instruction, (b) collaboration for the sake of language learners, and (c) the integration of language learners in core content classes. Emerging evidence suggests that successful collaboration between ESL specialists and core content teachers leads to a more coordinated language-learning experience for learners and a more enriching professional experience for the participating teachers. Our hope is that more content-area educators and language specialists will establish partnerships, seek out opportunities to align their instruction, and collaborate for the sake of learners' content and language development needs.

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CHAPTER 14

Voice as Inquiry: Knowledge Construction Through Narrative

SARAH RILLING AND MARIA DANTAS-WHITNEY

In concluding this volume, we speak not only as English language educators and researchers but also as editors and authors. Our goal in this chapter is to position the present work within a framework of narrative inquiry in TESOL. We thank all contributors to the volume, who have shared their narratives to help build field knowledge of situated language learning by secondary learners in schools and communities around the world. Their voices seek practical solutions to complex problems, and readers are invited into an ongoing inquiry process by constructing and reconstructing lessons learned to fit their own local needs.

In this chapter, we first provide a brief history of narrative inquiry as a teacher-researcher tool in developing deeper understanding of language learning *in situ*. We then highlight various threads of discussion developed by chapter authors that reveal professional engagement and change in the TESOL field.

Inquiry as Professional Practice

A tradition of using participants' voices as tools for inquiry can be traced to Donald Schön, whose *The Reflective Practitioner* (1983) encouraged teachers to examine their own practices and daily actions in the classroom through an explicit and systematic process. By cyclically planning, implementing, reflecting on, and modifying practice, teachers become researchers of their own classroom settings, improve teaching and learning outcomes, and engage in their own professional development. These small-scale and localized investigations, often conducted in collaboration with colleagues, mentors, students, and parents, take into account the perspectives of all participants as contributions to a deeper understanding of the learning context.

Throughout the 1990s, the professional practice of using participants' narratives as tools for inquiry gained popularity in general education studies (Connelly & Clandinin, 1990) and in the field of TESOL. Qualitative inquiries practiced by TESOL professionals resulted in edited anthologies highlighting narratives by teachers and administrators, such as Bailey and Nunan's *Voices*

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from the Language Classroom (1996) and Richards' *Teaching in Action* (1998), both of which gave voice to classroom teachers and teacher-educators grappling with issues such as time management, materials development and use, and meeting curricular goals.

Anne Burns' *Collaborative Action Research for English Language Teachers* (1999) incorporated active collaborations in the process of reflective inquiry in and on classroom activity. She encouraged communities of professionals to work together on collaborative classroom and school-based research with the goal of improving individual instruction and school programs. Burns' collaborative conversations empower and professionalize teachers in sharing their successes and in seeking solutions to common problems.

Reflective inquiry has continued to expand into the 21st century through systematic practice drawing on teacher and student voices. One example is Johnson and Golombek's *Teachers' Narrative Inquiry as Professional Development* (2002), in which teachers reflected on professional knowledge and pedagogical practices by examining the complexity of their own teaching contexts. By voicing locally acquired knowledge through narrative, teacher-researchers share the processes they engaged in to meet the needs of their learners. Through such narrative inquiry, we, the readers, are drawn into the conversation to transfer this professional knowledge to our own teaching, learning, and research contexts.

Barnard and Torres-Guzmán's edited collection, *Creating Classroom Communities of Learning* (2009), demonstrated how we can make sense of our own educational experiences by reflecting on stories from English classrooms around the world. In this intertwining of teacher-researcher voices, brief classroom transcripts gathered by the authors in different countries were presented and analyzed by the teacher-researchers themselves as well as by authors of a different chapter within the volume. The authors described their local sociocultural educational context to situate the classroom transcripts and to highlight how teachers solved teaching-learning issues. By adding another author's voice as the conclusion to each chapter, Barnard and Torres-Guzman offered a further analysis of the teaching-learning relationship. Narrative inquiry through such collaborations and professional conversations on both local and global planes demonstrate macro and micro concerns teachers share, no matter where we are or what we teach and research.

Professional knowledge is produced through such collaborative inquiry. One example is a special issue of the *TESOL Quarterly* dedicated to the topic of narrative research. The articles showcased voices from classrooms in such diverse locations as rural Uganda (Norton & Early, 2011), Aboriginal Australia (Cadman & Brown, 2011), New Zealand (Holmes & Marra, 2011), Spain (Johnson & Golombek, 2011), and the United States (Johnson & Golombek, 2011; Nelson, 2011). The authors shared the voices of teachers, teacher-educators, researchers, and students to explore topics such as researcher identity (Norton & Early, 2011), student empowerment (Holmes & Marra, 2011), and teacher professional development (Johnson & Golombek, 2011). The inquiries in this special issue investigated the complexities of particular teaching situations (Cadman & Brown, 2011) and explored dilemmas related to classroom interactions through a critical lens (Nelson, 2011).

Barkhuizen, Benson, and Chik's manual on methodologies of narrative inquiry drew on "a 'critical mass' of narrative research in the field of language teaching and learning" (2014, p. xi). The book explored oral, written, and multimodal narratives as rich forms of data and provided advice on data collection, including elicitation procedures and varied analytic techniques and formats for collaborative sharing. They provided representative examples of narrative studies to illustrate how inquiries are carried out with practical ideas for readers to explore on their own.

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Threads of Narrative Inquiry

This volume further contributes to the use of narrative inquiry in teacher, program, and school development, with a specific focus on issues related to secondary learners in classrooms around the world. As Pavlenko (2002) stated, "there is no doubt that recent developments that legitimize personal narratives are extremely important for the TESOL field, as they allow for both teachers' and learners' voices to be heard on a par with those of the researchers" (pp. 213–214). The different chapters of this volume are a testament to this statement. As editors, we have identified several discussion threads that run throughout the narratives in this volume. These threads allow us to explore possibilities for future investigations, collaborations, and professional practices.

Narrative as Affirmation of Learner Identity

In many cultures, secondary learners are positioned between childhood and adulthood. As such, they face unique social, biological, and humanistic (e.g., religious or ethical) developmental issues. Educators can't ignore learners' multiple identities, because students are learning not only how to "do" school but also how to engage in their social worlds. As Duff (2002) pointed out, many students create social and academic networks inside and outside of school, but others are "silent, marginal, and apparently disconnected and disengaged from peers, curriculum, activities, and discourse in the mainstream" (p. 290). Narrative inquiry offers ways for teachers to engage with peers within schools or across communities in seeking solutions to meeting the needs of learners given varied local constraints such as class size or school, community, and government support.

Secondary students are often in vulnerable situations because they are acquiring a new language while potentially navigating a new country or culture. As such, they are negotiating what Norton (2014) calls "a complex identity, changing across time and space, and reproduced in social interaction" (p. 105). For many students, their immigrant, refugee, or language learner status represents a heavy "label" placed on them as individuals, thereby shaping their identities through external pressures. Duff (2002) reminded us that adolescent students in particular run the risk of social exclusion or stigmatization as intellectually deficient. She called for classroom communities "where students and teachers negotiate their identities and subject-matter knowledge together in culturally respectful and equitable ways" (p. 290).

Communities of learners navigate language and social identity and provide opportunities for individual identity investment (Cummins, 2006; Norton, 2013). Many of the authors in this volume describe creating collaborative classroom communities celebrating students' languages, cultures, knowledge, and engagement, thereby fostering identity investment. Foltz's (Chapter 8) digital "identity text" project validates students' ways of knowing through multimodal productions that they themselves craft and design. The newcomer volunteer program described by Page and Maurizio (Chapter 9) fosters a sense of identity affirmation for both the middle school newcomers and their high school tutors, empowering all with new knowledge, social skills, and, for the tutors, leadership abilities. Through these narrative inquiries, we learn how engagement in meaningful work that develops real-life skills like language learning, builds confidence, provides learners a sense of agency and identity investment, and allows for creativity in meeting curricular and career ready goals.

Narrative as Engagement With Literacy

The power of narrative inquiry to reveal students' engagement with literacy was demonstrated in Norton's (2014) descriptions of South African adolescents learning to read on literal and figurative and symbolic levels, enabling them to challenge hegemonic school structures through critical pedagogies. Because school literacy has been defined in rather narrow terms, Hirvela (2010) observed that educators may overlook "the full complexity and depth of . . . students' engagement

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with literacy" (p. 100). The present volume showcases rich narratives of secondary learners who engage in a range of literacy practices.

Literacy is thought to be the foundation of academic success, and as such, it may pose special challenges to secondary English learners in schools where English is the medium of instruction. In such schools, secondary students are learning language at the same time they are learning complex academic strategies, crucial life skills, and demanding subject-matter content. In this volume, Schwartz and her students (Chapter 2) use peer and teacher-student written exchanges to support writing while learning important social studies content. They demonstrate how their team collaborations build knowledge, language, and social skills.

Foltz (Chapter 8) enables learners to draw on biliteracy skills in developing their digital identity texts, and Kırkgöz (Chapter 12) inquires into home language practices within the English classroom to determine how bilingual language use can promote and direct learner attention, solve social and behavioral problems, and facilitate language, literacy, and content learning. Newmaster, Woomert, and Montero (Chapter 1) demonstrate how financial literacy combined with oral and written practices empowers students to make wise life choices. Engaging adolescents in financial literacy can be a challenge because they must activate mathematical and linguistic skills to participate more fully in their social worlds and, potentially, learn future career skills. Through such learner engagement, literacy practices become useful life tools for students rather than just subjects of study.

Multimedia use in and out of classrooms enhances engagement with literacy. Digital production provides an attractive alternative in student project work because it combines content and language learning with multimodal skills (e.g., storyboarding, keyboarding, and digital image manipulation), while also drawing on individual expertise and knowledge in collaborative teams. Several narratives in this volume address multimodal literacy learning, including Schauber and Brady (Chapter 4), who build music into learning about history and public speaking. Honigsfeld and Dove (Chapter 13) note students' use of computer tablets and electronic dictionaries as scaffolding resources for learning. Yi, Kao, and Kang (Chapter 6), Smith and de Oliveira (Chapter 7), and Foltz (Chapter 8), describe projects with innovative uses of technology and multimodalities. Such digital projects and composing practices instill in students a sense of authentic engagement, collaborative accomplishment, and investment.

Narrative as Participation in Academic Learning

Disciplinary learning in English requires reading, writing, speaking, and understanding the genres of specific communities of practice. Secondary students are socialized into school-based language practices, including learning academic discourse and content (Menken, Hudson, & Leung, 2014). Narratives reveal the complexity of school-based learning, because visual semiotics, numeracy, and textual processing are necessary life skills in many of today's increasingly specialized careers. Narratives of engagement with academic content and discourse provide insider views into socially and strategically engaging students while meeting educational standards. Secondary students need learning strategies to cope with school tasks, and Sunggingwati and Nguyen's (Chapter 6) focus on self-questioning strategies in reading comprehension provides students with tools to increase their ability of gaining meaning from text.

Learning the genres of language, text and text types, visuals, and rhetorical styles in different subject disciplines are essential skills in academic preparation. Ho, Rappa, Bong, Chin, and Ng (Chapter 3) present a good example of visual literacy skills needed in geography, including reading semiotic systems like maps, graphs, diagrams, and accompanying texts. These authors' lessons integrate language and literacy instruction in content-specific genres in geography.

Voices of learners are represented by Smith and de Oliveira (Chapter 7) as students work together to create a website combining literate practices and new learning in and about social studies. Page and Maurizio (Chapter 9) describe using high school peers to tutor middle school

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learners in content and language learning, supporting notions of collaborative workgroups and reciprocal teaching. Schauber and Brady (Chapter 4) present teaching genre-specific reading and writing skills through the exploration of protest speeches and songs from the U.S. civil rights era. While learning social studies content, students develop genre awareness and practice self-evaluation and critical reflection through a portfolio assessment system.

Genre knowledge is powerful in academic learning. Newmaster, Woomert, and Montero (Chapter 1) describe the "aha" moment when a student realizes that not lining up numbers correctly will result in wrong calculations, an understanding that is essential for careers in business and other social sciences, science, and engineering. Through narratives, teachers and learners alike make discoveries about teaching, learning, and content knowledge. Narratives help us to uncover information that we do not consciously know ourselves and to understand our own experiences, behaviors, and actions more fully (Bell, 2002).

Narrative as Advocacy Through Community Involvement

School-community engagement supports secondary students in language, literacy, and subject-specific learning in and out of schools. García, Zakharia, and Otcu's 2013 edited collection of narratives of multilingual, multiethnic community school learning in New York City demonstrated the power of narrative in documenting community support for language and literacy learning, both in English and various in-home and community languages.

Authors in this volume engage school-community partnerships in meeting local learner needs. Colombo, Bouchard, and Marte (Chapter 10) combine community involvement through service learning, science teaching, and teacher education, while Page and Maurizio (Chapter 9) developed mentoring and leadership skills in high schoolers through a service-learning project in a middle school. Through collaboration and reflection, the authors came to understand the complexity of the academic and social demands placed on our secondary language learners today, and they worked on creative, collaborative community-based solutions for meeting those demands.

Sometimes teachers must engage community resources to meet the needs of their students. Yi, Kao, and Kang (Chapter 6) secured space and volunteered their time and expertise in setting up digital learning opportunities in an extracurricular program. Page, Maurizio, and local teachers and volunteers (Chapter 9) used local school space for a Saturday newcomer's program to assist new immigrants in settling into the new school and community. Efforts such as these demonstrate teachers' willingness to go beyond classroom walls and a standard workweek to meet the needs of their learners.

Narrative as a Tool for Teacher Development and Agency

Just as secondary school learners face many challenges, so too do language educators, who must respond to shifts in migration patterns, measures of accountability, new learning standards, and a heightened sense of oversight of teacher performance (Menken, Hudson, & Leung, 2014). Freeman (2013) stated that "becoming a teacher involves forming a new professional identity" (p. 130), which begins with ideology built during our own years as students. Change is difficult, he argued, and resistance to change can threaten our professional identities.

Challenging ideologies is necessary for teachers to perform as agents of learning. Colombo, Bouchard, and Marte (Chapter 10) show how a novice teacher builds her teacher identity through reflection, feedback, and collaborations in the science classroom, just as Schauber and Brady (Chapter 4) demonstrate teacher learning through mentorship and support. Jandre and Viana (Chapter 11) share the voices of teachers and students in a secondary school in Brazil to explore and challenge existing ideologies held by the community, students, and teachers regarding English education in public schools. Such narrative inquiry demonstrates a challenge to the status quo and pushes teachers and learners to reinvent English education to meet their imagined identities.

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Yi, Kao, and Kang (Chapter 6) demonstrate that teachers and students can learn from each other through collaborative digital writing projects. Kırkgöz (Chapter 12) challenges teachers' perspectives on the use of first language in the English classroom. Through narrative inquiry, a process of uncovering previously unexamined attitudes and taken-for-granted practices resulted in heightened awareness for informed decision-making by teachers and students. Honigsfeld and Dove (Chapter 13) explore the possibilities of coteaching by language specialists and content-area teachers when voices are shared and individuals are recognized as valid co-constructors of knowledge and coparticipants in teaching and learning. These teachers' narratives reveal successful collaborations through shared goals, willingness to negotiate and experiment, and, perhaps most importantly, mutual respect and acknowledgement that we can learn from each other.

Concluding Thoughts

In discussing the possibilities of narrative inquiry, Johnson and Golombek (2011) described a "(re)constructive process," which allows us "to interpret and reinterpret [our] experiences" (p. 487) from the positions of insiders within our educational contexts. As they explained, "the act of narrating . . . influences how one comes to understand what one is narrating about" (p. 490). They argued that narratives act as meditational tools with three interrelated functions: externalization, verbalization, and systematic examination.

These three functions are clearly evident in the chapters of the present volume. The chapter narratives foster self-understanding and colearning for everyone involved in a particular learning context, including students, parents, administrators, and teacher-educators. These insider accounts can also help readers re-examine and re-interpret their experiences.

This volume contributes to the professional practice of inquiring into processes related to language learning by sharing insider accounts of learners, teachers, parents, administrators, teacher-educators, and researchers in secondary settings. Each chapter demonstrates the value of locally constructed knowledge, and we hope that the situated accounts described herein will become tools for reflection and dialogue about practice to help teachers address the needs of their particular classroom contexts.

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