

Supporting In-Service Teachers to Engage in Equitable Instructional Practices with
Translanguaging-Focused Educative Curriculum Materials

By

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Dissertation

Submitted to the Faculty of the
Graduate School of Vanderbilt University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements

for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in

Learning, Teaching, and Diversity

May 12, 2023

Nashville, Tennessee

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The research reported in this dissertation was made possible (in part) by a grant from the Spencer Foundation. The views expressed are those of the author and do not necessarily reflect the views of the Spencer Foundation.

This work would not have been possible without a variety of support from colleagues, advisors, committee members, friends, and family. I would like to thank Bob Jiménez for his belief in my ability to engage in this kind of work and extending my thinking, even from afar. I am grateful for Emily Phillips Galloway, whose example and unwavering support guided my journey through the research process. I would also like to thank Shannon Daniel, whose invaluable feedback in the writing process led to many necessary improvements here, and Mark Pacheco, who offered thoughtful perspectives and encouragement. This dissertation would not have been possible without the support of all those who contributed to Project TRANSLATE over the years, including Meenakshi Khanna, Sara McFadden, Janna McClain, Jenna Davis, Laura Buckley, and Rachel Siegman, just to name a few.

I'm filled with gratitude for the community offered by my cohort, from the beginning of our journey together: Laura Carter-Stone, Katherine Schneeberger McGugan, Emma Reimers, Jackson Reimers, and Heather Meston. I would also like to thank Sarah Burriss for commiserating as we worked in the trenches of writing together in our pod.

Last, but certainly not least, I want to thank my family for supporting me through this lengthy endeavor: my mom, for moving me here and cheering me on through every milestone; my husband, Shane, for taking on solo parenting duties through data collection and frantic writing sessions; and my daughter, Aubie, for teaching me something new every single day.

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Public education in the U.S. rests on the premise (and promise) of equitable educational opportunities (ESSA, 2015), but multilingual learners (MLLs)¹ who are labeled as English learners (ELs) continue to receive instruction based in monoglossic, English-only ideologies that restrict and even deny students access to their languages (Flores & Schissel, 2014; García et al., 2021). While research shows that building on MLLs' languages positively impacts students' academic and socioemotional growth (Cenoz & Gorter, 2022; García & Kleifgen, 2019; Jiménez et al., 2015), teachers of MLLs are underprepared for how to provide this kind of support (Santibañez & Gándara, 2018). Translanguaging pedagogies, or instructional practices that intentionally leverage students' languages for learning, can provide this kind of support (García et al., 2017); these pedagogies utilize culturally and linguistically sustaining approaches (Paris & Alim, 2014) for MLLs to engage in school-based content using all of their language resources. However, for teachers of MLLs to take advantage of these kinds of pedagogies, they must be supported to learn about them, which can be difficult, given the constraints and pressures of daily teaching responsibilities. Furthermore, research about teacher learning shows the need for ongoing, context-embedded professional learning (Ball & Cohen, 1999; Darling-Hammond et

¹ In this dissertation, I am intentionally using the acronym “MLL” to refer to bi/multilingual and bidialectal students who are given an “EL” (English learner) label by their schools to center their linguistic knowledge (see Farrelly, 2022). I refer to the teachers in these studies as “EL teachers,” since this is their official title, according to their school districts; this title also indicates their role in providing additional instruction and administrative tasks for students labeled as ELs.

al., 2017), but in-service opportunities for learning continue to be brief workshops that are often disconnected from teachers' practice.

Contribution of this Dissertation

How, then, should we support in-service teachers to learn about translanguaging pedagogies? Ball and Cohen (1999) recommend a pedagogy of professional learning that includes tasks grounded in the activities of classroom practice, the development of teacher-led inquiry, and teacher educators' understanding of content, teacher learning, and practice. This kind of professional learning pedagogy requires researchers and collaborators to have time with teachers and a deeper knowledge of local contexts. However, attaining this kind of time and connection with teachers proves to be difficult. An alternative method of professional learning support can come from educative curriculum materials, which offer teachers texts that encourage both student and teacher learning through various educative components that are situated in their daily teaching practice (Davis & Krajcik, 2005). Although these kinds of materials have been examined and developed for science and math classrooms (Collopy, 2003; Davis et al., 2014; Davis et al., 2017; Remillard & Kim, 2017), their utility for other subject areas has not been explored. Therefore, in this dissertation, I synthesize the literature on in-service teacher learning about translanguaging pedagogies and investigate how educative curriculum materials that include translanguaging focused-activities, materials, and teacher-centered explanations might support teacher learning about these linguistically rich and sustaining pedagogies.

Importance of Focal Phenomenon

Although translanguaging pedagogies have become more widely discussed and theorized in the last two decades, supporting teacher enactment of these instructional practices continues to be arduous, due to practical and ideological constraints. However, Menken and Sánchez's (2019)

collaboration with schools reveals that ideologies about multilingualism can change after teachers and administrators engaged in translanguaging pedagogies. Therefore, partnerships with teachers, where they are given strategies and materials that are intentionally designed to encourage students' translanguaging practices, can address both practical and ideological issues.

Project TRANSLATE, or Teaching Reading And New Strategic Language Approaches to Emergent bilinguals, was designed to support MLLs to translate sections of academic text from English into their languages, compare and evaluate their translations with classmates, and discuss their refined understandings of the text (Jiménez et al., 2015). This protocol, refined over the course of several years, engages students' translingual abilities to deepen their metalinguistic awareness and reading comprehension in English. This project's most recent goal was to provide additional supports for teachers through an entire reading curriculum, ultimately offering a translanguaging-focused set of educative curriculum materials for EL teachers. Through this dissertation, I will examine the efficacy of these materials in supporting participating teachers' learning about translanguaging pedagogies as they use the curriculum. Similar materials, to my knowledge, do not exist for use in a U.S. context; therefore, examining their potential for teacher learning is essential for improving professional learning.

Contribution of Chapter 2

In Chapter 2, I synthesize the extant literature focusing on how to support on-the-job teacher learning about translanguaging pedagogies, using a conceptual framework that combines Holland et al.'s (1998) concept of figured worlds and García et al.'s (2017) strands of a translanguaging pedagogy. The articles show how teachers' instructional practices, via their identity as teachers of MLLs, have the potential to change with the support of translanguaging pedagogical resources, through their sense of agency and their ability to improvise. Ultimately,

this paper offers two suggestions for greater support of in-service teacher learning about translanguaging pedagogies, through the development of educative curriculum materials and teacher engagement with a critical translingual approach (Seltzer, 2019).

Contribution of Chapter 3

In Chapter 3, I describe and analyze how six elementary and middle school teachers understood and utilized translanguaging pedagogies after implementing educative translanguaging-focused curriculum materials, as part of Project TRANSLATE, in their classrooms for two semesters. I used in-class observations and semi-structured interviews with these six focal teachers to discover how teachers noted support in their stance, design, and shifts (García et al., 2017) made possible by curricular materials and strategies. Ultimately, teachers' engagement with translanguaging pedagogies through educative curriculum materials supported a shift in how they view their roles as EL teachers, as they learned to support student multilingualism and intentionally build on their linguistic resources. Overall, this study shows how these materials can support “generative change” (Ball, 2009) as teachers begin to understand the power of translanguaging pedagogies beyond the pages of curriculum materials.

Contribution of Chapter 4

In Chapter 4, I explore the potential and pitfall of translanguaging-focused educative curriculum materials by closely examining how contextual factors influence teachers' use of the materials, operating as boundary objects (Star & Griesemer, 1989). I use a multiple-case study to conduct a cross-case comparison (Yin, 2018) of two monolingual, English-speaking EL teachers across two linguistically restrictive school contexts; these cases were chosen to reflect a range of teaching experience (veteran to relatively new), contexts (rural versus urban), and students with varying levels of English proficiency (from newcomer to more advanced). Through this case

study, I found that both teachers used the curriculum materials as boundary objects to bridge their relationships with students, their schools, and curricular ideas in ways that both restricted and supported students' translanguaging practices. A major limiting force for both teachers was standardized assessments, which focused the teachers' attention on data from these assessments as the main indicator of student success. Ultimately, this paper shows how the malleability of educative curriculum materials may decrease their efficacy, unless additional professional learning supports, such as reflective coaching sessions, are used to reinforce curricular ideas.

Collective Impact

Collectively, these chapters explore the initial results of how translanguaging-focused educative curriculum materials can serve as professional learning supports for in-service teachers. In Chapter 2, I demonstrate the need for sustainable in-service structures that provide assistance with teacher engagement with translanguaging pedagogies through a review of existing supports. In Chapters 3 and 4, I show how educative curriculum materials, new kinds of professional learning supports in this field, are enacted in teachers' classrooms and how teachers describe their learning about translanguaging pedagogies from these materials. Although Paper 3 highlights the restrictive influence of standardized assessments on teacher enactment of translanguaging pedagogies, these papers still reveal growth in teachers' understanding of and support for multilingualism in linguistically restrictive school spaces. Overall, this dissertation recognizes and responds to a need for more equitable educational opportunities for MLL students, which I have approached through a translanguaging pedagogical lens; the implications of this dissertation call for sustained partnerships with teachers, combining materials with more intensive coaching, to nurture generative professional learning (Ball, 2009) that supports not only heteroglossic, multilingual classrooms but also linguistically inclusive schools.

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CHAPTER 2

Translanguaging Pedagogies and In-Service Teacher Learning:

A Review of the Literature

Although students labeled as English learners (ELs) comprise almost 10% of students in U.S. public schools (U.S. Department of Education, 2021), the teaching force remains mostly monolingual and underprepared to provide equitable instruction for these multilingual learners (MLLs). As Ortiz et al. (2022) note, federal initiatives that were designed to promote equitable educational opportunities for all learners, such as the Every Student Succeeds Act (2015), have fallen short in achieving their goals, particularly for those labeled as ELs. These researchers recommend five elements that are essential for equitable learning outcomes: “access to highly qualified teachers, inclusive classroom climates, culturally and linguistically responsive instruction, fair assessments, and collaborative family-school partnerships” (Ortiz et al., 2022, p. 2). All five elements require a “multilingualism-as-a-resource” orientation (de Jong et al., 2019) that recognizes and celebrates the languages of MLLs as assets for the classroom and their communities. In a U.S. educational context where academic success is measured through English proficiency, this kind of orientation can be difficult for teachers to embrace, especially when they are not prepared to provide the supports connected to a multilingual, heteroglossic stance.

One kind of pedagogical approach that espouses a multilingualism-as-a-resource orientation are translanguaging pedagogies. Translanguaging practices, or “the deployment of a speaker’s full linguistic repertoire without regard for watchful adherence to the socially and politically defined boundaries of named (and usually national and state) languages” (Otheguy et

al., 2015, p. 283), are natural for bi/multilingual and bi-dialectical speakers. Therefore, translanguaging pedagogies are practices used to *intentionally* encourage students' languages and build on them as assets in academic spaces (Cenoz & Gorter, 2022; García et al., 2017). Since translanguaging pedagogies are based in teachers' intentional consideration and planning for students' development of multilingualism, teachers need support to engage in translanguaging pedagogies. Research from pre-service teacher education programs indicates that teacher educators are providing more coursework and opportunities for pre-service teachers to consider how to honor students' linguistic and cultural resources (e.g. Catalano et al., 2019; Kayi-Aydar, 2015; Lew & Shiffrin, 2019). However, the shift from student and intern to autonomous classroom teacher poses many context-specific challenges. Therefore, in-service learning opportunities may offer more longer-lasting support for teachers, particularly if they are ecologically situated in teachers' practice (Davis et al., 2017). The purpose of this literature review, then, is to examine how support for teacher learning about translanguaging pedagogies might address Ortiz et al.'s (2022) elements for equitable learning for MLLs.

There is a relatively expansive body of research that studies how in-service teachers learn about multilingual students. Several studies focused on teacher learning about multilingual student instruction utilize collaborative models where teachers work within partnerships, teams, or professional learning communities to support collective participation and shared knowledge within schools (Calderón, 1999; Martin-Beltrán & Percy, 2014; Roberts, 2021; Slack, 2019; Smith, et al., 2020; Walker & Stone, 2010). Some studies note the importance of the duration of their studies, spanning years (Bohon et al., 2017; Brancard & Quinnwilliams, 2012; Coppersmith, Song, & Kim, 2019; McIntyre et al., 2010), while others investigate how teachers enact researcher-created curricula (Calderón, 2009; Lee, 2004; Percy et al., 2015; Percy et al.,

2017). Some studies follow the learning of in-service teachers within university-sponsored ESL certificate programs (Forte & Blouin, 2016; Kibler & Roman, 2013). Overall, these researchers focus on teachers' new use of MLL student-specific strategies, revised perceptions about their MLL students, and positive teacher experiences with professional learning. In particular, this research does not include translanguaging as a pedagogical approach to use with MLLs; there is a much smaller corpus of studies on how teachers learn about and actualize translanguaging pedagogies in their classrooms. However, we know that translanguaging pedagogies positively impact students in a variety of ways: they support students' metalinguistic awareness (Jiménez et al., 2015; Parra & Proctor, 2021), they provide greater access to information and reading comprehension (Cenoz & Gorter, 2022), and they support students' sense of agency within the classroom (Hopewell et al., 2022; Parra & Proctor, 2021). Therefore, in the subsequent literature review, I will explore the following question: *What do we know about how in-service learning opportunities about translanguaging pedagogies could lead to more equitable instruction for MLLs?*

Theoretical Framework

I begin my theoretical framework with a review of translanguaging and how translanguaging pedagogies have come to be taken up in academic spaces. Next, I consider how teachers might learn about translanguaging pedagogies through a sociocultural, situated view of learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Vygotsky, 1978); then, I explore how the concept of figured worlds (Holland et al., 1998), in particular, can be a helpful construct through which to view teacher learning.

Translanguaging and Translanguaging Pedagogies

Translanguaging, a term coined by Welsh researchers in the 1980s (Lewis et al., 2012), was originally conceptualized within a classroom context; however, translanguaging practices occur in all spaces and at all times, as a regular languaging practice of bi/multilingual and bidialectal people. Translanguaging is a process through which a speaker utilizes all of her languages, including officially recognized languages and those considered non-standard (Otheguy et al., 2015). Although the term “code switching” is also used to refer to movement between languages (MacSwan, 2017), translanguaging moves beyond the external recognition of one’s named languages to the way a bi- or multilingual person views their own use of their language repertoires (Li, 2011). Therefore, even speakers who might be considered monolingual but engage in marginalized language practices, such as bidialectal speakers of Black Language (Baker-Bell, 2020; Frieson & Presiado, 2022) engage in translanguaging as they move among various language features in different contexts.

Importantly, the concept of translanguaging relies on a conception of dynamic bilingualism, where speakers are regularly moving across and among languages, adapting to the contexts and circumstances of the moment; this conception differs from additive bilingualism, where one bounded language is added to a second bounded language (García, 2009). In many educational contexts, language instruction is based in additive bilingualism, where even bilingual education programs operate under a system of language separation (García, 2009). However, this attempt to create boundaries around languages is not based in the reality of multilinguals’ lived experiences. In their teacher-focused book on translanguaging pedagogies, Garcia, Ibarra Johnson, and Seltzer (2017) refer to this flow of dynamic bilingualism happening within

classrooms as the “translanguaging corriente,” or the current of language in motion as MLLs use all of their language resources in meaning making (p. 21).

Importantly, García’s (2009) seminal chapter on multilingual education and translanguaging calls for educational practices that depend on principles of social justice and social practice; a pedagogy based in translanguaging depends on both of these principles. Translanguaging is a social practice, as linguistic development occurs through collaboration and co-construction of meaning with others. Translanguaging as an instructional practice is also socially just because students’ languages are viewed as assets and the rights to students’ own languages are secured. Moreover, translanguaging as a pedagogical practice builds students’ metalinguistic skills, as they notice similarities and differences in lexical, syntactic, and discourse level components of their languages (Jiménez et al., 2015). As a result of this metalinguistic knowledge construction, Gort (2019) states that “translanguaging becomes an important aspect of bilingual and biliterate development” (p. 237). The development of translingual sensibilities in students positively impacts academic achievement through literacy development and socio-emotional well-being through newfound confidence in their literacies and their sense of belonging in academic spaces (DeNicolò, 2019; García & Kleifgen, 2019).

Some examples of translanguaging pedagogies utilized in classrooms include providing multilingual texts and opportunities to translate texts to build reading comprehension (García, 2020; Jiménez, et al., 2015; Stewart & Hansen-Thomas, 2016), encouraging multilingual student writing (de los Ríos & Seltzer, 2017; Gort, 2019; Machado & Hartman, 2019, 2020; Rowe, 2018), and supporting classroom discussions around academic content and language, both in traditional English language arts settings and in math and science classrooms (Holdway & Hitchcock, 2018; Licon & Kelly, 2020; Osorio, 2020; Poza, 2019; Seltzer, 2019). Of course, the

translanguaging corriente flows in classrooms with MLLs regardless of teacher input, but teachers can support this practice more intentionally to provide equitable opportunities for growth in academic, socioemotional, cultural, and linguistic realms.

Building Translanguaging Pedagogies

Within a classroom translanguaging corriente, or a space where students' dynamic bilingualism flows, García et al. (2017) describe the two dimensions that operate in this space: students' translanguaging performances and teachers' translanguaging pedagogies. This review focuses on teachers' pedagogical practices, so I will provide an overview of how these authors conceive of the three strands of a translanguaging pedagogy. First, García et al. (2017) encourage teachers to develop a translanguaging stance, or the "philosophical, ideological, or belief system that teachers draw from to develop their pedagogical framework" (p. 27). This stance impacts how teachers and administrators view students and their languages as well as how they create instruction to build on students' linguistic assets. Importantly, Menken and Sánchez's (2019) work reveals how a translanguaging stance can develop from the use of translanguaging pedagogical practices. In other words, if teachers are engaged in the work of practicing translanguaging pedagogies, the value placed on students' linguistic assets provides opportunities for teachers to alter their perceptions of students and the role of multilingualism to promote a more heteroglossic stance (García, 2009). A fully developed translanguaging stance is not required for teachers to implement translanguaging pedagogies, but they cannot leverage the translanguaging corriente that flows in their classrooms without a belief in students' rights to their languages.

The next two strands of a teacher's translanguaging pedagogy are translanguaging design and translanguaging shifts (García et al., 2017). Teachers utilize translanguaging design to plan

for how to create connections across all of a student's language practices. This design does not always respond to what happens from moment to moment in the classroom, so teachers must then utilize translanguaging shifts to make learning relevant and honor students' understandings. Overall, students and their cultural and linguistic expertise remain at the center of translanguaging pedagogies, shifting power from the teacher to the students as creators of knowledge. In this way, translanguaging pedagogies are not only equitable educational practices; they are also anti-oppressive practices as they attempt to deconstruct language hierarchies, which place "standardized" English as the ultimate goal of K-12 education while all other named languages and language varieties are ignored or even forcibly eliminated (Li & García, 2022). Translanguaging pedagogies have great potential for equitable and anti-oppressive instruction, but teacher uptake of this approach involves teacher learning and change.

A Sociocultural View of Teacher Learning

To determine how best to support teacher learning about translanguaging pedagogies, two questions must be explored: What exactly is teacher learning and how do we provide opportunities for teacher learning to occur? There are many theories about how learning occurs, but a sociocultural view of learning recognizes how past experiences and the present context impact how and what teachers learn. Lave and Wenger's (1991) sociocultural stance on learning focuses on identity construction through participation in various communities of practice, so that learning is a situated activity involving the transformation of identity through legitimate peripheral participation in a particular community. Legitimate peripheral participation indicates that in order for learners to master knowledge and skills, they must "move toward full participation in the sociocultural practices of a community" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 29). Therefore, teacher learning involves legitimate peripheral participation that draws them into the

communities of their professions as well as their individual schools. According to Kelly (2006), a sociocultural perspective on teacher learning means that “teacher learning is the process by which teachers move towards expertise” (p. 514) through full participation in classroom settings with students, echoing Lave and Wenger’s idea of legitimate peripheral participation.

For pre-service teachers, we see how student teaching and other internships provide this kind of legitimate peripheral participation into the community of teaching practice, moving towards expertise. However, students, local resources, and policies vary widely from school to school. While pre-service learning for teachers may be helpful in general for their future profession, their future teaching assignment requires entry to and development of expertise within another community of practice in particular. In other words, teacher learning cannot be separated from one’s context; teacher learning is situated locally, so that professional learning opportunities must be driven by teacher educators’ knowledge of teachers and their particular settings, which comprises a wide spectrum across K-12 education in the U.S. For teachers of MLLs, an additional level of expertise is required, as they become accustomed to the language groups and language policies in their school communities.

Educational researchers have been investigating *how* teachers learn, for several decades, to determine how to provide better educational opportunities for students. For in-service teachers, professional learning typically occurs during professional development workshops, offering yearly credits required for teacher licensure. Some teachers may seek their own professional learning opportunities, through local organizations or university programs, but many teachers are left with what their school and district provide. Ball and Cohen’s (1999) seminal text on supporting teacher development for educational reform argues that teachers must “become serious learners in and around their practice, rather than amassing strategies and activities” (p. 4).

However, the process of becoming a “serious” learner is difficult and complex, due to a lack of resources, inadequate teacher education, and the problematic persistence of the apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975) once teachers have their own classrooms. Therefore, Ball and Cohen (1999) recommend a pedagogy of professional learning that includes tasks grounded in the activities of classroom practice, the development of teachers’ disposition of inquiry, and understanding, for those providing teacher education, of content, teacher learning, and practice. This kind of pedagogy requires time with teachers and knowledge of local contexts. However, it is difficult to achieve this kind of time and connection with teachers. Most teacher learning opportunities continue to be comprised of brief workshops and introductions to mandated curricula (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017). While teachers are required to complete a number of hours of professional development over the course of the school year, simply attending professional development may lead to teacher compliance rather than teacher learning.

More recently, Darling-Hammond et al. (2017) published a review of effective professional development for teachers, including the following features: focuses on content, incorporates active learning, supports collaboration, uses models of effective practice, provides coaching, offers feedback, and is sustained over time. However, this study also recognizes the barriers to implementing effective professional development programs, including a lack of resources, shared vision, time, and foundational knowledge of teachers, as well as conflicting requirements from schools (Darling-Hammond, et al., 2017, p. 24). In addition, Liu and Phelps (2020) investigated the rate of teacher learning decay after professional learning opportunities. They find that programs with a longer duration and those that occur during the school year offer more long-term sustenance for teacher learning, aligning with Darling-Hammond et al.’s (2017) recommendations. There are certainly many obstacles to providing and implementing high-

quality professional learning opportunities for both teachers and teacher educators, particularly due to time and resources.

Research about in-service learning on using translanguaging pedagogies with MLLs remains scarce. Many studies that focus on translanguaging examine what teachers are already doing (e.g. Allard, 2017; Henderson & Ingram, 2018; Rowe, 2018). While this research is certainly worthwhile, many teachers are unaware of how to enact translanguaging pedagogies or the advantages of translanguaging in their classrooms. Therefore, the findings of this paper focus on studies that provide in-service learning opportunities about translanguaging for teachers in public U.S. K-12 schools and how these learning opportunities impact teachers' practices.

Teacher Learning Within Figured Worlds

Before analyzing these translanguaging learning opportunities, I will articulate how I view change via teacher learning: namely, teachers make long-term changes in their practices as a result of a change in identity within a particular context. The concept of identity seems obvious yet untenable, particularly when we consider how many definitions and conceptions of identity exist, even limited to the realm of education. To narrow this concept, a sociocultural stance on identity development recognizes the social, cultural, and historical influences on one's development and self-perception (Vygotsky, 1978). However, humans are not merely products of their environment; theories of identity must also account for one's agency, or ability to act upon the world. In Holland et al.'s (1998) seminal work, *Identity and Agency in Cultural Worlds*, the authors develop a theory of identity that considers the interplay of agency and environment through the concept of figured worlds. According to Holland et al. (1998), figured worlds encompass the activities that shape our lives and the encounters wherein social positions are significant, become socially organized and reproduced, and contribute to our identities through

our participation in activities (p. 41). Figured worlds are conjured within play as well as within institutions, so these worlds comprise the various areas, in space and time, where we actively become. One particularly influential and common figured world is that of school, a space where many people spend substantial portions of their youth. Still, the figured world of school is not a monolith; instead, this broad category of figured worlds is comprised of individual schools, classrooms, and moments that contribute to our sense of identity as students as well as people. Other researchers have explored how figured worlds provide a framework for viewing how teachers produce and reconstruct their identities within school contexts (e.g. Rubin & Land, 2017; Urrieta, 2009; Varghese & Snyder, 2018). Similarly, I will use figured worlds to understand how artifacts of in-service learning contribute to teacher identity (re)construction within their classroom figured worlds.

Artifacts

How does a figured world shape one's identity? The practices within these figured worlds, which are both sedimented and open to change, rely upon the artifacts found in these worlds. Holland et al. (1998) uses Vygotsky's (1978) concept of semiotic mediation to illustrate how artifacts "are the means by which figured worlds are evoked, collectively developed, individually learned, and made socially and personally powerful" (p. 61). Essentially, artifacts, which might include objects or behaviors, make certain practices within figured worlds possible. Within a classroom, the presence of books makes the practice of reading (in whatever form that might take) possible. More specifically, the presence of culturally and linguistically diverse texts facilitates encounters with characters and ideas that move beyond the "canon" that is taken as the norm in many ELA classrooms. These encounters can, in turn, shift practices around how

students and teachers talk about books, themselves, and the world. The artifacts alone do not shift practices. Instead, actors, or teachers, use these artifacts to improvise new courses of action.

Improvisation

Improvisations, then, occur when particular conditions, combined with one's past practices and history-in-person, provide openings to which there is no prescribed response (Holland et al., 1998, p. 17). Artifacts can provide opportunities for these conditions of improvisation, so that the practices within a figured world are not static. Instead, improvisations lead to shifts in practices within a figured world, in turn leading to an altered identity. As mentioned, one's improvisations also result from their history-in-person, or the "sediment from past experiences" (p. 18); while constraints exist, related to one's understanding of which improvisations are possible, the interplay of artifacts and improvisations within figured worlds provide space for the development of one's identity and sense of agency.

Agency

The agency of a person, then, is determined both by the positions available to them within the figured world and by their own sense of self. Therefore, the artifacts found in and introduced to figured worlds hold great power as mediating devices to increase and decrease one's sense of agency and power. We can see how the artifacts, including material objects and encouraged behaviors, that are utilized in classrooms have immense potential for shaping students' and teachers' identities, interactions, and understandings of learning and teaching. As with improvisations, one's history-in-person can increase or decrease their sense of agency in a particular space. For example, a multilingual teacher who experienced exclusion as a result of their language use during their own time in school might feel less agency in providing their students with opportunities to engage in translanguaging. However, their sense of agency might

increase from the support of artifacts that encourage translanguaging pedagogies and administrators that support multilingualism.

Conceptual Framework

Translanguaging pedagogies, as instructional practices that support and build on multilingual students' cultural and linguistic resources, contribute to the development of student identity within the classroom. Likewise, as teachers learn about and enact translanguaging pedagogies, their own senses of identity and agency within their classrooms shift and develop. Teacher learning is necessary for engaging in translanguaging pedagogies, as this kind of instruction (like any kind of instruction) is not natural, even for multilingual speakers. Internalized language ideologies and teachers' histories of schooling, external pressures around standardized assessments, and broader language policies inform how they approach multilingual learners. Therefore, throughout my literature review, I will operationalize a framework that combines concepts from figured worlds with García et al.'s (2017) strands of a translanguaging pedagogy to explore teachers' understanding and use of translanguaging pedagogies through in-service learning. Because teacher learning is contextually situated, the figured worlds framework elucidates how artifacts of in-service learning about translanguaging support or prevent instructional change.

The Translanguaging Corriente and Figured Worlds

First, teachers inhabit a variety of figured worlds throughout the course of their day: the figured world of their homes, their schools, and their various communities. This framework narrows in on the classroom figured worlds of teachers, as this is a space over which teachers typically have more control and where they provide instruction to students. According to García et al. (2017), the dynamic bilingualism employed by multilingual students creates a

translanguaging corriente within the classroom, whether their translanguaging practices become hidden from teachers or made explicit through teacher invitations. In other words, translanguaging occurs in teachers' classroom figured worlds regardless of their use of translanguaging pedagogies. As teachers work to create and maintain the figured world of their classrooms, this corriente can be supported or suppressed, depending on the teacher's identity and sense of agency. Therefore, the process of learning about translanguaging pedagogies affects how the teacher's figured world works within the translanguaging corriente.

Translanguaging Stance, Identity, and History-in-Person

Next, I conceptualize the identity of the teacher within the figured world of the classroom as their translanguaging stance. This stance, or belief system from which teachers draw their instructional practices, impacts how agentic teachers feel about implementing translanguaging pedagogies, resisting monolingual, monoglossic practices, and sustaining a translingual figured world. Teachers' identities and developing translanguaging stances do not exist only in the present. Instead, they are informed by their history-in-person, or past experiences and influences. While learning about translanguaging, teachers' identities might be influenced by their previous experiences with multilingualism, professional learning opportunities, personal ideologies, their own history of language learning, and even their geographic location. In figured worlds terms, teachers' histories-in-persons greatly influence their translanguaging stances. Thus, merely learning about translanguaging pedagogies does not necessitate one's development of a translanguaging stance or identity.

Translanguaging Design and Agency

Teacher agency also supports identity development; if teachers feel constrained by their schools or support systems, their identities may remain stagnant. Alternatively, if teachers feel

they have more agency or control over their environment, they may be more open to change, leading to a translanguaging stance. Teacher agency, then, correlates to translanguaging design, wherein teachers plan for how they might work within the translanguaging corriente of their classrooms to build on students' linguistic knowledge. This design depends on both the actual instructional plans as well as the classroom space, in order to fully support a multilingual ecology within the figured world. Of course, any careful design does not entirely anticipate the actuality of a classroom space filled with humans.

Translanguaging Shifts and Improvisation

Teacher improvisations correlate to the necessity of translanguaging shifts that occur from moment to moment, in response to what is actively occurring within the classroom. Again, agency and improvisation are recursive, in that greater agency leads to greater improvisational use and more improvisations build a greater sense of agency within the translanguaging corriente of the classroom.

Translanguaging Resources and Artifacts

The part of the framework that influences all three of these main components, translanguaging stance, design, and shifts, is artifacts, or resources available to teachers. Artifacts can either support or prevent changes from occurring to teachers' identities, sense of agency, and use of improvisations. Artifacts that exist within a translanguaging framework include resources for instruction, such as professional development, curricular materials, and texts, along with intangible resources, such as time, administrative support, and language policies. In-service learning provides teachers with artifacts that may or may not affect the translanguaging corriente of their figured world; therefore, a focus on how artifacts affect teachers' use of translanguaging pedagogies attempts to locate the mechanism through which

figured worlds can be shaped and reimagined via in-service learning opportunities. Figure 1 provides a visual model for this translanguaging figured world framework.

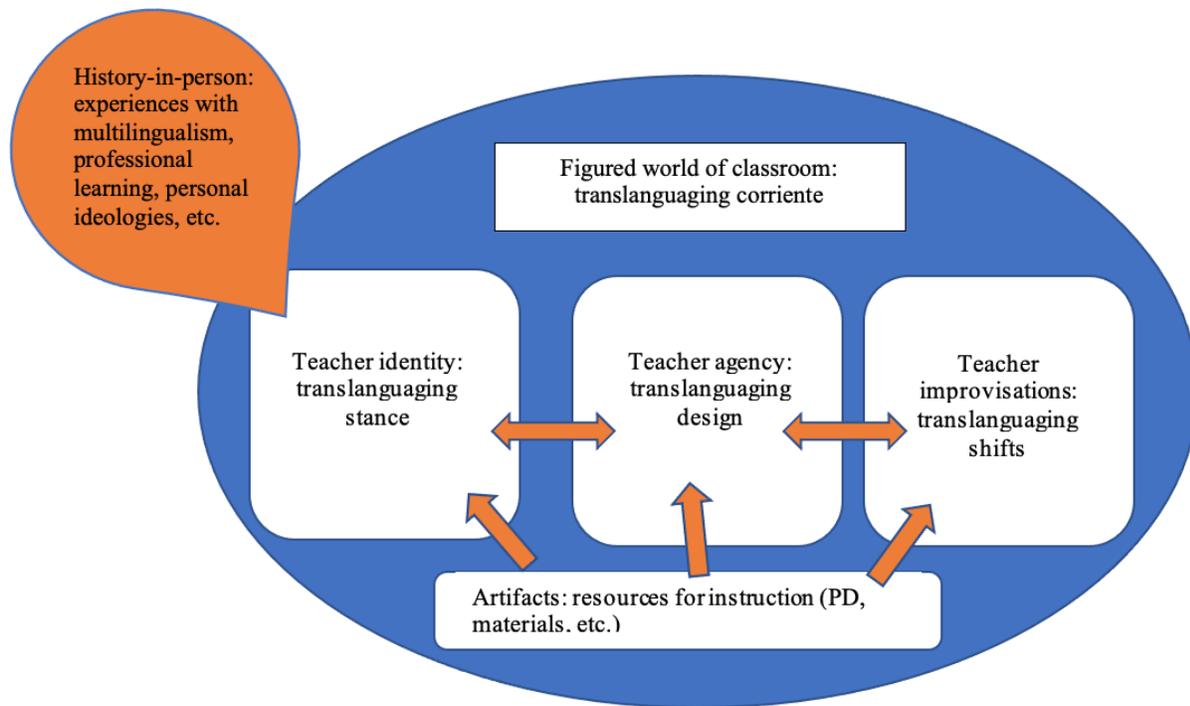


Figure 2-1. Translanguaging pedagogies and figured worlds.

Methods

In order to systematically identify studies about in-service learning opportunities regarding translanguaging pedagogies, I searched for peer reviewed articles across three databases: ERIC, Education Full Text, and ProQuest Social Science Premium Collection. I started with broad search terms, “translanguaging AND teachers,” to ensure that the studies included some mention of translanguaging. As I read the abstracts of the 420 resulting articles, I began the exclusion process. First, I excluded articles focused on educational contexts outside of the United States because the experience of teachers in U.S. settings is much different than those in international settings. While the U.S. has no official language, the history of white settler colonialism that eradicated languages of indigenous and enslaved people and forcibly assimilated

“low status” immigrants through English in the name of neoliberalism and nationalism (Ramsey, 2012) continues to affect the language ideologies of U.S. citizens and its educational system. In addition, I excluded articles focused on pre-K or higher education contexts, articles studying out-of-school spaces, and articles centering on pre-service teachers.

After reading the remaining 52 articles, I excluded articles that focused on translanguaging practices of students without making any mention of teachers’ translanguaging pedagogies. In addition, I excluded articles focused on teachers’ existing enactment of translanguaging pedagogies without mention of any in-service learning. Last, I excluded practitioner focused articles that operated as “teaching tips” rather than empirical studies. From this process, 15 articles remained, including two that had just been published online, which I located through Google Scholar alerts. I conducted this search during the summer and fall of 2021; in returning to this review in early 2023, I used this same method detailed above to ensure that I located any new articles published on in-service teachers and pedagogical translanguaging supports. In addition, I searched through the articles published in the last two years in the journals that published articles included in my original search. From this process, I located three additional articles that met my search criteria. Given the more recent uptake of translanguaging pedagogies in U.S. schools, these articles were all published in the last 10 years. See Table 1 for a list of articles included in this review of the literature along with the grades of students with whom teachers in these studies worked.

Article citation	Grades of students taught by teachers
Ascenzi-Moreno, L. (2017). From deficit to diversity: How teachers of recently arrived emergent bilinguals negotiate ideological and pedagogical change. <i>Schools: Studies in Education, 14</i> (2), 276-302.	9 th and 10 th grades
Ascenzi-Moreno, L., Hesson, S., & Menken, K. (2015). School leadership along the trajectory from monolingual to multilingual. <i>Language and Education, 30</i> (3), 197-218.	Kindergarten through 12 th grades

Back, M. (2020). "It is a village": Translanguaging pedagogies and collective responsibility in a rural school district. <i>TESOL Quarterly</i> , 54(4), 900-924.	Kindergarten through 8 th grades
Daniel, S.M., Jiménez, R.T., Pray, L., & Pacheco, M.B. (2019). Scaffolding to make translanguaging a classroom norm. <i>TESOL Journal</i> , 10(1), 1-14.	2 nd and 3 rd grades
David, S.S., Shepard-Carey, L., Swearingen, A.J., Hemsath, D.J., & Heo, S. (2022). Entry points and trajectories: Teachers learning and doing translanguaging pedagogy. <i>TESOL Journal</i> , 13(1), 1-17.	6 th through 12 th grades
David, S.S., Pacheco, M.B., & Jiménez, R.T. (2019). Designing translanguaging pedagogies: Exploring pedagogical translation through a classroom teaching experiment. <i>Cognition and Instruction</i> , 37(2), 252-275.	8 th grade
Deroo, M.R. & Ponzio, C. (2019). Confronting ideologies: A discourse analysis of in-service teachers' translanguaging stance through an ecological lens. <i>Bilingual Research Journal</i> , 42(2), 214-231.	Kindergarten through 12 th grades
Fine, C.G.M. (2022). Translanguaging interpretive power in formative assessment co-design: A catalyst for science teacher agentive shifts. <i>Journal of Language, Identity & Education</i> , 21(3), 191-211.	6 th grade
García-Mateus, S. & Palmer, D. (2017). Translanguaging pedagogies for positive identities in two-way dual language bilingual education. <i>Journal of Language, Identity & Education</i> , 16(4), 245-255.	1 st grade
Hill, K., Ponder, J.M., Summerline, J., & Evans, P. (2020). Two language books: The power and possibilities of leveraging multilingual texts for critical translanguaging pedagogy. <i>Journal of Higher Education Theory and Practice</i> , 20(12), 197-209.	Kindergarten through 2 nd grades
Holdway, J. & Hitchcock, C.H. (2018). Exploring ideological becoming in professional development for teachers of multilingual learners: Perspectives on translanguaging in the classroom. <i>Teaching and Teacher Education</i> , 75, 60-70.	Kindergarten through 12 th grades
Hopewell, S., Escamilla, K., Ruíz-Martínez, M., & Zamorano, K. (2022). Designing and facilitating language interpretation experiences with 2 nd and 3 rd grade bilingual learners: Learning from teachers' experiences. <i>Bilingual Research Journal</i> , 45(2), 140-158.	2 nd and 3 rd grades
Langman, J. (2014). Translanguaging, identity, and learning: Science teachers as engaged language planners. <i>Language Policy</i> , 13, 183-200.	9 th through 12 th grades
Menken, K. & Sánchez, M.T. (2019). Translanguaging in English-only schools: From pedagogy to stance in the disruption of monolingual policies and practices. <i>TESOL Quarterly</i> , 53(3), 741-767.	Kindergarten through 12 th grades
Ponzio, C.M. & Deroo, M.R. (2021). Harnessing multimodality in language teacher education: Expanding English-dominant teachers' translanguaging capacities through a Multimodalities	Kindergarten through 12 th grades

Entextualization Cycle. <i>International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism</i> , https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2021.1933893 .	
Seltzer, K. (2019). Reconceptualizing “home” and “school” language: Taking a critical translanguaging approach in the English classroom. <i>TESOL Quarterly</i> , 53(4), 986-1007.	11 th grade
Seltzer, K. (2020). “My English is its own rule”: Voicing a translanguaging sensibility through poetry. <i>Journal of Language, Identity & Education</i> , 19(5), 297-311.	11 th grade
Stewart, M.A., Hansen-Thomas, H., Flint, P., & Núñez, M. (2021). Translanguaging disciplinary literacies: Equitable language environments to support literacy engagement. <i>Reading Research Quarterly</i> , 57(1), 181-203.	9 th through 12 th grades

Table 2-1. Articles included in literature review.

Findings

The following literature review organizes and analyzes the 18 articles selected for inclusion to answer the research question, *how might in-service learning opportunities about translanguaging pedagogies lead to equitable instruction for multilingual learners*, into four sections related to teacher learning and figured worlds. The first section, translanguaging resources and artifacts, includes two subsections: theories of teacher learning and the in-service learning supports provided by researchers within the articles. The last three sections of findings map onto the previously elucidated conceptual framework, following teacher identity, agency, and improvisation through their engagement with the translanguaging supports described in the articles. As explained by Holland et al. (1998), the interconnected relationships among artifacts, identity, agency, and improvisation operates so that the development of identity impacts agency, in turn affecting improvisation; all three components are supported through artifacts. The purpose of this literature review, then, is to thematically synthesize how articles describing in-service teacher learning about translanguaging understand teacher learning and change through the lens of figured worlds, identity, agency, improvisation, and translanguaging pedagogies.

Translanguaging Resources and Artifacts

Theories of Teacher Learning

First, the theories of teacher learning operationalized within these articles are important to understand how researchers chose translanguaging supports for teachers as well as how they determined whether teacher learning occurred. Across the 18 articles that address opportunities for in-service learning about translanguaging pedagogies, researchers' approaches to providing this support reflect similar theories of teacher learning. Some authors specified their theories of teacher learning (David et al., 2019; Deroo & Ponzio, 2019; Fine, 2022; Holdway & Hitchcock, 2018; Hopewell et al., 2022; Ponzio & Deroo, 2021); however, even in articles without a specific theory of learning, the methods and materials utilized with teachers indicate broadly connected philosophies of teacher learning from a sociocultural perspective. Furthermore, the models these researchers use in providing teachers with explanations of translanguaging theory, opportunities for pedagogical enactment and collaboration, and reflective feedback specific to their teaching context are based on a theory of situated learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991). For example, Back (2020) uses collaborative descriptive inquiry (CDI) sessions as a tool for teachers to combine new knowledge into their existing knowledge "through shared, collaborative, reflective, iterative, and adaptive processes" (p. 905). Because all participants in Back's (2020) study worked within the same small school district, teachers could share the results of translanguaging implementation as it occurred within a specific sociohistorical context, affected by the rural district's proximity to a university with increasing numbers of international students and families. Additionally, the author notes that most of the district's students and teachers are white and monolingual English speakers, providing more information about the sociocultural factors influencing teachers' knowledge of and practices with MLLs. In doing so, Back (2020)

acknowledges how teacher learning must build from the individual teacher and teaching context to be effective and actionable. In other articles, researchers highlight the importance of interaction (García-Mateus & Palmer, 2017; Daniel, et al., 2019; Ascenzi-Moreno, 2017) as well as the necessity of both theory and practice for learning (Daniel et al., 2019; Menken & Sánchez, 2019; Ponzio & Deroo, 2021; Stewart et al., 2021). These ideas also build from sociocultural theories of learning, in that teachers need opportunities to participate with others and engage in the practices of a particular community to learn (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

Across the articles that specify their theories of teacher learning, their conceptions include Freirean consciousness raising (Langman, 2014), a social semiotic approach (Ponzio & Deroo, 2021), social practice theory (David et al., 2019), the Douglas Fir Group framework (Deroo & Ponzio, 2019), ideological becoming (Holdway & Hitchcock, 2018), Delta Theory (Hopewell et al., 2022) and interpretive power (Fine, 2022). Within the realm of sociocultural theories of learning, social practice theory, as explained by David et al. (2019), illustrates how individual knowledge cannot be separated from social participation. The Douglas Fir Group framework, used by Deroo and Ponzio (2019), also acknowledges the interdependence of the individual with one's social environment; however, this framework separates these interactions into different levels of learning: the micro level for individual influences on learning, the meso level for institutional influences on learning, and the macro level for broader sociocultural influences on learning. For Holdway and Hitchcock (2018), the process of "ideological becoming," based in Bakhtinian ideas about learning, occurs when teachers must "recognize their personal and professional" ideologies, "how these influence their current teaching practice; and, once knowing, to continue on to bring about change" (p. 61). This theory of learning acknowledges the importance of determining the sociocultural influences on teachers'

conceptions so that instruction for teacher learning can be both connected to and unsettle previous understandings. Interestingly, the concept of ideological becoming seems to mirror the process of developing a translanguaging stance (García et al., 2017). Hopewell et al.'s (2022) use of Delta Theory reflects how change occurs in contexts where participants collaborate for a common goal; likewise, Fine's (2022) application of teacher interpretive power, to consider alternative possibilities, requires learning through collectivity.

The process of Freirean consciousness raising in Langman (2014) aims to develop teachers' consciousness of their practices to contribute to increased student agency, another approach that recognizes one's social situatedness. Next, the social semiotic approach found in Ponzio and Deroo (2021) is also based on Freirean conceptions of consciousness and change as individuals "draw upon various modes and semiotics to communicate and act upon their social world" (p. 5). Regardless of the specificity of theories of teacher learning utilized in these articles, researchers clearly base their understanding of learning and development in sociocultural ideas. Then, their methods to support teacher learning are based on teachers' understandings of themselves and their contexts, as will be highlighted in the following sections.

Some articles emphasize an additional critical approach to teacher learning about translanguaging pedagogies. Hill et al. (2020) promotes critical pedagogies as a necessary complement to learning about translanguaging pedagogies, so that learning becomes transformational when applied to teachers' practices and ideologies. In a similar vein, Seltzer's collaborative work (2019, 2020) with a high school English teacher is framed by a critical translingual theoretical approach, so teachers confront oppressive ideologies at a systemic level while designing equitable, translingual-focused instruction in their classrooms. Although all articles note the value of considering broader policies that constrain equitable linguistic

practices, Hill et al. (2020) and Seltzer (2019, 2020) specifically articulate the importance of critical theories for teachers' long-term translanguaging stances, or their teacher identity.

In-service learning supports

There are five different broad types of translanguaging supports, or artifacts, described within the articles, including co-planning units with teachers, graduate coursework, in-service professional development workshops, reflective professional development, and teacher study groups. First, in co-planning units of instruction, García-Mateus and Palmer (2017) worked with their focal teacher for six weeks to plan and implement read aloud lessons. Similarly, Seltzer (2019, 2020) met with her focal teacher to read articles, discuss critical topics, and co-create a curriculum for the school year. Fine (2022) also engaged in a teacher-researcher collaborative, using (Trans)Formative Assessment Co-Design cycles. Next, some studies used graduate coursework to facilitate in-service learning, as their students were teachers in the classroom during their graduate courses. Deroo and Ponzio (2019) and Ponzio and Deroo (2021) taught a 16 week online graduate course required to obtain a TESOL endorsement along with a Master's degree. Within the course, teachers read texts on translanguaging, reflected via an online discussion board, and completed a practicum in a different grade level. Hill et al. (2020) also introduced translanguaging theory as a part of graduate coursework for in-service teachers; activities in this course included book studies, writing lesson plans utilizing translanguaging, reflective journaling, and an action research project over the course of five months. Stewart et al. (2021) worked with teachers in one school district to provide three graduate-level courses about teaching for linguistic equity.

The majority of translanguaging artifacts came from in-service professional development workshops, where researchers provided teachers with interactive seminars about translanguaging

pedagogies in their school settings. This kind of learning support is most common for K-12 in-service teachers (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017). Ascenzi-Moreno (2017), Ascenzi-Moreno et al. (2015), and Menken and Sánchez (2019) all worked for the City University of New York New York State Initiative on Emergent Bilinguals (CUNY NYSIEB) project, where schools participate in professional development through seminars and on-site visits. These professional development workshops last for one year or more and involve the entire school staff, which has the potential to facilitate a more expansive change within the school context. Another large professional development workshop resource was developed by Holdway and Hitchcock (2018), called the Reading Comprehension in Math for English Language Learners course for teachers across the state of Hawaii. In this 15-week online course, teachers engaged in study, reflection, discussion, and a case study with their students related to translanguaging, multilingualism, and math instruction. Back's (2020) professional development workshops, which occurred on a smaller scale within one school for nine months, utilized collaborative descriptive inquiry sessions focused on translanguaging. Although David et al. (2021) and David et al. (2019) provided professional development sessions during teachers' planning times or after school, lasting for five hour-long sessions and four 40-minute sessions, respectively, Daniel et al. (2019) offered professional development during a week-long summer workshop. All three of these researchers presented teachers with translanguaging theory, examples of translanguaging strategies, and co-developed plans to implement translanguaging in teachers' classrooms. Hopewell et al. (2022) engaged with teachers in professional development over the course of two years, with the first year focused on five two-day sessions about the Literacy Squared model (an approach to reading instruction through a biliteracy framework) and the second year centered on a sustainability project to continue the biliteracy model in their district.

Langman (2014) specified her approach to providing translanguaging resources as reflective professional development, created by observing teachers' practices and making them aware of those practices over the course of a school year. This approach involved iterative debriefings with teachers and follow-up observations. Last, in addition to her involvement in the CUNY NYSIEB project, Ascenzi-Moreno (2017) facilitated a collaborative teacher study group around writing instruction and translanguaging. This group met six times over the course of a school year to reflect, discuss, and look at student work.

These translanguaging resources, or artifacts for teacher learning, make translanguaging practices possible for teachers within the figured worlds of their classrooms. Still, their uptake and potential for shaping teachers' practices and pedagogical approaches depends on the development of teachers' translanguaging stances connecting to these artifacts, as discussed in the next section.

Translanguaging Stance and Teacher Identity

In this section, I conceive of the relationship between teacher identity and translanguaging pedagogies as evidence provided by researchers of new or revised translanguaging stances developed through the studies' in-service learning artifacts. Holdway and Hitchcock (2018) designate the development of this translanguaging stance in their article as the process of "ideological becoming," wherein teachers recognize their ideological positions, how these positions affect their instructional practices, and use this newfound understanding to change their practices. Some articles specifically refer to the development of a translanguaging stance, while others include descriptions of new teacher practices that may indicate a developing translanguaging stance.

Many studies' participating teachers reported deeper learning about their students and an enhanced view of their students as a result of enacting translanguaging pedagogies (Ascenzi-Moreno, 2017; Ascenzi-Moreno et al., 2015; Daniel et al., 2019; David et al., 2021; Ponzio & Deroo, 2021; Stewart et al., 2021), perhaps the most important starting point for a translanguaging stance. Teachers in David et al. (2021) reported learning more about students' languages, including which students were fluent in their home languages and which students knew languages other than those listed in school documents. These new understandings led to teachers' revised and individualized practices with their students, a further development of teachers' agency and design beyond the suggestions offered during in-service learning. Additionally, this kind of teacher learning about students creates space for student agency, as exemplified in Ascenzi-Moreno et al.'s (2015) article. In one school, the principal spoke of MLL students as "needing instruction to be 'done' to them" prior to the researchers' work with teachers and administrators (p. 207); after extended professional development, school staff recognized students' capacity to think for themselves, a translanguaging stance that reveals school staff's views of students' language repertoires as resources (García et al., 2017). In a more specific example of an enhanced view of students, a teacher in Daniel et al.'s (2019) study expressed surprise at the level of student engagement during activities involving translanguaging, which provided motivation for the teacher to continue developing her translanguaging pedagogies and agency in translanguaging design. These examples show how a deeper knowledge of the linguistic resources of students, as obtained through translanguaging resources and pedagogies, develops teachers' translanguaging stances; in turn, these stances support the agency of the teacher in advocating for students through micro- and macro-level decisions.

In most of the articles, researchers provide examples of how teachers' translanguaging stances develop from an understanding of how to apply translanguaging pedagogies in their classrooms and schools (Ascenzi-Moreno et al., 2015; Back, 2020; David et al., 2021; David et al., 2019; Deroo & Ponzio, 2019; Fine, 2022; García-Mateus & Palmer, 2017; Hill et al., 2020; Holdway & Hitchcock, 2018; Menken & Sánchez, 2019; Ponzio & Deroo, 2021; Stewart et al., 2021). Many of these participating teachers were open to students' language resources before their involvement in the studies, but as in Holdway and Hitchcock's (2018) study, teachers wanted affirmation for their instructional decisions. In fact, seven articles specified how some participating teachers already held what they determined to be a translanguaging stance (Back, 2020; David et al., 2021; David et al., 2019; Fine, 2022; Langman, 2014; Seltzer, 2019, 2020; Stewart et al., 2021); still, these teachers' stances developed during the studies in a manner that empowered them to expand their approaches to language instruction (Back, 2020; Fine, 2022; Stewart et al., 2021), create long-term plans for translanguaging pedagogies (David et al., 2021), or dig deeper into their own positionalities as arbiters of language policies in the classroom (Seltzer, 2019, 2020). Langman (2014) does not indicate whether the teachers in her study developed their existing stances, since the researcher's reflective work with participants described in the articles operates as an initial step to make teachers aware of their translingual moves. However, Langman (2014) views this approach as a way to involve teachers rather than providing top-down approaches, seemingly developing identity through reinforcing teacher agency and translanguaging design.

Another avenue for developing translanguaging stances, as depicted in several articles, is through support for learning about theoretical principles of multilingualism and translanguaging in addition to engaging in translanguaging strategies. Even within their graduate course, Ponzio

and Deroo (2021) show how providing in-service teachers practice with imagining and engaging in translanguaging shifted their perceptions about the utility of multilingualism. Moreover, in Hill et al.'s (2020) study about implementing translanguaging pedagogies within the writing workshop, the authors noted how teachers' beliefs about teaching, in general, shifted as a result of engaging with translanguaging pedagogies and observing "transformations" that occurred in their classrooms.

Several researchers described the development of teachers' translanguaging stances through in-service learning despite internal and external constraints (Deroo & Ponzio, 2019; Holdway & Hitchcock, 2018; Ascenzi-Moreno, 2017; Daniel et al., 2019). In-service teachers in Deroo and Ponzio's (2019) study reported their monolingualism, pedagogical language knowledge, and need for control as conflicting with translanguaging pedagogies at the beginning of their learning experiences. Still, their engagement with theoretical and practical components of translanguaging over the course of a semester led them to make plans for enacting their translanguaging stance in and out of the classroom. Likewise, some teachers in Holdway and Hitchcock's (2018) study expressed uncertainty about allowing students to use their home languages in the classroom, which later evolved into declarations of realizations and even guilt about prior instruction. Although most teachers provide evidence of a developed translanguaging stance, a teacher in this same study remained committed to her monolingual ideologies and did not make changes to her instructional practice. Notably, this teacher pointed to her own experiences in learning English in school as a way to refute the resources provided to her during professional development. One's history-in-person impacts the way that artifacts are taken up; despite the interconnected nature of artifacts, identity, agency, and improvisation within the classroom figured world, there is no simple flow chart for developing a translanguaging stance.

In Ascenzi-Moreno's (2017) study, teachers had to contend with a district-provided scripted curriculum while attempting to enact translanguaging pedagogies; their developing stance led to teachers being "more invested in supporting the recently arrived emergent bilingual students holistically as a way to reach outcomes rather than solely delivering the scripted curriculum" (p. 295). Again, the change in teacher identities, or translanguaging stance, due to translanguaging resources supports teachers' abilities to improvise and exert agency, providing more equitable instruction for MLLs. Further, Menken and Sanchez (2019) assert that a translanguaging stance is necessary for transformation on a broader level. Likewise, Stewart et al. (2021) show that, as teachers across disciplines engage in translingual literacy pedagogies, greater language equity was achieved throughout the entire school. Rather than translanguaging used as a tool or scaffold for learning, a broader ideological stance based in translanguaging has the power to reconstruct an entire classroom, and possibly even a whole school culture. Still, this translanguaging stance does not develop in isolation. Translanguaging artifacts support these burgeoning and even advanced translanguaging stances.

Teacher Agency and Translanguaging Design

Within the figured worlds and translanguaging pedagogies framework, I define teacher agency within the articles as evidence of teachers resisting monoglossic ideologies and practices by planning and designing opportunities for translingual practice and incorporating translanguaging pedagogies into their classrooms. Again, instances of teacher agency and translanguaging design within the articles are supported by teachers' developing identities, or translanguaging stances, as well as the supports from in-service learning opportunities.

Perhaps the simplest yet most effective agentic design move, as well as one of the most common displays of teacher agency after in-service learning opportunities, is inviting students'

home languages into the classroom. In Ascenzi-Moreno et al.'s (2015) study, teachers displayed lesson objectives in their students' home languages and even asked students to translate vocabulary words. Similarly, participating teachers in the Back (2020) and David et al. (2021) studies created multilingual word walls with student assistance. As Langman (2014) reflected with teachers about their translanguaging strategies, she points out how they encourage students' use of all their languages during instruction without explicitly knowing that this move reflects a translanguaging stance. Despite not being aware of this move as heteroglossic, teachers still enact agency and purposeful translanguaging design in this study as they intentionally push against school norms that emphasized English-only test preparation. Seltzer's work (2019, 2020) work with Ms. Winters, a high school English teacher, emphasizes how she not only invites "recognized" languages into the classroom; Ms. Winters provides space for and designs inquiry around the practices of so-called "monolingual" English speakers whose use of non-standardized languages have been ignored.

Another common example of teacher agency across articles is the incorporation of translanguaging design into teachers' existing curricula. Although the goal of most in-service learning opportunities in these articles is teacher enactment of translanguaging strategies, teachers still have a choice as to whether they actually make changes to their practice. Therefore, making these changes is an agentically designed move. Daniel et al. (2019), David et al. (2021), David et al. (2019), Fine (2022), Holdway and Hitchcock (2018), Hopewell et al. (2022), Ponzio and Deroo (2021), and Stewart et al. (2021) highlight ways that teachers incorporated translanguaging into their existing curriculum. Teachers in David et al. (2021) and David et al. (2019) made additional changes to their practice as well as the strategies they learned by deciding how to differentiate instruction based on the students in their particular classrooms and

providing scaffolds for them. To take this work a step further, the two teachers in Ascenzi-Moreno's (2017) study used translanguaging pedagogies as a way to move beyond, not merely within, the scripted curriculum offered to them. One way the author describes this movement beyond the curriculum is by asking students to choose a culturally relevant text rather than letting the existing curriculum dictate their choice. Similarly, García-Mateus and Palmer (2017) and David et al. (2019) describe participating teachers incorporating culturally relevant texts not included in the existing curriculum as a way to create deeper connections with students alongside translanguaging strategies. Hopewell et al. (2022) reveal how teachers continue to enact a translingual lesson structure from professional development with their own texts and how they learn about refining this structure for their own students. In Stewart et al.'s (2021) study across two high schools, a variety of designs for translanguaging are planned across disciplines: multilingual texts, word walls, the purposeful use of translation apps, speaking in languages other than English with partners, and composing in students' languages.

These indicators of teacher agency are not easily implemented, in part because they are not reifications of traditional teacher roles, in the sense that the teacher becomes a learner alongside her students as she engages in translanguaging design. To go further, Langman (2014) and Seltzer (2019; 2020) specify that this enactment of teacher agency provides a space for student agency as teachers renounce their authority as the keeper of knowledge. For example, teachers in Langman's (2014) study "play" with language in a manner that positions students as knowledgeable participants, while the teacher in Seltzer's (2019; 2020) research creates activities designed for student inquiry that destabilize language ideologies. In Daniel et al. (2019), teachers engage in modeling how to transliterate non-English languages, even when they are unfamiliar with those languages, becoming learners with their students. Furthermore, teachers in David et

al. (2020) and Deroo and Ponzio (2019) made long-term plans to continue to enact translanguaging pedagogies, illustrating how their newfound translanguaging stance informs their future instructional goals. In these examples, teachers exhibit agency in ensuring that their students are truly centered in instructional practices, during training and beyond.

Several articles reveal how teachers' sense of agency and translanguaging design extend beyond their classroom walls. After engaging in learning about and enacting translanguaging pedagogies, some participants make the decision to share their knowledge with other teachers (Ascenzi-Moreno et al., 2015; Back, 2020; Menken & Sanchez, 2019; Ponzio & Deroo, 2021). Others reach out to students' parents and their communities (Back, 2020; Hill et al., 2020) to invite collaboration. One of the teachers in Back's (2020) study reached out to volunteers who were fluent in students' home languages to work with them, while another teacher invited parents and students to write phrases in their home languages on a public bulletin board during a heritage potluck dinner. In addition to moving beyond teachers' physical walls, some participants' senses of agency led to designs for taking action against meso- and macro-level constraints (Deroo & Ponzio, 2019; Hill et al., 2020; Menken & Sánchez, 2019; Stewart et al., 2021), such as teacher and administrator pushback against translanguaging as well as broader national language ideologies around English in schools. For example, one teacher in Stewart et al.'s (2021) study encouraged a student to write her essay for a state exam in Spanish and then translate it into English; after seeing the benefits of this method, the school's IB coordinator began conducting tests in Spanish. However, not all teachers in these articles felt that their translanguaging practices would be accepted outside their classrooms. One teacher in David et al. (2021) explained that "if [students] go to a different class and the next three teachers they have are talking about how they have to use English, it's kind of like fighting a losing battle" (p.

13). In other words, while this participant feels agentic in his own classroom, the broader school context may discourage his greater sense of efficacy in translanguaging design. Ultimately, these studies reveal the tightly woven connection between translanguaging design, within and without the classroom, teacher agency, teacher identity, and the availability of translanguaging supports.

Teacher Improvisation and Translanguaging Shifts

I define teacher improvisation within this framework of figured worlds and translanguaging pedagogies as evidence of teachers enacting translanguaging pedagogies and making in-the-moment, heteroglossic instructional decisions, or translanguaging shifts, that are guided by but not required of the artifacts of learning provided by researchers during in-service learning opportunities. These shifts occur as a result of increased teacher agency and a developing translanguaging stance, or teacher identity.

Several articles reveal how teachers' translanguaging stances lead them to use what they learn from students to guide their instruction, or engage in improvisational shifts (Ascenzi-Moreno, 2017; Ascenzi-Moreno et al., 2015; Back, 2020; Daniel et al., 2019; David et al., 2021; David et al., 2019; Fine, 2022; Langman, 2014; Menken & Sánchez, 2019). For example, as teachers in Ascenzi-Moreno's (2017) study learn about their students' specific language resources, such as Haitian Creole and Quechua, they adapted instruction by researching these languages to make space for their students' linguistic resources. Similarly, Back (2020) shows how one teacher made "on-the-spot alterations to curriculum" when she realizes that her school lacks culturally or linguistically relevant resources for Chinese emergent multilinguals (Back's term), choosing to have these students write about themselves (p. 903). In this example, the teacher's improvisational move not only breaks from the normative practice of following the curriculum, but also centers her students' lived experiences and languages. David et al. (2019)

also highlight a teacher's "just-in-time feedback" as she carefully watches students' body language during translation activities (p. 269); despite being unfamiliar with students' home languages, this teacher improvises a different, embodied form of recognition to support students' academic growth and comfort. Likewise, Daniel et al. (2019) includes an example of how a teacher engages in transliteration alongside her students, without knowledge of the Arabic language or script. Her improvisation serves to offer a model to her students of how to engage in translanguaging in the role of language learner rather than language authority.

Other improvisations instituted by teachers include decisions to collaborate with other teachers (David et al., 2021), expanding their translanguaging pedagogies into all forms of literacy instruction (Hill et al., 2020), and helping students build metalinguistic awareness (García-Mateus & Palmer, 2017; Seltzer, 2019, 2020). This form of improvisation, collaboration, not only serves to support students' meaning making, as shown by an ESL teacher working with a Spanish teacher in David et al.'s (2021) article, but this move also shares the possibilities of translanguaging pedagogies with other teachers, potentially broadening the scope of the teacher's figured world. This translanguaging shift shows how improvisations can lead to more expansive changes beyond the teacher's classroom figured world. Teachers in Hill et al.'s (2020) study improvised implementing translanguaging pedagogies beyond their writing workshop, the space for which researchers originally offered translanguaging support. As teachers noticed students using their languages more often in other literacy spaces, they responded by improvising translanguaging text use in read alouds.

Three teachers' improvisations, guided by a translanguaging stance, led to more critical instantiations of translanguaging pedagogies that supported students' metalinguistic and raciolinguistic awareness. First, the focal teacher in García-Mateus and Palmer's (2017) study

leveraged her position as a dual language teacher to improvise ways to help students make connections across the languages used in the classroom. Next, although the focal teacher in Seltzer’s (2019, 2020) research maintained that she was a monolingual English speaker, she intentionally reflected on and developed her raciolinguistic awareness in order to facilitate student inquiry into how their languages and racial identities have been positioned in English classrooms. This kind of student inquiry is naturally improvisational, so that the teacher continually interrogates how she designs instruction and destabilizes her authoritative position. Last, the focal teacher in Fine’s (2022) study, who began her collaboration with the researcher having a developed translanguaging stance, began to demonstrate “joy” as she centered and expanded on students’ ideas during formative assessments; the teacher began to feel comfortable with assessments that were not teacher-centered and in English. As these studies show, teachers’ translanguaging shifts, or improvisations, are influenced by their translanguaging design choices, or agency, as well as their access to artifacts of translanguaging support.

Research on in-service supports for developing teachers’ translanguaging pedagogies remains somewhat limited, but as shown in the articles discussed in this literature review, this work has the potential to shift teachers’ practices, their stances, and their classrooms. Table 2 provides a brief overview of the links among teacher identity, agency, improvisation, instructional supports, and instructional impacts as outlined in the literature review.

Translanguaging pedagogy strands (García et al., 2017)	Translanguaging supports/artifacts for in-service learning	Impact on instruction
Translanguaging stance/teacher identity	support for enacting translanguaging pedagogies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● revised and student-centered instruction ● teacher-directed translanguaging design ● space for student agency ● increased student engagement that leads to increased teacher motivation

	support for understanding how to apply translanguaging pedagogies in specific contexts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • multilingual approaches to language and literacy instruction • creation of long-term plans for translanguaging pedagogies • deeper reflection on teachers' language ideologies
	learning about theoretical principles of multilingualism and translanguaging	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • shifted perceptions of utility of multilingualism • shifted beliefs about teaching in general (more student-centered)
	space to process internal and external constraints	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • made plans to enact translanguaging stance • stated realizations and regret about previous monolingual instruction • greater investment in students over curriculum
Translanguaging design/teacher agency	ways to invite students' home languages into the classroom	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • acted against school norms • provided a sense of belonging for multilingual students
	strategies for incorporating translanguaging into existing curricula	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • moved beyond the school sanctioned, scripted curriculum • incorporated culturally relevant texts • provided differentiated instruction based on students in particular classroom contexts
	design that situates the teacher as a learner	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • created activities grounded in student inquiry into language • learned about student languages • willingness to make mistakes in front of students • made long-term plans for translanguaging pedagogies
	decision to take translanguaging beyond classroom walls	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • shared knowledge about students and translanguaging pedagogies with other teachers • reached out to students' parents and communities to involve them in school activities • made plans for taking action against teacher and administrator pushback • shifted schoolwide assessment policies
Translanguaging shifts/teacher improvisation	using student knowledge to guide instruction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • adapted instruction based on students' specific language resources • centered students' lived experiences and languages • focused embodied forms of recognition to note when students struggle (rather than verbal)

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • modeled how to be a learner for students • formative assessments become student-centered
	collaboration with other teachers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • broadens scope of teachers' translingual figured worlds
	expanding transanguaging pedagogies into other instructional areas	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • supported a strengthened transanguaging stance for teachers
	critical translingual pedagogies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • helps students make connections across languages • facilitates student inquiry into language, ideologies, and power

Table 2-2. Components of transanguaging supports, teacher identity, teacher agency, teacher improvisation, and instructional outcomes as detailed in articles.

My research question asked what we know about how teacher learning about transanguaging pedagogies might lead to equitable instruction for MLLs. As shown above, researchers showed how this kind of learning positively impacted teacher instruction to ensure that students had greater opportunities for equitable and linguistically sustainable instruction. However, this work can and must be expanded upon. The next section discusses the relationships among the components of figured worlds, transanguaging pedagogies, and impacts on instruction as shown in the literature review. In addition, I offer ideas for directions that this in-service work with teachers might take to provide even better, more sustainable opportunities for teachers' growth and development in transanguaging pedagogies.

Discussion

As the literature review highlights, researchers have worked to develop transanguaging pedagogies with teachers in a variety of settings. These learning opportunities do have the potential to lead to equitable instruction, as the lives of students and the languages of their homes become the basis on which instruction is developed. However, in providing these learning

opportunities for teachers, researchers must be cognizant of their participants' figured worlds, including teachers' histories-in-person, sense of agency, ability to improvise, and ultimately, their identities, as teachers' instructional practices have the potential to shift with the support of translanguaging artifacts.

As discussed in the theoretical framework, the interconnected relationships among identity, agency, improvisation, and artifacts within figured worlds open up the possibility for sustained change within figured worlds and for individuals within those spaces over time. In other words, translanguaging supports, as artifacts, do not only support teachers' practices when they utilize them; instead, artifacts support a development in identity, spurring a greater sense of agency to try new activities and designs and newfound abilities to improvise when new situations arise. While improvisations are supported through agency, they are also reinforced by the availability of artifacts that uncover space within the figured world. Therefore, the instructional impact of these artifacts multiplies, with the potential to be carried beyond one particular figured world into another figured world.

In general, the articles in the literature review reveal that teachers need extended learning opportunities that involve more than an introduction to translanguaging strategies. These strategies might be helpful for enacting translanguaging pedagogies in the short term, but they can become rote or even tossed aside when new curricular or instructional requirements are introduced. Also, these articles show that teachers need time to design for translanguaging during the school day along with opportunities to reflect with colleagues and teacher educators about students and instructional practices. Although teachers will continue to deal with other constraints, which may include time for sustained enactment of translanguaging pedagogies and a lack of support from their schools, enhanced in-service translanguaging artifacts, including

physical materials and critical approaches for learning about translanguaging, have the potential to improve educational opportunities for MLLs.

Translanguaging Supports and Curriculum Materials

To return to the recommendations of Darling-Hammond et al. (2017), effective professional development must be content-focused, incorporate active learning, support collaboration, use models of effective practice, provide coaching, offer feedback, and be sustained over time. As previously acknowledged, these recommendations are not easily attainable; constraints at the individual, local, and national levels offer many obstacles for researchers and teacher educators, particularly with time and resources. Also, the task of understanding and implementing translanguaging pedagogies is complex. Many teachers don't have support or the infrastructure at their schools to engage in translanguaging; researchers may not have access to schools or enough personnel to provide ongoing support. While mandated curricula often become barriers to the implementation of translanguaging pedagogies, translanguaging-supportive curricular materials may provide essential direction and assistance to teachers who are new to this instructional approach.

As noted by Ball and Cohen (1996), curriculum materials have the potential to support instructional improvement, but they have historically been developed without teachers, are not sensitive to different groups of students and their needs, and they seem to detract from professional autonomy. While there are certainly limitations and problems with many outsider-created curricula, curricular materials can serve as a resource for teachers to try new instructional techniques. First, though, teachers must learn *how* to use the materials for their own purposes and students. Within the field of science education, Davis and Krajcik (2005) developed a term for materials that promote both teacher and student learning: educative curriculum materials. These

materials should “help to increase teachers’ knowledge in specific instances of instructional decision making but also help them develop more general knowledge that they can apply flexibly in new situations” (p. 3). According to later work from Davis et al. (2014), educative curriculum materials contain elements such as content support, instructional practices, narratives about how teachers might adapt lessons, and possible assessment practices. These materials might serve as a kind of professional development resource for teachers who want to engage in translanguaging pedagogies but do not have access to these kinds of learning opportunities through their schools. Although extended work with teacher educators and researchers should also be a component of in-service learning, translanguaging-focused educative curriculum materials can serve as an important resource, or artifact of learning, for teachers. As teachers implement these materials, they can utilize a model that enables them to see students’ linguistic abilities and resources in real time; teachers’ use of these materials might lead to a developing translanguaging stance and a greater sense of agency in translanguaging design for their group of students (instead of less agency, which is how many curricular materials are positioned).

Critical Translingual Approach

In particular, most of the participants in these articles were not familiar with translanguaging pedagogies, although they reported being open to multilingualism. There is certainly work to be done to bring the liberatory potential of translanguaging to classroom teachers, but this work must be carefully planned and executed. First, merely learning about translanguaging does not lead to a developed translanguaging identity, or stance. Instead, artifacts that provide space for translanguaging pedagogies must support teachers’ agency in designing for translanguaging and allowing for translanguaging shifts. Importantly, to effect lasting change, the history-in-person component of teachers’ figured worlds cannot be ignored.

Although many articles address teachers' experiences with language learning and teaching, they do not specify or acknowledge teachers' racial and ethnic identities, an aspect of their history-in-person that directly contributes to how teachers view their students and their capabilities. In light of the raciolinguistic ideologies teachers might hold about their students and their languages (Rosa & Flores, 2017), critically addressing and reflecting on the interplay between race and language is an important next step in developing translanguaging pedagogies that support equitable instruction for all MLLs.

Although translanguaging pedagogies can lead to culturally and linguistically sustainable instruction for MLLs, the persistence of raciolinguistic ideologies requires additional attention and discussion of the impact of race, gender, ethnicity, and other factors that contribute to the linguistic choices of students and the teachers' judgements of those choices. A critical translanguaging approach, as conceptualized by Seltzer (2019, 2020) should be the next step for supporting teachers' equitable instructional practices. According to Seltzer (2019), this approach goes beyond translanguaging as a scaffold for proficiency in standardized English. Instead, teachers bring "poststructural linguistic thinking" into their planning and design, using multilingual and multimodal texts, activities that elicit multilingual and multimodal practices, and writing projects that involve code meshing and other writing that does not conform to standardized language ideologies (Seltzer, 2019, p. 6). During Seltzer's (2019, 2020) collaboration with a high school English teacher, Ms. Winters, students in their classroom reflected on their language practices through a variety of projects, including poetry and college essays. Though Ms. Winters began with a translanguaging design for the year, she also pivoted with translanguaging shifts upon receiving feedback from students and explanations of how their language practices are marginalized. The teacher's translanguaging stance became much more

attuned to the raciolinguistic ideologies that positioned even “monolingual” students, particularly African American students, as lacking standardized English proficiency. To fully embrace translanguaging as a pedagogical practice, teachers should also look beyond students’ use of named languages as evidence of engaging in translanguaging (Otheguy et al., 2015). Instead, teachers should be supported to provide translanguaging opportunities for all students, so that they might grapple with the constructed nature of language, dialects, and accents, which positions some speakers as proficient and others as deficient despite their use of “standard” English. A critical translingual approach interrogates the co-construction of race and language for teachers as well as with students. Like learning opportunities around translanguaging pedagogies, support for teachers’ implementation of a critical translingual approach must be contextualized and sustained over time. This perspective requires teachers to engage in listening to and reflecting with their students, and calls teachers and students to action as they use language and literacy practices to unsettle and transform the educational landscape of the U.S.

Conclusion

Translanguaging pedagogies have the potential to provide equitable learning opportunities for all students, in all academic content areas, at all ages. However, translanguaging pedagogies cannot simply be regarded as classroom strategies to use with MLLs. Instead, translanguaging pedagogies should be regarded as transformative to how we view the languages of all people and provide literacy instruction for all students. Relegating translanguaging to the margins of “regular” classroom instruction rather than centering this approach risks reinscribing MLLs as outside the norm and in need of remediation. As such, in-service learning opportunities about translanguaging must encourage an understanding of translanguaging that is more than a method to engage students in class activities or even improve

reading comprehension. Translanguaging pedagogies are inherently political, just as teaching is political. Therefore, translanguaging pedagogies cannot reside solely in the classroom; a more developed translanguaging stance pushes teachers to be in conversation with their school communities and advocate for MLL students, their families, and their needs within a school system based on white, Eurocentric ideas of knowledge and learning.

Although there are many helpful strategies associated with classroom implementation of translanguaging pedagogies, we cannot forget that this pedagogical approach operates to destabilize school norms for language and literacy and has implications beyond the classroom walls. In-service learning opportunities should not avoid difficult conversations around language ideologies and monolingualism, especially given how these concepts are taken up in academic spaces to determine student worth. In García et al.'s (2021) manifesto about the education of racialized bilinguals, these scholars state that pedagogy is “a way to create in-school spaces that leverage the language and knowledge systems of racialized bilinguals” (p. 16). Translanguaging pedagogies cannot be merely assigned to the realm of strategies or materials, although these components are helpful in enacting translanguaging practices. Instead, this pedagogical approach, through collaboration between researchers, teacher educators, and teachers, should reshape both the people involved and the educational spaces where translanguaging pedagogies are practiced. Therefore, teachers deserve support in considering how translanguaging pedagogies offer a way to reframe how they think about language, the purpose of language education, and their own role in maintaining or dismantling the status quo.

Ultimately, equitable, anti-oppressive educational practices for MLLs must center students and their linguistic resources rather than treating their knowledge as a hurdle on the path to English proficiency. In Kumashiro's (2001) perspectives on anti-oppressive education in

content-area classrooms, he explains that “what happens in classrooms is often not crisis, and not change, but rather, repetition and comfort for both student and teacher” (p. 8). While students’ use of their languages in classrooms should provide comfort to them, translanguaging pedagogies must also encourage moments of crisis and change for teachers and students as they reconceptualize what it means to be a “language learner.”

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CHAPTER 3

“I Will Work on Empowering Them Explicitly”:

Teachers’ Use of Educative Translanguaging-Focused Curriculum Materials that Encourage Translanguaging Pedagogies

Rebecca, who taught elementary science and math before obtaining her ESL (English as a second language) certification, was starting her second year as her school’s only EL teacher. In an online interview, she expressed her uncertainty about how to best support her multilingual learners’ (MLLs) growth in reading comprehension. When I asked her about the materials and strategies she used to teach last year, she gestures to the cabinets around her, packed with various books and boxes from the previous EL teacher: “I’ve just been able to pull from that. It wasn’t a specific curriculum, but it’s resources that I found through [the last teacher]. And so I, last year, kind of pieced things together.” Rebecca’s history of “piecing things together” reflects a typical experience for teachers of MLLs, particularly those teachers providing instruction outside of mainstream classrooms. The lack of a curriculum offers both freedom and frustration, as EL teachers must make curricular decisions that serve students with a wide range of languages, levels of English proficiency, and grade levels.

Therefore, teachers like Rebecca deserve two forms of support: learning about the processes that could increase the participation and growth of their students in literacy and finding the methods and materials to support these processes. One tool that has the potential to offer both forms of support is educative curriculum materials, which “help to increase teachers’ knowledge in specific instances of instructional decision making, but also help them develop more general

knowledge that they can apply flexibly in new situations” (Davis & Krajcik, 2005, p. 3). In this paper, I will explore how a set of educative curriculum materials supported Rebecca and five other EL teachers to engage in translanguaging pedagogies to promote students’ existing linguistic assets while building their reading comprehension in English.

EL Teachers’ Roles in Schools

EL teachers, who are responsible for ensuring that students labeled as English learners receive federally mandated supports, must offer a certain number of hours of additional language support; this support can occur in conjunction with a mainstream classroom teacher through a push-in model, but students often require additional time with their EL teacher in a one-on-one or small group setting (Echevarría et al., 2017). In these additional class sessions, the EL teacher is responsible for deciding which strategies and texts are appropriate for MLLs’ academic and linguistic needs, and she keeps track of students’ progress through collaboration with students’ teachers and other assessments. Oftentimes, EL teachers become providers of professional development and coaches for teachers at their school, as they share appropriate strategies for supporting MLLs and ensuring that MLLs receive necessary support. They are also responsible for communicating with the families of students, building relationships to ensure that families are informed and feel welcomed in their child’s education (Breiseth, 2022). The role of the EL teacher is complex and constantly changing, depending on the needs of their schools.

While EL teachers usually receive a separate endorsement for their position, meaning that they have completed additional coursework specializing in working with MLLs, they need continued opportunities for learning, growth, and support. However, many schools do not or are not equipped to provide these opportunities for their EL teachers, leaving them to seek learning on their own or having to “piece things together” for their students. Both EL teachers and their

EL-labeled students must contend with the inequitable consequences of this lack of support: outdated or even unhelpful classroom practices. Additionally, many EL teachers want to provide instruction for their students that is academically rich as well as culturally and linguistically sustaining, but they may not have the time or resources to develop materials. In other words, the lessons and materials that EL teachers put together may not fully address the needs of their MLL students.

Supporting Culturally and Linguistically Sustaining Instructional Practices

Culturally and linguistically sustaining instruction, which aims to move away from the hegemony of monocultural, monolingual white middle-class norms, celebrates the pluralism of languages, cultures, and practices within schools as part of a democratic, socially just project (Paris & Alim, 2014). One kind of linguistically sustaining instruction are translanguaging pedagogies, which teachers use to encourage and plan for opportunities for students' use of their full linguistic repertoires in academic settings (García et al., 2017). Translanguaging practices occur naturally for multilingual people, as they move among their languages to engage with the world (Li, 2011); however, particularly in U.S. classrooms, English-centric policies and ideologies prevent students from engaging with all of their languages and languaging practices, which may position students as unsuccessful readers (García, 2020) or, even more perniciously, as semilingual people (Escamilla, 2006). A classroom where a teacher engages in translanguaging pedagogies, in contrast, can become a heteroglossic, linguistically sustaining space where MLLs can grow socially, emotionally, and academically.

So, how do we ensure that EL teachers have the resources to provide this kind of sustaining instruction? In-service teachers are usually required to accumulate professional development credits over the course of each school year. One method of offering strategies and

resources for translanguaging pedagogies might be during these professional development sessions. Unfortunately, most teachers do not receive enough hours of sustained support, especially learning that focuses on multilingual students' needs (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017). Furthermore, these professional development sessions can be supportive in the short term, but may not be effective for long-term learning (Liu & Phelps, 2020). A different and promising method of offering resources for teacher learning is through curricular materials. As shown in research occurring in math and science classrooms (i.e. Collopy, 2003; Remillard, 2000), these materials can serve two purposes: they offer texts and lesson plans for teachers while supporting teachers to engage in new and possibly improved instructional practices. In the elementary science curriculum that Davis et al. (2014) develop, for example, they include unit concept maps, reminder boxes, and “why-and-how” text boxes that provide a rationale for the scientific practice included in a particular lesson (p. 38). Unlike professional development sessions or other coursework, curriculum materials have the potential to create lasting change in teachers' instruction because, when implemented, they are located within teachers' daily practice (Davis et al., 2017).

With the assistance of a large research grant, the Project TRANSLATE team developed a culturally and linguistically responsive reading curriculum for upper elementary-age MLL students. This curriculum, which consists of two 11- and 14-week units, includes elements to support teacher learning alongside their students; following Davis and Krajcik's (2005) work on educative curriculum materials, we created our curricular materials to support teachers' understanding and enactment of translanguaging pedagogies. We provide trade novels, student workbooks, and instructional guides to participating teachers. Each week of lesson plans includes four components that contribute to high efficacy reading instruction (Procter et al., 2020): guided

reading, fluency and background building passages, translation and paraphrasing activities, and other student-chosen activities. To support teacher engagement with translanguaging pedagogies, the Diving into Language component focuses on a collaborative translation protocol (David et al., 2019; Jiménez et al., 2015) that encourages students' translingual practices, building metalinguistic awareness as they engage in noticing similarities and differences across languages. Furthermore, there are several educative elements in the teacher guide to support teacher learning about translanguaging practices, including component explanations with relevant research, a section of frequently asked questions from teachers, and teacher's notes embedded throughout each lesson (see Table 1).

We know that professional learning for teachers is important for educational reform and student growth, but the work of fostering genuine teacher learning can be complicated and unsustainable (Ball & Cohen, 1999). A situated view of learning involves the process of participation within a community (Lave & Wenger, 1999), wherein learners engage in legitimate peripheral participation that increases in complexity over time. Learning about translanguaging pedagogies might also involve a kind of peripheral participation, so that as teachers observe how these pedagogies build on the linguistic resources of MLLs, the implementation of these pedagogies becomes more complex. Educative curriculum materials that provide an entry into using translanguaging pedagogies, then, might offer a scaffold for teachers to step into this heteroglossic community, regardless of their own multilingualism. Therefore, this study is guided by the following research question: *how do EL teachers describe how educative translanguaging-focused curriculum materials support their use of translanguaging pedagogies?*

Educative element	Example from curriculum	How is this educative?
Component Explanations	<div data-bbox="423 369 786 579" style="border: 1px solid black; border-radius: 10px; padding: 10px; background-color: #f08080; color: white;"> <p>Component 3: Diving into Language</p> <p>Weekly analysis and translation in small groups of a short segment of text chosen for its relevance to central themes in the anchor text to develop metalinguistic skills, multilingual strategy use, knowledge of high frequency language forms and structures, and text comprehension (Days 3 & 4)</p> </div> <p>What is this component? Each week students work with a partner/small group to analyze text segments and, in some units, to translate text from English into a home language. The text segment is drawn from the read loud text. As students work to make meaning of the text segment, they are noticing both the language structures and engaging in deeper comprehension of the anchor text's themes and ideas. These lessons teach both Text Navigation Routines, or routines for managing the language of print that can be applied across future reading tasks, and have a Language Feature Focus, in which students are engaged in noticing a particular language feature (e.g., prefixes, sentence structures, connectives).</p> <p>Some units place a heavy focus on the use of one translanguaging strategy: translation. After translation, students discuss the ways in which they translated the text, focusing first on the language. There is no 'correct' way to translate a text and the goal is not to achieve a direct translation. Instead, the aim is to notice how language is used. Next, students paraphrase the meaning of the segment and answer purpose questions to connect this with the meaning of the anchor text.</p> <p>Why does this component matter? Multilingual students bring existing knowledge about language as a result of moving between languages. For example, students may notice how word parts are common across Spanish and English or that Arabic and English contain different sentence structures. However, we rarely use these metalinguistic skills in schools or seek to develop these further. This is a missed opportunity. Indeed, by developing our students' metalinguistic skills we can aid them in becoming independent learners of language.</p>	<p>Instead of telling teachers that they should just “do” a particular kind of instruction, component explanations provide rationales behind the curriculum developers’ choices to help teachers see connections between theory and practice (Davis & Krajcik, 2005).</p>

Teacher FAQs

I know this part of the curriculum is designed to promote metalinguistic skills. What kinds of metalinguistic moves should I attend to?

Students are often engaging in metalinguistic activities, but a key challenge of curriculum implementation can be recognizing when this is happening. Drawing on examples from students participating in TRANSLATE, we have made the table below that contains examples of the sorts of metalinguistic moves you might see in your classroom.

Categories	Examples
Language Domain 1: Use of lexical knowledge	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students discuss the translation of specific word (e.g., how do you say <i>managed?</i>) • Student challenges or offers alternative for a specific word (e.g., no that doesn't make sense) • Students consider multiple meanings of words (e.g., homeboy=casaniños, compadres, hermanos, batos) • Students consider explicit relationships between words in both languages (e.g., students identify cognates) • Students comment on what to do when they don't know a word (You can describe it, you can find a synonym).
Language Domain 2: Use of syntactic knowledge	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students focus attention on verb conjugation (e.g., hace vs. hiciera) • Students identify components of language (e.g., simile vs. metaphor, past vs. present tense) • Students discuss word agreement (e.g., uno vs. un costal) • Students comment on the appropriateness of a syntactic construction (e.g., that doesn't make sense).
Language Domain 3: Use of discourse knowledge	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students focus on ideas found in idiomatic expressions (e.g., swept away, over my head) • Students attempt to capture larger idea vs. literal translation (e.g., it just said 'took out', 'took out', I just put 'quitó la vida.') • Students comment on the need to capture larger idea (e.g., sometimes you change the words so that things sound right in the other language).

Since this kind of focused translation work can feel uncomfortable for teachers who don't know languages other than English, we want to ensure that teachers know the different questions they might ask students, to dig deeper into their linguistic choices. By providing teachers these questions, they can learn more about students' linguistic knowledge as well as increase their own knowledge about language in use.

<p>Teacher's Notes</p>	<p>❖ Teacher's Note: Understandably, students will bring different levels of familiarity with English and an additional language and the goal of this activity is to encourage students to draw across all of their linguistic resources as supports for text comprehension. As students work, circulate and pose questions about their translations. Of course, you do not speak all of students' additional languages and so the goal is not to assess whether the translation is accurate, but rather to scaffold students' thinking about language. For example, you might ask: <i>Why are there more words/fewer words in your translation in the original text? I see that across our translations, some classmates choose x word and others choose y word, how did you decide? I see some words that look like the English words—do these words mean the same thing? Did you need to change the position of the adjectives/verbs/subject when you translated?</i></p> <p><i>Translating the phrase 'even at our poorest' is challenging across languages. Asking students to share how they elected to show readers that they were making a comparison could lead to interesting conversations. In Turkish, the translation would be: "en zor zamanlarda bile"; which means: even in the hardest times. Notably, the exact word for 'poor' in Turkish mostly refers to a more permanent state of living in poor conditions, so cannot be translated directly. You might ask students whether this phrase could be translated directly into a host language to launch metalinguistic reflection.</i></p> <p><i>In addition, you might ask students how they translated 'dishes' and 'furniture' as some languages lack these category terms. In Hindi, for example, there are equivalent words for "furniture" and "dishes". You'd use specific words like "plate" etc. The English word "plate" is commonly used in Hindi now, plates having been brought into India by the British. Traditional dishes have specific Indian names (thali, for example).</i></p> <p>❖ Teacher's Note: The first three weeks of this unit will focus on language and identity. This week's guiding question is "How is our language a part of who we are?" While some students may not have thought about how their language connects to their identity, many will have had experiences where choices about language impact how they feel about their own identities. While reading the book "I Hate English" (in lessons 3 and 4 this week and lesson 5 next week), students may relate to the conflicts that Mei Mei experiences. Our goal is to give students the language to speak about these conflicts and understand how language is part of our identity, and to start building basic metalinguistic awareness.</p> <p><i>In contrast to other weeks in this unit, there is no Activating Thinking section on Days 3 and 4 this week.</i></p> <p>Activating Thinking: PARTNER WORK </p> <p>As you prepare for class have students turn-and-talk to discuss themes related to this week's guiding questions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How do we share our languages with others? • How can we feel both American and feel like we are from another country? <p>❖ Teacher's Note: In this week's lessons, we focus on the idea of how languages and cultures both share with and borrow from other languages and cultures. Loan words are an example of how borrowing works in the English language. These are words taken from a foreign language without changing them. For example, the word "mosquito" means "little" in Spanish. In <i>I Hate English</i>, Mei Mei feels apprehensive about allowing herself to speak both Chinese and English, though these languages can coexist in her linguistic repertoire. Students might feel similarly about learning English at the expense of their home language or they might feel that they should give up their home languages to better learn English.</p>	<p>Teacher's notes function as examples of responses from students or questions and prompts that teachers might use to activate student thinking. Davis and Krajcik (2005) call this kind of support "pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) for disciplinary practices" (p. 5).</p>
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Table 3-1. Educative elements of the Project TRANSLATE curriculum.

Theoretical Framework

To frame this study, I am considering the connections among figured worlds, educative curriculum materials, and translanguaging pedagogies, and the impacts that these connections may have on teacher learning about multilingualism in their classrooms and beyond.

Translanguaging Pedagogies

Over the past couple of decades, translanguaging has become a juggernaut of a term, encompassing theory and theoretical stances (Otheguy et al., 2015), communicative and pedagogical practices (Cenoz & Gorter, 2022; García, 2009), and even a research methodology (Donley, 2022; Li, 2022). Therefore, a careful explanation of translanguaging, as it is taken up in this study, is necessary. Translanguaging, a term coined by Welsh researchers in the 1980s, was originally observed and named within classrooms of bilingual English and Welsh-speaking students (Lewis et al., 2012); its application within all domains of education, from early childhood (Seltzer et al., 2020) to post-secondary education (Mazak, 2016), in literacy classrooms (Jiménez et al., 2015; Seltzer, 2019) and during science lessons (Pierson et al., 2021) has become widespread.

While the number of articles about translanguaging in classroom spaces might portray the practice as commonplace, Otheguy et al.'s (2015) definition of translanguaging highlights how the practice is inherently political, as it is “the deployment of a speaker’s full linguistic repertoire without regard for watchful adherence to the socially and politically defined boundaries of named (and usually national and state) languages” (p. 283). In other words, as a speaker utilizes all of her languages, including officially recognized languages and those considered non-standard, she pushes against and even crosses over the boundaries around “acceptable” language use in school. Furthermore, the inclusion of the phrase “without watchful adherence” by Otheguy et al. (2015) implies that translanguaging can be both unconscious and subversive, depending on the speaker’s context at the moment, as well as her sociohistorical background. Translanguaging moves beyond the external recognition of one’s named languages to the way a bi- or multilingual person views their own use of their language repertoires (Li, 2011). Therefore, even speakers

who might be considered monolingual but utilize marginalized language practices engage in the practice of translanguaging as they employ various non-standard language features in different contexts (Frieson & Presiado, 2022).

Importantly, the concept of translanguaging relies on a conception of dynamic bilingualism, where speakers are regularly moving across and among languages, adapting to the contexts and circumstances of the moment; this conception differs from additive bilingualism, where one bounded language is added to a second bounded language (García, 2009). Sadly, in many educational contexts, language instruction is grounded in additive bilingualism, so that even bilingual education programs operate under a system of language separation (García, 2009; Zoeller & Briceño, 2022). However, this attempt to create boundaries around languages is not based on the reality of lived experiences of multilinguals. In their practitioner-focused book on translanguaging pedagogies, *The Translanguaging Classroom*, Garcia, Johnson, and Seltzer (2017) refer to the flow of dynamic bilingualism happening within the class as the “translanguaging corriente,” or the current of language in motion, as MLLs use all their language resources in meaning making (p. 21). In thinking about the larger systems that influence schools, Li and García (2022) refer to translanguaging as a decolonizing project, as it opens space for students’ knowledge, languages, and cultural practices that have been destroyed through hierarchical classification systems.

In this paper, I am narrowing my focus to teachers’ translanguaging pedagogies planned and enacted in the classroom. García et al.’s (2017) translingual classroom framework accounts for students’ translanguaging performances occurring in conjunction with teachers’ translanguaging pedagogies, which are comprised of three strands: stance, design, and shifts. A translanguaging stance, or the “philosophical orientation that teachers draw on to construct a

translanguaging classroom,” (García et al., 2017, p. 27) impacts how teachers view students and their languages, as well as how they create instruction, or design, to build on their linguistic assets. Translanguaging shifts occur in the moment, as teachers adapt their lessons to students’ needs (García et al., 2017). Of course, the relationship between these three strands is dynamic; one’s translanguaging design can be improved separately from stance and shifts, but that design can make space for shifts and impact one’s stance, as teachers begin to understand more about their students’ languages and linguistic knowledge. For example, Menken and Sánchez’s (2019) work with an entire school community show that teachers do not need a translanguaging stance in order to engage in translanguaging practices, but a stance can develop or be strengthened as a result of teachers’ translanguaging-supportive practices. Cenoz and Gorter (2022) also describe translanguaging pedagogical practices as ones that are planned by the teacher to build on students’ linguistic repertoires and develop their multilingual competence. Likewise, in this paper, I am conceptualizing translanguaging pedagogies as instructional practices that honor and intentionally build on students’ languages and linguistic practices. While these practices might be initiated by the teacher, they may also be initiated by curriculum materials and enacted by teachers.

Educative Curriculum Materials

One potential source of support for in-service teachers who want to engage in new instructional practices, such as translanguaging pedagogies, is educative curriculum materials (Davis & Krajcik, 2005), which are developed to promote both teacher and student learning. Davis and Krajcik (2005) adopt Ball and Cohen’s (1996) recommendations for the role of curriculum materials as guidelines for teachers. These guidelines include materials that support teachers’ anticipation of possible student answers; materials that support teacher learning;

materials that support teachers to embed units within a school year; materials that make developer rationales clear; and materials that support teachers to make productive adaptations (Davis & Krajcik, 2005; Davis et al., 2017). According to later work from Davis et al. (2014), educative curriculum materials contain elements such as content support, instructional practices, narratives about how teachers might adapt lessons, and possible assessment practices; while teacher uptake of materials will vary widely, based on their own knowledge and experiences, educative curriculum materials “have the potential for improving teaching and learning” (Davis et al., 2017, p. 302) in a variety of subject areas.

If curriculum materials include guidance for how to support and highlight students’ multilingualism and translingual practices, they might serve as a kind of professional development resource for teachers who want to engage in translanguaging pedagogies but do not have access to these kinds of learning opportunities through their schools. For example, science teachers in the Haug and Mork’s (2021) study report that educative curriculum materials allowed them to actualize new ideas and strategies for teaching science that they learned about in professional development sessions. Although extended work with teacher educators and researchers should, in the best of circumstances, be a component of in-service learning (e.g. Darling-Hammond et al., 2017), translanguaging-focused educative curriculum materials can serve as an important resource that provides a scaffold for teachers to expand their knowledge and practice in the moment. Like engaging in any kind of new practice, learning supported by educative curriculum materials is not easy; teachers still must decide how to adapt lessons and materials for their students and contexts, and they must grapple with the discomfort of new methods and unknown outcomes. However, the educative elements in materials, including

narratives about what to expect or questions to anticipate, can offer teachers support to change their practice in a way that is immediately actionable.

Figured Worlds

To understand how materials that support translanguaging pedagogies might impact teachers and their classrooms, I am using Holland et al.'s (1998) concept of figured worlds. As a theory of identity, this concept considers the interplay of agency and environment wherein figured worlds are “a socially and culturally constructed realm of interpretation” (Holland et al., 1998, p. 52). Within these figured worlds, artifacts, which might include objects or behaviors, make certain practices possible. Artifacts can also provide opportunities for improvisations, so that the possible practices within a figured world are not static. Instead, improvisations lead to shifts in practices, resulting in altered identities within that world. The artifacts found in and introduced to figured worlds hold great power as mediating devices to increase and decrease one's sense of agency. Nevertheless, the possibilities of artifacts and actions within figured worlds are not endless; one's history-in-person, or their past experiences, inform how they might improvise or react in a given moment.

One particularly influential and common figured world is that of school, a space where many people spend substantial portions of their youth. We can see how artifacts, including material objects and encouraged behaviors, that are utilized in classrooms have immense potential for shaping students' and teachers' identities, interactions, and understandings of learning and teaching. However, the figured world of school is not a monolith; instead, this broad category of figured worlds is comprised of individual schools, classrooms, and moments that contribute to our sense of identity as students and teachers. Other teacher-focused researchers have explored how figured worlds provide a framework for viewing how teachers produce and

reconstruct their identities within school contexts (e.g. Rubin & Land, 2017; Urrieta, 2009; Varghese & Snyder, 2018). Rubin and Land (2017) explore how a teacher’s involvement in a professional organization and book club operated as artifacts that supported his shifts to refigure his “traditional” ELA classroom into a space that provided greater student agency. In a similar way, I will use the concept of figured worlds to understand how translanguaging-focused curriculum materials operate as artifacts that have the potential to shape teachers’ improvisational shifts, their sense of agency, and their identity as an EL teacher. Each EL teacher has a particular history-in-person (Holland et al., 1998), with differing backgrounds and experiences that inform how they decide to improvise in their instruction with MLL students. However, translanguaging-focused educative curriculum materials, as artifacts that are situated in teachers’ practice, have the potential to refigure teachers’ classrooms into heteroglossic, linguistically sustaining, and academically challenging spaces for MLLs.

Methods

Data Collection

Project TRANSLATE

To answer my research question, I am using data from a larger corpus of data collected during Phase 2 of Project TRANSLATE. In Phase 1, we developed and revised instructional supports to implement the TRANSLATE protocol, or Teaching Reading And New Strategic Language Approaches to Emergent bilinguals, which involves a collaborative translation activity to improve reading comprehension through increasing metalinguistic and metacognitive engagement with texts (Jiménez et al., 2015). After receiving feedback from six elementary and middle school teachers, our revisions led to the creation of 25 weeks of lesson plans connected to three trade novels, designed to be used in regular ELA classrooms or during additional language

support class periods (often referred to as “pull-out” services with EL teachers). As noted earlier, each week of lessons includes four core components, focused on guided reading, fluency and background building, a Diving into Language activity (which uses the TRANSLATE protocol), and student-chosen activities that offer further practice with vocabulary and reading comprehension.

Participants

Of the 21 teachers who participated in the TRANSLATE project during the 2021-2022 school year, I chose six focal teachers for this paper due to their reported and observed integrity to the curriculum. For the purposes of this study, “integrity” indicates that teachers regularly implement the curriculum, including its core components, with adaptations due to contextual constraints. For example, teachers can adapt lesson plans so that they last two class periods instead of one, or they can focus on one component per class period rather than the two that are included in the lesson plan for that day. I focus on integrity rather than fidelity since the study includes after-school teachers, who are only able to enact curriculum materials two to three times a week, as well as during-school teachers, who implement the curriculum at least four times a week. Realistically, EL teachers are confronted with many time constraints over the course of the school year, due to testing, special schedules, and other interruptions; therefore, teachers’ close fidelity to the curriculum materials seems both unattainable and unnecessary (Davis et al., 2017).

I met each of the participating teachers via Zoom during Fall 2021, and I engaged in bi-weekly in-person observations in each teacher’s classroom from January to May 2022. I also conducted three rounds of semi-structured interviews at the beginning (September to October 2021), mid-point (January 2022), and end of the teachers’ use of the curriculum materials (April

to May 2022). These focal teachers represent a range of backgrounds and experiences, as shown below in Table 2.

Context

Participating teachers in the project work in two school districts in a Southeastern state that has English-centric policies for students labeled as ELs. Southern City District, which centers around a major metropolitan area, includes 80,000 students and reports that over 20% of its students are considered English learners. The Southern Rural District includes 40,000 students and reports that 5% of its students are English learners. Although the Southern City District has over 10 times as many EL-labeled students as Southern Rural District, teachers in both districts contend with English-centric policies and ideologies that emphasize English-only test scores as the measure of student linguistic knowledge and academic growth. Furthermore, the Southern Rural District has seen rapid growth in its EL-labeled population over the past few years, resulting in several new EL teachers hired to work in schools that previously had no formally recognized EL students.

Teacher	Context (SCD or SRD, during or after school)	Grade(s) taught with curriculum	Years of teaching experience	Gender	Race	Language(s) spoken	Training to work with MLs
Felicity	SCD, after school	4 th and 5 th	4 years	woman	white	English, some Spanish	ESL certification
Emily	SRD, during school	4 th	20 years	woman	white	English, some Spanish	EL endorsement from research university

John	SCD, after school	4 th	6 years	man	white	English, some Latin, some Spanish	EL certification and ongoing PD
Rebecca	SRD, during school	3 rd , 4 th , 5 th	4 years	woman	white	English, some Spanish	M.Ed. with emphasis in ESL
Claire	SCD, during school	5 th , 6 th , 7 th , 8 th	6 years	woman	white	English, some Spanish	Undergraduate EL certification
Sabrina	SRD, during school	6 th , 7 th , 8 th	9 years	woman	white	English, some Spanish	EdS with teaching endorsement

Table 3-2. Focal teachers’ context and background.

Data Sources

I limit my data set in this paper to six final interviews (out of 18 total interviews conducted over the course of the school year) with focal teachers, which were all conducted at the end of their curriculum implementation in April 2021. I also used in-class observations and field notes to triangulate data from the interviews.

Data Analysis

Using the three strands of García et al.’s (2017) translanguaging pedagogy, I initially went through all the interview transcripts to broadly code for teacher responses related to translanguaging stance, design, and shifts. Then, I conducted a second round of open coding with the same excerpts I coded initially, using more specific codes within the broader three categories. For example, a section that I initially labeled as “stance” became “teacher philosophy: personal beliefs” to capture the difference between responses that related to teaching about language versus what teachers believe about teaching and learning, in general. After this round of open

coding, I engaged in axial coding to see how these coded sections connected to the curriculum. Then, after reading through the smaller group of axial codes, I began to synthesize themes that connected how teachers' implementation of the curriculum affected their translanguaging stance, design, and shifts. After coding the transcribed interviews, I used in-class observations and field notes from January to April 2022 to triangulate themes for more robust findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). I also engaged in member checking (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) with four of the six focal teachers to ensure that the findings were consistent with their experiences of using the curriculum materials. See Table 3 for examples of the coding process.

Excerpt	Broad code	Specific code	Axial code	Theme
<p>Claire: I think definitely, I think now I'll try to pull novels from like, our trade list, especially with, like MNPS has trade book lists, where we can use book novels to go with things but we don't ever have time. But now like, TRANSLATE has been able to show me like, what, how I could use it with like a PLT, or like different activities that could go with it.</p>	Design	future plans	design connected to curriculum	seeing students succeed with curriculum leads to using similar strategies with other students

<p>John: Much more comfortable in my classroom, you know, beginning a countdown in English and switching over to Spanish just to catch their attention and, or, you know, that's just a little silly thing but using their native language all the time because I think it's fun.</p>	Shifts	changes as fun	shift connected to curriculum	emphasis on use of full linguistic repertoire leads to comfort with languages and using them on-the-spot with students
<p>Sabrina: Because I feel like with this experience, now, I can be a bigger advocate for using certain strategies and materials and, you know, proving why it was so beneficial and why they, how they enjoyed it, and I have evidence of like, work samples and different things that they were able to do when they were given those tasks to do. I think that it's helpful because a lot of times, I don't think admin or teachers truly understand like, what the role of the ESL teacher is or what's going on. So I think that's going to be really helpful to have that type, those type of materials in my back pocket and to have the knowledge of and experience of how well it was, it turned out</p>	stance	student advocate	stance connected to curriculum	evidence of student knowledge (aside from test scores, to include students' experiences and languages, or a different kind of student growth) leads to advocacy for students

Table 3-3. Moving from codes to themes.

Positionality Statement

I am a white, mostly monolingual English-speaking woman who taught multilingual students at the high school level in central Texas before coming into a doctoral program in the

Southeast. My previous teaching context and background is similar to most of the participating teachers, which cultivated a sense of trust and mutual understanding between us. However, I think it is important to consider the dangers seen, unseen, and unforeseen with my positionality in this study (Milner, 2007), particularly because I have so much in common with my participants. One seen danger, or one that might explicitly emerge from my decisions, is how I might overlook unfavorable actions or comments from teachers as I commiserate with them. An unseen danger, or one that is hidden during the research process, is the lack of conversation around the co-naturalization of race and language (Flores & Rosa, 2015). An unforeseen danger, or one that was unanticipated, could be that multilingualism continued to be exoticized as yet another monolingual white person entered teachers' classrooms to observe students and speak only in English. While I cannot resolve these dangers here, I have reflected on these issues and attempt to fully represent how teachers spoke about curriculum materials and how they enacted them, for good or bad, in the following.

Findings

Overall, teachers reported several ways that translanguaging-focused curriculum materials supported their engagement with translanguaging pedagogies. I will organize my findings in three major sections, corresponding to how teachers noted support in their stance, design, and shifts made possible by curricular materials and strategies. First, in relation to translanguaging design, when teachers made plans to use translingual strategies with students, they noted that having consistently available materials allowed for consistency in their ability to provide linguistically appropriate activities, and they explained how understanding students' knowledge of non-academic English languages led to modifications of non-curricular materials. Second, related to teachers' shifts, an emphasis on the use of all of the students' linguistic

repertoires resulted in teacher comfort and experimentation with other languages, and materials that depended on student knowledge led to trust in student approaches to language comprehension. Last, connected to teachers' translanguaging stances, teacher observation of rigor in the curriculum resulted in a changed view of academic rigor that includes students' full linguistic repertoires, explicit instructions for teachers to encourage students' language use led to teachers' value of explicit encouragement and modeling of language use, and evidence of student knowledge from the curriculum, aside from test scores, resulted in teachers' avowed advocacy for students outside of their classroom. Ultimately, teachers' engagement with translanguaging pedagogies through educative curriculum materials supported a shift in how they view their roles as EL teachers, as they learned to support student multilingualism and intentionally build on their linguistic resources.

Design

As previously noted, translanguaging design indicates teachers' senses of agency to plan for students' flexible language use. Of course, the curriculum provided discrete lesson plans and texts for teachers to use; however, I found that teachers reported planning for students' translanguaging practices beyond the directives in lesson plans. The danger in revising standard curricula for MLLs is that texts and concepts can become too simplistic and over-scaffolded (Daniel et al., 2016); however, teachers noted how access to linguistically supportive materials allowed for consistency in their ability to provide appropriate and academically challenging activities for their MLL students. Claire, Sabrina, and Rebecca pointed to the whole class novels, in particular, as helpful for engaging students and building comprehension. They compared their experiences of following the storyline of a novel to prior materials they used, which included mostly short, nonfiction texts or digital programs. Claire noted that she "like[d] the text based

[print novel] because the other curriculums we've used have been more like small group based, like you do a program on the computer.” In her role as middle school EL teacher, Claire was responsible for providing all EL-labeled students their mandated additional language hours in an “elective” class period. In an effort to ensure MLLs at all levels of English proficiency received support, digital programs rather than physical texts become the main mode of instruction in many EL teachers’ classrooms.

Similarly, Sabrina stated that she witnessed a lot of pushback on independent reading from the district, so that “it was like taboo for the kids to be holding a book.” Instead, students were relegated to using short texts with accompanying workbooks or digital programs. Once Sabrina began using the curriculum, she realized “how much I do love being able to stick to one story and develop it, and kind of find ways to like, further extend. Also finding ways to allow more time for the kids to do the thinking and the talking.” In particular, Sabrina highlights “thinking and talking” as a part of reading that had been previously ignored by reading programs that emphasized comprehension checks over the activity of reading itself. The curriculum did not provide unfamiliar materials to teachers with its trade novels; instead, the materials supported teachers to use these books with their MLLs, in ways not emphasized or encouraged by their schools.

Some teachers described how they made plans to use translingual strategies with students who were not in the class periods where they used the curriculum. Felicity, who implemented the curriculum after school with fourth and fifth graders, shared her excitement in observing students engage in authentic conversations around their languages and cultures. She wanted these same opportunities for the second graders she taught during the school day, vowing that “from now on, I will work to empower them, like explicitly, to like have those conversations.” While she noted

that she values authentic conversations, she hadn't considered how to intentionally scaffold those discussions, particularly around topics like language and culture. The curriculum materials not only provided her with strategies to initiate and sustain these kinds of rich conversations, but her experiences witnessing the conversations also inspired her to try this work elsewhere.

Similarly, Claire made plans for her future classes, as she neared the end of the school year: "I think definitely, I think now I'll try to pull novels from like, our trade list, especially with, like [SCD] has trade book lists, where we can use book novels to go with things but we don't ever have time. But now like, TRANSLATE has been able to show me like, what, how I could use it." At the beginning of the school year, several teachers mentioned that they struggled to use district curricular resources for focused language support, since students would already be using those materials in their English language arts classes. Claire's comment points to how the strategies and activities provided in the curriculum could serve her beyond this school year, so that she can continue to implement linguistically responsive instruction with other school-approved novels; she has learned how to apply strategies in a way that better serves her students and uses the resources given to her by the district.

Interestingly, several teachers mentioned that their conception of "rigor" changed after using the curriculum. Felicity compared a curriculum she used during the day, which had been adopted by the district that school year, and the TRANSLATE curriculum. She described how the TRANSLATE curriculum's "choice" activities, a collection of three extension activities from which students can choose, supported students' creativity. These activities ranged from vocabulary games to creating cartoon strips, and Felicity noted that "most of the curricula I've used must be making the assumption that that's not rigorous enough. And if we want to prepare the kids, then they need to be writing paragraphs, paragraphs, paragraphs in a specific format, or

they're not going to be ready for the next grade level. And I don't agree with that.” The support of multimodal and multilingual activities challenged the students while offering them the opportunity to showcase a wider range of literacy skills; Felicity’s observation of the abilities of the students as they participated in these activities led her to question the seemingly inherent rigor of the paragraph response.

At another school, Emily explained how one of her favorite components of the curriculum was Diving into Language, where students engaged with the TRANSLATE protocol, producing a collaboratively written translation that they discussed and reflected on, to deepen their comprehension of the guided reading text. Although the study teachers reported that this component was the most difficult to implement, Emily said that the component supported the metalinguistic growth of her students in a way that felt different and more supportive than other approaches: “It would be so easy to give a worksheet on metaphors and similes. But that's not what they need.” Instead, she felt that her ML students deserved opportunities to be challenged and to tap into the depths of their linguistic knowledge. Worksheets are certainly one form of instructional design, but as Daniel et al. (2016) highlight, over-scaffolding can restrict the use of MLL students’ languages, preventing them from engaging them in rich academic activities. Instead, the curriculum materials offered Emily a method for appropriately challenging her students.

Shifts

Translanguaging shifts, or teacher moves made in-the-moment to support students’ translingual practices, became embraced as the curricular emphasis on students’ use of their full linguistic repertoires resulted in teacher comfort and experimentation with other languages. John, who regularly referenced his knowledge of Latin, reported his growing ease with Spanish: “[I’m]

much more comfortable in my classroom, you know, beginning a countdown in English and switching over to Spanish just to catch their attention and, or, you know, that's just a little silly thing but using their native language all the time because I think it's fun.” He clearly expresses enthusiasm for his students’ languages; while John downplays his own translanguaging practice as a “little silly thing,” this statement also captures how his classroom has become a space for language play. Moreover, while observing John’s classroom, I saw students joking with each other in a combination of Spanish and English, correcting John’s Spanish pronunciations, and patiently providing translations and explanations to him. John’s reference to student multilingualism as “fun” reframes an after school “club,” a requirement due to students’ tested levels of English proficiency, as more enjoyable and comfortable. His shift appears important for students’ positions in the classroom; instead of being held hostage for additional hours of instruction in English, they have more freedom to move among their languages and languaging practices.

Teachers engaged in another kind of shift, where they had to trust in student approaches to translation and language comprehension. None of the focal teachers indicated proficiency in languages other than English; still, during the flow of lessons, particularly with the Diving into Language component, they found ways to engage the linguistic knowledge of students without having to assess students’ translations as “correct” or not. Felicity noticed how some students would not know how to translate a word from English into their languages, and she supported them in strategizing alternatives: “But it would be like one word, but they would make a whole sentence about it. It might have been with the word thumb or something like that, where they'd make a whole sentence around it, and it made perfect sense. Or they would see a word in English and make connections to parts of it, and then like, translate it into their own language.” Students

in Felicity’s classroom spoke a variety of languages, including Spanish, Arabic, Somali, Tigrinya, and Kurdish; I regularly observed Felicity asking students to collaborate with same-language partners as well as learn from other students. Felicity never mentioned going back to “check” on these translations. Instead, she questioned students about how they arrived at their translations, what was difficult, or where they needed help.

In a particularly rich moment of unplanned translingual learning, Felicity shared that she calls her small dog “perrito,” which literally means “small dog” in Spanish, as a way of sharing her own willingness to speak languages other than English at school. Felicity’s pronunciation, however, lacked the rolled *rr*, making her dog’s nickname sound like “pedito.” Immediately, a student loudly exclaimed, “You call your dog ‘little fart?!’” As students explained the difference between “pedo” and “perro,” Felicity realized her mistake. Instead of moving on from this seemingly silly moment of bathroom humor, she questioned another student: “Wait, how do you say ‘fart’ in Kurdish?” Laughter reverberated in the classroom as students took turns instructing their peers on how to talk about flatulence in a variety of languages. Although this moment was not related to specific lesson plans or materials, the explicit focus of the curriculum on encouraging students’ multilingualism at the time led the teacher to model this practice as well. Her modeling and willingness to learn from students, going with the flow of conversation and interest in the moment, resulted in a multilingual celebration of kid humor.

Martínez and Morales (2014) explore how transgressive bilingual wordplay, highlighting MLLs’ creativity and communicative competence, can serve as a pedagogical resource if teachers are willing to ask questions and engage with students around their linguistic play. Here, Felicity uses “pedito” as a pedagogical resource: she takes up the student’s question and creates a space for shared linguistic inquiry on a student-relevant topic. Felicity mentioned in her final

interview that the curriculum provided a space for students to “be openly creative” in a way that was not available to them during their regular ELA classes. However, from this moment, we see how Felicity pivots on the creative space provided in the curriculum materials to expand a moment of authentic translingual connections.

Stance

Teachers’ translanguaging stances, or their identities as instructors of MLLs, seem to be strengthened over the course of the school year, as they implemented the curriculum. Because all teachers willingly took part in the project, knowing they would be engaging in a curriculum that encouraged students’ multilingualism, I believe they all exhibited a starting point on the trajectory of a translanguaging stance (David et al., 2022). Therefore, in this section, I focus on how their stances might have been strengthened with the curriculum. Most importantly, the curriculum’s explicit instructions for teachers to encourage students’ language use led to a reported increase of teachers’ explicit encouragement and modeling of non-academic English language use. Emily, a former SIFE (Students with Interrupted Formal Education) teacher, noted how the curriculum encouraged her own growth in Spanish: “Obviously, [I’m] learning a ton of Spanish, that they try to practice, that, I had a little girl at my other school that I said something, and she went, ugh, like that? Because I was saying it wrong. But yeah, and just, you know, looking at them and knowing that they're working so hard all day long. Because they're translating.” As Emily decided to learn more Spanish and practice Spanish with her students, she began to recognize how much linguistic labor her MLL students performed with at school. She also notes her willingness to be corrected by students, revealing a stance that recognizes and wants to share in the linguistic knowledge of MLLs.

Similarly, John reported that engaging with students' languages through the curriculum showed him how complex and exhausting language learning is; therefore, he decided to explicitly cheer on his MLL students: "I think one thing I do this year that I haven't in the past is I recognize those students that are, that have to work twice as hard. And it gives them some, it gives them confidence, I think." In this statement, John referenced his MLLs who were newcomers to the U.S. and at the beginner level of English proficiency. After this comment, he explained that he ensures that these students have more opportunities for thinking time rather than only recognizing those students who typically speak up. This decision reveals a stance that does not only reward students with strong English abilities or those who feel more comfortable speaking in English.

Interestingly, the curriculum's activities sparked Felicity's thoughts about how to encourage students who don't have same-language partners: "I think sometimes I forget that that is a feeling that students can have, like especially when she speaks a language that not many other students in the school speak. [...] But it was really interesting, and also, like, made me question, What can I do to better support the students so that she knows like, she should be proud of her language?" This example shows how Felicity's stance has shifted to recognize students' linguistic diversity and individuality; rather than viewing her students as a monolithic group (Martínez, 2018), the translation activities pushed her to think of the variabilities of each student's languages, proficiency levels, and confidence. Additionally, the political nature of language came to the forefront for Felicity in speaking with this student, whose family came to the U.S. as Kurdish refugees. The student echoed warnings from her father about being careful when speaking Kurdish, so that she felt tension between being proud of her language versus safeguarding her family's political status. While Felicity does not quite understand the lived

implications of speaking a banned language, shown by her declaration that her student “should” be proud, she came to recognize and reflect on the tensions in building a truly heteroglossic classroom; this stance moves beyond welcoming all languages to reckoning with how to make her classroom a safe space for each language.

Perhaps most importantly, teachers expressed how newfound evidence of student linguistic knowledge, elicited by curricular activities, resulted in teachers’ avowed advocacy for students outside of their classroom. While teachers were mostly familiar with students’ English proficiency levels, as reported by WIDA scores, they did not know students’ skills or abilities in other languages. Sabrina explained how “with this experience, now, I can be a bigger advocate for using certain strategies and materials and, you know, proving why it was so beneficial and why they, how they enjoyed it, and I have evidence of like, work samples and different things that they were able to do when they were given those tasks to do. I think that it's helpful because a lot of times, I don't think admin or teachers truly understand.” Sabrina points to the importance of data in advocating for students, which she is able to provide through students’ written work. Otherwise, most of the “evidence” of student growth comes from standardized tests, which do not provide a holistic picture of student ability. Sabrina also mentions how students were able to engage in complex activities “when they were given tasks to do,” indicating her belief in students’ abilities to rise to an academic challenge. Notably, Sabrina mentioned that she could be a “bigger” advocate, indicating her existing translanguaging stance that is strengthened through the support of the educative translanguaging-focused materials.

In our last interview, Claire shared her realization that a couple of students should not even be in her language support class, since they weren’t familiar with languages other than English: “Or like when we were like, oh, doing a TRANSLATE, [a student asked,] No, could I

write this in English, because that's my first language? So like, being able to see like, oh, red flag, like, why are you in here?" While these students may have been labeled as English learners due to a home language survey or some other mistake, Claire noted how this discovery led her to tailor her instruction differently as well as reach out to administrators about reexamining those students' individualized learning plans. In doing so, Claire expanded her translanguaging stance to advocate for more appropriate academic support for students beyond their status as "English learners."

Discussion and Implications

As mentioned earlier, the teachers in this project *chose* to engage in work to support their MLLs; although they may not have been familiar with the term "translanguaging," they were aware of the focus of the project when they agreed to participate. I believe this decision indicates some interest in translanguaging pedagogies, and perhaps even a burgeoning translanguaging stance (García et al., 2017). However, I focus on how teachers refer to an increase in their use of or discover additional translanguaging pedagogies rather than trying to trace the development or trajectory (David et al., 2022) of teachers' translanguaging stances. This choice reflects the difficulty of locating one's beliefs along a particular trajectory of "better" versus "worse" stance and underscores the non-linear nature of learning and growth.

In our last interview, I asked each teacher how they would define translanguaging, after engaging with a translanguaging-focused curriculum for two semesters. Interestingly, their definitions are very much connected to each teacher's history-in-person, or their experiences and histories (Holland et al., 1998). While materials can undoubtedly support learning and growth, how students are supported will vary as a result of each teacher's framing of translanguaging. For example, as a former high school football player, John uses a sports metaphor when he

defines translanguaging: “Translanguaging is helping each other get through it in whatever way you can. That reminds me of football, it's just like, whatever it takes, whatever way we can get through this. Let's do it, and, because whatever effort you're putting into it is going to have some positive consequence.” John regularly mentioned the efforts of the students in class, whether he could tell that they were working “hard” or not. In engaging this conception of translanguaging, John doesn't necessarily connect students' translanguaging practices with their linguistic knowledge; instead, translanguaging becomes a means to an end, elevating students' academic outcomes (and scores in English reading comprehension) rather than a practice that moves beyond named languages.

Felicity, on the other hand, views translanguaging practices as a way for students to build a greater repertoire of languages: “I guess translanguaging to me is like taking all the puzzle pieces of the different languages, you know, and using them to build like, one big puzzle.” Felicity's curiosity about languages fosters a sense of awe and respect for students' linguistic prowess and learning. Her idea about the role of translanguaging as well as the diversity of student languages in her classroom supports cross-linguistic connections and meaning making. Because Felicity taught students who spoke several different named languages, the way that she observed students sharing their linguistic knowledge with their peers differed from classrooms with speakers of fewer named languages.

Overall, while the curriculum supported teachers' use of translanguaging pedagogies, their understanding of the theory and how it is practiced by MLLs is influenced by their personal experiences as well as their classroom contexts. Therefore, these materials are not a solution for linguistically restrictive or deficit-based instructional practices; they are one form of support from which teachers can learn. A long-term change in practices and behaviors, particularly

practices that push against school norms, may require other forms of support, such as coaching, professional learning communities with likeminded teachers, and other spaces where teachers can reflect on their observations of and goals for their students. An implication for future research, then, is the need for sustainable professional learning structures that support continued learning about translanguaging pedagogies.

Throughout our interviews, teachers mentioned “rigor” in relation to our materials and curriculum materials that they used in the past. While the concept of rigor has become popular, what constitutes “rigorous activities” is difficult to pin down. In English-centric schools, rigor is connected to “academic” English use, particularly in writing activities; the introduction of the Common Core curriculum has only strengthened this connection, as it emphasizes extended writing activities, as Felicity mentioned in her interview. Moreover, teachers may believe that students labeled as English learners cannot rise to the challenge of “rigorous” activities like their monolingual peers (Murphy & Torff, 2019). Teachers in our study commented on the rigorous nature of the translingual as well as multimodal activities in the curriculum; students’ engagement in metalinguistic noticing and creativity in producing their own comics highlighted funds of knowledge (Moll et al., 1992) that are not typically considered in English-centric, high stakes test-driven schools. Still, teachers’ revised understanding of rigor and their students’ capacity to engage in rigorous activities may not match with how English-only standardized assessments measure students’ abilities. We want to create figured classroom worlds where students receive culturally, linguistically sustaining, and ultimately equitable instruction, but these classrooms also exist (for now) within the larger figured world of English-only accountability structures. Therefore, another implication for teachers and researchers is the necessity for explicit conversations about the reality of testing expectations versus the lived

experiences and languaging practices of multilingual people. Jaspers (2018) argues that the transformative nature of translanguaging is limited, particularly if we look to individual teachers and schools as the mechanisms through which to move the needle on social mobility and equity. Teachers and schools may not be able to effect immediate change on the broader sociohistorical context of the U.S., which affords power to whiteness and native English speakerism, but translanguaging pedagogies can make a real difference for MLL students' sense of belonging, confidence, and academic engagement in schools.

Conclusion

Arnetha Ball (2009) develops a theory of generative change through teacher learning, when teachers' practices are initially inspired by professional development but continue and become generative "when the teacher continues that learning by making connections with his or her student's knowledge and needs and begins planning the teaching based on what he or she is learning" (p. 48). Ultimately, this is our hope for how our educative translanguaging-focused curriculum materials might be taken up: they inspire learning about pedagogical translanguaging and students' translingual practices so that teachers begin to engage in their own translanguaging design. In fact, by the end of the school year, Rebecca reported that the curriculum "has made me a better teacher. It has helped me to know how to dive into the curriculum and find more interesting texts and be able to pull questioning from texts and pull vocabulary words out of texts, and really helping students to understand that. [...] It's made me a lot more comfortable in the ELA aspect of my teaching." Her response reveals a marked shift from piecing together another teacher's leftover lessons to confidently implementing a curriculum focused on her students; additionally, her response points to gaining knowledge and expertise in how to use strategies and texts in the future for her MLLs. The educative curriculum materials show promise

in supporting teacher learning about translanguaging pedagogies during their implementation as well as generating change in how teachers conceive of their own role in linguistically sustaining design.

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CHAPTER 4

Curriculum Materials, Boundary Objects, and Translanguaging Pedagogies: A Case Study of Two EL Teachers in Linguistically Restrictive Contexts

The task of preparing in-service educators to teach the growing population of multilingual learners (MLLs) in their classrooms has never been more pressing, especially in Southern regions of the U.S. that are experiencing rapid demographic shifts (Dietrich & Hernandez, 2022). Many schools in these regions focus on English-only instructional models, creating learning conditions that are antagonistic to the research-based practice of centering instruction on the linguistic resources of MLLs (García & Kleifgen, 2018). Indeed, theorists suggest that instruction that is culturally sustaining (Paris & Alim, 2014), collaborative (Walqui & Bunch, 2019), critical (Seltzer, 2019), and leverages students' funds of knowledge (Hopewell, 2011; Moll et al., 1992) supports MLLs in gaining English literacy skills. Translanguaging pedagogies, for example, that use MLLs' metalinguistic knowledge of language gained through participation in "language brokering" practices in community and home settings, has been linked with higher cognitive stimulation (Cenoz & Gorter, 2022), a deeper understanding of texts, (García & Kleifgen, 2019), and increased metalinguistic awareness (Jiménez et al., 2015). For in-service teachers, learning to resist dominant monoglossic ideologies to align their instruction with these heteroglossic recommendations poses significant challenges given the demands of daily teaching. One promising mechanism for creating space for students to use their linguistic resources are curricula that are educative, which provide educators with instructional scaffolds and materials for implementing translanguaging pedagogies.

In this study, I will illuminate how educators align their practice with their visions for culturally sustaining pedagogy via educative curriculum and, in doing so, create what I will label as “figured worlds” of translanguaging practice (Holland et al., 1998). Specifically, I examine how two educators teaching in a linguistically restrictive context made use of a translanguaging curriculum, known as TRANSLATE (Teaching Reading And New Strategic Language Approaches To Emergent bilinguals) (Goodwin & Jiménez, 2015; Jiménez et al., 2015). Our project collaborated with elementary and middle school EL teachers in two districts located in a southern state that requires all instruction to be delivered in English; we offered translanguaging-focused curriculum materials as well as monthly professional development sessions and one-on-one coaching sessions. Most of the teachers involved in the project considered themselves monolingual English speakers, and they used the curriculum amid regular testing interruptions and test preparation. Ball and Cohen (1999) describe how “disequilibrium,” or different perspectives and unexpected outcomes, can be productive for teacher learning. The focus of this project on multilingualism and translanguaging practices shifts the attention of the teacher from English only proficiency to the broad linguistic abilities of MLL students, in contrast to the English-centric policies that guide their schools’ treatment of students. Therefore, I set out to answer the following research question: *How do EL teachers enact educative translanguaging-focused curriculum materials across linguistically restrictive, accountability-driven contexts?*

Literature Review

English-Centric Classroom Contexts: The Role of Accountability Structures

Although schools across the U.S. are regularly gaining MLLs, the demographics of schools in the so-called “New Latinx South” (Kochhar et al., 2005) have shifted rapidly over the last two decades, bringing students to schools where teachers and administrators are still learning

how to best serve MLLs' academic and socioemotional needs. In fact, the 2019 American Community Survey shows that four Southern states, including Kentucky, Tennessee, North Carolina, and Florida, experienced a 24% or greater increase in the population of people who speak a language other than English at home since 2010 (Dietrich & Hernandez, 2022). This increase certainly affects the school aged population, with more MLL students enrolling in public schools in these Southern states. According to the requirements of 2015's Every Student Succeeds Act, English language proficiency must be included in state accountability systems, and states must also identify schools for "targeted support" based on (inadequate) test performances of EL-classified (English learner-classified) students. The intent behind these changes recognizes the difficulties that MLLs may encounter in schools, so that, in theory, these students may receive more language support; in practice, these revised requirements put a greater focus on standardized assessments and quantifiable data points over student needs. In addition, many southern states lack bilingual or dual language programs, focusing their language supports solely on English proficiency. EL teachers, those who have completed additional courses in teaching English to speakers of other languages and received an additional EL teaching endorsement, are tasked with addressing both student and school linguistic needs. However, the path from supportive instruction to improved standardized assessment scores is neither straightforward nor simple: obviously, improved test scores are not an indicator of equitable or even supportive instruction from teachers. Therefore, for MLLs to receive appropriate, equitable instruction, EL teachers must have opportunities to be engaged in learning around their practice (Ball & Cohen, 1999).

Barriers to and Supports for Linguistic Equity: In-Service Teacher Learning

Research on professional learning opportunities designed for in-service EL teachers is sparse, at best. Most studies about in-service professional learning to improve instruction of EL-classified students focus either on mainstream and content teacher learning (Bohon et al., 2017; Roberts, 2021; Slack, 2019) or on collaborative efforts between EL and mainstream teachers (Martin-Beltrán & Peercy, 2013; Peercy et al., 2017). Other studies examine EL teacher learning over the course of an ESL or TESOL endorsement program (Coppersmith et al., 2019; Forte & Blouin, 2016), which is removed from teachers' daily practice. Furthermore, typical professional learning models may not be as effective for EL teachers, since their role in schools is very different from that of mainstream teachers. For example, collaborative professional learning community (PLC) models show promising results for teacher learning (Jackson & Cobb, 2013), but this structure may not be feasible for many EL teachers, who tend to be siloed in one school as they support several grade levels and content areas. A coaching model, where teachers are supported to reflect and receive formative feedback, is also supportive for teacher learning (Galluci et al., 2010); however, many school districts do not have resources to employ coaches specifically for EL teachers. Finally, research shows that a hallmark of effective professional development for teachers is sustained duration over time (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017); however, as the studies cited above show, EL teachers may not receive ongoing professional learning for their roles beyond endorsement.

Educative Curriculum Materials

One avenue for professional learning, suggested by Ball and Cohen in 1996, is that of curriculum materials; their use has been widely explored in mathematics and science instruction. Remillard's (2000) case study of two math teachers learning from a textbook revealed changes to

both their understanding of math and mathematical pedagogical practices; similarly, Collopy (2003) found that a math textbook could serve as a professional development tool for two elementary teachers. In other words, curriculum materials may be an avenue for professional learning that can take place during teachers' instructional practice. As conceptualized by Davis and Krajcik (2005), educative curriculum materials are designed to promote both teacher and student learning; they should "help to increase teachers' knowledge in specific instances of instructional decision making but also help them develop more general knowledge that they can apply flexibly in new situations" (p. 3). Although a wide variety of curriculum materials can introduce teachers to new strategies and content, Davis and Krajcik (2005) envisioned "educative" components as those that explain *why* particular strategies are recommended. A situated perspective on learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991) recognizes that learning occurs in context, so that teacher learning occurs during the daily practice of teaching. Therefore, educative curriculum materials can support teacher learning as they engage with and decide how to enact lesson plans, assessments, and other content daily. Of course, Davis and Krajcik (2005) recognize that educative curriculum materials should be complemented with other forms of support, such as workshops and reflective coaching sessions. However, given the typical constraints on resources for teachers, educative curriculum materials can provide an avenue for *in situ* teacher learning.

EL teachers participate in a variety of roles throughout the school day, as they move among different program models designed to support MLLs at school; two of the most common models are push-in or pull-out. With a push-in model, EL teachers join students in a mainstream teacher's classroom, offering one-on-one support throughout the lesson. A pull-out model involves a smaller group of EL-classified students who receive instructional time from their EL

teacher outside of their mainstream classroom. Although many EL teachers engage in both models, the time they spend with small groups can be especially impactful, as students may feel comfortable with fewer peers and receive more targeted instruction. However, lesson planning for this small group time can become complicated, as EL teachers are responsible for multiple grade levels and typically do not receive curriculum specifically for their EL-classified students. Many schools encourage EL teachers to use digital programs, such as those affiliated with Imagine Learning and Lexia, to offer students individual practice with reading in English during pull-out class time. However, these tools do not support students to engage in conversations with peers or have discussions about texts, social interactions that are necessary for the socioemotional, linguistic, and academic growth of MLLs (Altavilla, 2020; Walqui & Bunch, 2019).

Educative curriculum materials expressly written for teachers of MLLs, then, can potentially support both student and teacher learning; the TRANSLATE Project, the broader project from which this study is drawn, developed 25-weeks of curriculum materials written to support increased reading comprehension for MLL students in grades 4 through 6 as well as support teachers in implementing translanguaging pedagogies. These materials, which I am referring to as translanguaging-focused educative curriculum materials, include core components of high-efficacy reading comprehension instruction (Proctor et al., 2020), with teacher-led read alouds, selected for their relevance to students' cultural, linguistic, and experiential realities; fluency and background knowledge building passages designed to be accessible for varying levels of English language proficiency and to provide necessary schema for read alouds; and translanguaging-focused activities, engaging students in collaborative translations of passages to build metalinguistic awareness. This last component of the curriculum, labeled as Diving into

Language activities, utilizes the TRANSLATE protocol (Goodwin & Jiménez, 2015) so that students can engage with excerpts from the read aloud texts. As students translate the excerpt into their own languages, discuss their translations with classmates, and revise their translations, they build metalinguistic skills and deepen their comprehension of the text (Jiménez et al., 2015; Puzio et al., 2016). See Figure 1 for an example of this curriculum component.

Unit 2 (Part 2), Week 6

Language Deep Dive

Day 1: Translate the Poem

Directions: After your class has created a summary statement about the poem, you will work with a partner to write a translation of the **bold text** from the box. Follow these steps:

- **Write** a translation of the **bold text** with your partner on the lines below. (Draw/diagram on the blank page first, if you'd like.)
- **Share & compare** translations with another group.
- **Listen** to your teacher's questions, and share your answers with your classmates.
- **Revise** your translation with your partner to reflect what you have learned about the text. Use a different color pen, and make edits.
- Help **revise or add** to the class summary statement.
- **Discuss** the questions at the bottom of this page with your partner.

Translation – in your home language:

Black seeds spill _____

like clusters of eyes, _____

wet and crying, _____

Day 2: Discuss what you learned:

- What did we learn about Hà's feelings about leaving her home?
Use the sentence frame:
Hà felt _____. She felt a sadness like _____. (Make a comparison using a simile.)
- When you revised your translation with your partner, what changes did you make? Why did you make them?
- What was the same and different about English and your home language?

My biggest papaya is light yellow, still flecked with green.

Brother Vũ wants to cut it down, saying it's better than letting the Communists have it.

Mother says yellow papaya tastes lovely dipped in chili salt.

You children should eat fresh fruit while you can.

Brother Vũ chops; the head falls; a silver blade slices.

Black seeds spill like clusters of eyes, wet and crying.

(Wet and Crying, p. 60, Inside Out & Back Again)

Figure 4-1. Diving into Language lesson.

Theoretical Framework

As I explore how teachers in different contexts enact the same educative curriculum materials, my theoretical framework focuses on the concepts of translanguaging pedagogies, figured worlds, and boundary objects. In considering the power that curriculum materials exert on a variety of scales, these concepts allow me to explore why these objects can play a pivotal role within and beyond the classroom.

Translanguaging Pedagogies

Translanguaging, as a practice, refers to the fluid languaging practices of multilinguals that underscore multilingualism as dynamic and responsive to context and audience (García, 2009). As multilinguals use their languages, they engage in “the deployment of a speaker’s full linguistic repertoire without regard for watchful adherence to the socially and politically defined boundaries of named (and usually national and state) languages” (Otheguy et al., 2015, p. 283). Although translanguaging is a natural linguistic practice for multilingual people, the ability of MLLs to engage in translanguaging becomes stifled in monolingual, monoglossic spaces, including linguistically restrictive public school classrooms. However, teachers can intentionally build on and make space for MLLs’ multilingualism through engaging in translanguaging pedagogies. Flores and Schissel (2014) emphasize that translanguaging can be understood from two perspectives: sociolinguistic, focused on the practices of bi/multilingual people, and pedagogical, focused on how teachers make connections between these practices and school practices.

Translanguaging pedagogies, as explained by Cenoz and Gorter (2022), include intentional instructional strategies that teachers use to engage the entire linguistic repertoire of students. García et al. (2017) describe translanguaging pedagogies as comprised of three parts: translanguaging stance, translanguaging design, and translanguaging shifts. A teacher’s translanguaging stance, or their beliefs about multilingualism in use, inform their pedagogical design as well as the moves they make in the moment, shifts, to move with the language in use. Although a teacher does not need a translanguaging stance to engage in translanguaging pedagogies, engaging in translanguaging pedagogies and design can inform and develop a translanguaging stance (Menken & Sánchez, 2019). Therefore, the implementation of

translanguaging-supportive materials could lead to greater understanding, appreciation and advocacy by teachers of multilingualism and translanguaging practices. In this paper, I refer to “translanguaging” rather than “translingual” pedagogies to underscore the active and intentional nature of these types of instructional practices.

Figured Worlds

Figured worlds, or “socially and culturally constructed realm[s] of interpretation” (Holland et al., 1991, p. 52), are spaces that allow for specific kinds of behaviors, activities, and structures, shaping the actors who operate within those worlds. Although figured worlds are not “real” in the sense that they do not necessarily have physical walls, they have a tangible impact on the people who are allowed to “be” within them. In other words, figured worlds shape identities: they offer individuals particular social positions, which inform their sense of agency. However, identities within figured worlds are not static, due to the power of artifacts, or mediating devices that have the power to shift practices and develop identities. Figured worlds are places of possibility, but they do not exist in a void. Instead, participants’ histories-in-person impact how or even if they join certain figured worlds. Holland et al. (1991) define one’s history-in-person as “the sediment from past experiences upon which one improvises, using the cultural resources available, in response to the subject positions afforded one in the present” (p. 18). Two forces, then, have a substantive impact on participative possibilities within figured worlds: artifacts in the present and participants’ experiences in the past.

An important figured world that impacts the identity development of millions of people every day is school. Schools are physical buildings that contain hundreds, sometimes even thousands, of bodies, but they are also figured worlds that shape the behaviors, practices, and senses of self of students and teachers. Schoolwide policies dictate how and what kinds of

instruction teachers can deliver, and they control how and where students may move. Artifacts, such as curriculum packages and dress codes, support some practices and prevent others. On a larger scale, the figured world of statewide educational accountability systems impacts school funding, which can lead to a focus on teaching to the all-important artifact, the test. Students within this figured world feel the effects of this focus, as they are rewarded for test scores with a pizza party or punished by not being invited to the party. On a smaller scale, individual classrooms are their own figured worlds; teachers support certain kinds of interactions, which informs how students see themselves and others as better or worse participants within the classroom. Again, artifacts have the power to shift practices in classrooms, offering or removing agency from participants and developing their identities. For example, a new seating chart could move students, supporting a formerly reticent speaker to become a more vocal participant after they have been placed in a quiet group. However, that student may continue their reticence, as they carry the memory of being ridiculed for speaking with an accent in a different classroom. Again, both artifacts and one's history-in-person exert power over the possibilities within a figured world.

Boundary Objects

Star and Griesemer's (1989) work focuses more on how different groups decide to enact materials, or artifacts, rather than the individuals within those groups. Their work on boundary objects theorizes how scientists use objects, both tangible and intangible, to work with a variety of people to create new knowledge. Boundary objects allow for coherence across different social worlds without complete unity (Star & Griesemer, 1989). For example, a school uniform is a kind of boundary object; while the code is ostensibly written to help students focus on learning, they are enacted and regarded differently by teachers, students, administrators, and even parents.

Later, in clarifying what boundary objects might include, Star (2010) emphasizes their active role: “[A boundary object’s] materiality derives from action, not from a sense of prefabricated stuff or ‘thing’-ness” (p. 603). Much like Holland et al.’s (1991) conception of artifacts within figured worlds, boundary objects support the possibility of action, a pivotal role that allows for new knowledge creation, or learning.

Similarly to the realm of scientists, the broader (figured) world of education involves researchers, teacher educators, curriculum writers, teachers, administrators, policymakers, and students, all working toward learning for some end; while some of the learning goals of these groups are different, they must decide how they could translate their work to one another. In education, studies have investigated how assessment tools (Nolen et al., 2011), curriculum policies (Banner et al., 2012), and curricular changes (Hultén, 2013) become boundary objects, as they organize activity across groups of policymakers, administrators, teachers, students, and families. In Tsurasaki et al.’s (2013) case study of a science teacher, the researchers note how one teacher uses various components of a science curriculum as transformative boundary objects to promote students’ critical consciousness; the science curriculum, as a boundary object, bridged science practices with students’ knowledge and practices. Star and Griesemer (1989) identified four types of boundary objects: repositories, ideal type, coincident boundaries, and standardized forms. Curriculum materials can serve as repositories of lessons and content, an ideal type as a map for instruction, and standardized forms with protocols for how to deliver instruction; they can bring together different groups within the educational world while remaining open to their use in practice.

Star (2010) dispels the notion of boundary as impermeable; instead, she says that with the concept of a boundary object, “it is used to mean a shared space, where exactly that sense of here

and there are confounded. These common objects form the boundaries between groups through flexibility and shared structure—they are the stuff of action” (p. 603). As boundary objects, curriculum materials bring various educational figured worlds together, operating as artifacts that open space for new practices without necessitating ending others. Although their flexibility might make them attractive to actors within figured worlds, this quality might also prevent the possibility of development. Even with a curriculum that is “better,” meaning that it contains educative elements and is written with teacher input, we know that teachers can be resistant or that they may not enact parts because of their particular context and background. The figured worlds that teachers have created and the ones to which they belong allow for some kinds of practices and not others. In this study, I will explore how translanguaging-focused educative curriculum materials operate as a boundary object with a case study of two teachers in a linguistically restrictive context in the South.

Methods

Participants

To more expansively explore how teachers in the TRANSLATE Project enacted as well as understood the curriculum, I conducted a multiple-case study with two focal teachers, Emily and Claire (both names are pseudonyms). I have chosen these teachers to conduct a cross-case comparison (Yin, 2018) that considers their differing histories-in-person as well as their figured worlds, as Emily teaches in Southern Rural District (SRD) and Claire teaches in Southern City District (SCD). These teachers represent a range of teaching experience (veteran to relatively new), different contexts (rural versus urban), they teach MLLs with varying levels of English proficiency (from newcomer to more advanced), they were not familiar with translanguaging pedagogies, and they are both monolingual English speaking white women. Public school

teachers in the U.S. continue to be overwhelmingly white (79%) and much less racially and ethnically diverse than their students (Schaeffer, 2021). Therefore, while these two teachers are not representative of all EL teachers, their backgrounds, contexts, and struggles make it possible to extrapolate the findings of this research to the practices of many teachers in the U.S.

Emily

I chose Emily to represent SRD because she is a veteran teacher who recently joined the school district, so I wanted to gain her insight into her new context. Emily identified herself as a white woman whose first language was English; she reported trying to learn conversational Spanish to speak with her husband, whose first language was Spanish. Their marriage led to Emily's move from SCD to teach in SRD, causing a major shift in context from her position as a SIFE (students with interrupted formal education) teacher to an EL teacher working at two different schools each day. Emily began her journey as a teacher in a small private school in SCD, obtaining her Master's degree in education along with certification. Later, she decided that she wanted to teach at the same school as her daughter; due to a large number of MLLs as well as a burgeoning SIFE program, school administrators required her to get an ESL endorsement through a 15 credit program with the local research university. Emily noted that, compared to her previous school in SCD, she rarely heard languages other than English spoken in the hallways at her new schools in SRD. She explained that if a newcomer to the U.S. joined her class, they were typically Spanish speakers, and other students who speak Spanish would assist with translations; still, she described how these students would "quickly" pick up English. Emily reported that most of her students were native Spanish speakers, with two students who spoke Korean at home. Interestingly, SRD surrounds a military base, which may lead to more linguistic diversity than usual for a rural Southern school district.

The class in which I observed Emily’s instruction was in the school that was more “diverse,” according to Emily, meaning that she had more than two MLLs per grade. She used the curriculum materials with her third and fourth graders at both schools (there were only a couple of students using the materials at Emily’s other school), and I observed Emily’s third grade class. Although the curriculum materials were written for students in fourth through sixth grade, Emily felt that she could support her third graders to access the materials due to their English proficiency. In this third grade classroom, Emily usually had six students, four of whom were bilingual Spanish/English speakers, and two who reported knowing Micronesian languages. Interestingly, Emily was unaware that the last two students were not Spanish speakers until they began participating with curriculum materials that inquired about students’ languages. At different points in the spring semester, Emily gained two new Spanish-speaking students, from Guatemala and Puerto Rico, both of whom were recent arrivals to the (contiguous) United States.

Claire

I chose Claire to represent SCD because she was the only teacher from that district who was able to use the curriculum during the school day; I wanted to be able to compare teachers who both taught during the school day to match cases more adequately. Claire also identified herself as a white, monolingual English-speaking woman, describing how she “sounded like a preschooler” when she tried to speak Spanish with her students. Claire’s experience as a teacher began in mainstream elementary classrooms, both in SCD and another local district, because she “loved teaching kids to read.” Once she became a middle school teacher in SCD, she explained that she felt that English language arts became more about content and less about the love of reading; her desire to teach reading, along with the availability of an EL teacher position at her school, led to her obtaining her ESL certification through a local university program. The 2021-

2022 school year, when Claire used the curriculum, was her first year as an EL teacher at the school. She taught fifth, sixth, seventh and eighth grade students each day, in both push-in and pull-out contexts, along with an extracurricular program focused on building reading comprehension for MLL students after school. Originally, Claire used the curriculum in this after school context; however, she noticed how students wanted to join other clubs or were (understandably) distracted after a long day of school. Claire was able to pivot to use the curriculum during the school day, in a class period for language intervention for students labeled as ELs.

I observed Claire's fifth grade class, whose number of students varied from 14 to 18. Most of Claire's students were Spanish/English bilingual speakers, while two students knew Gujarati and Persian (or Farsi). Claire translated her greetings into PowerPoint slides, making a point to include Spanish and Gujarati, in its original script; later, she realized that her student did not know how to read Gujarati, but she continued to include the language on the slides. I often heard Spanish being spoken among students during class time, usually to explain an activity or gently tease another student. During the spring semester, Claire went between teaching the curriculum and preparing for the upcoming ACCESS test with practice tests. Since the hour-long class period where she used the curriculum was viewed as an "additional" class for students, she contended with regular interruptions or cancellations due to assemblies and other schoolwide tests.

Data Sources

Data for this study include a pre-implementation survey, three interviews (pre-, mid-, and post-implementation) with each teacher (for a total of six interviews), biweekly video recordings and notes of observations of each teacher (8 observations per teacher, for a total of 16

observations), and the TRANSLATE Project curriculum materials for Unit 2 (comprised of 44 lessons). See Appendices A-D for survey and interview protocols.

Analysis

For this study, I engaged in a grounded theory approach, using the constant comparison method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) to capture how curriculum materials functioned as boundary objects across the two cases. First, I read through the surveys and interviews from both teachers, conducting line-by-line open coding (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) of the survey and three interviews. Then, I reduced the data set to focus on teachers’ descriptions of curriculum materials in general as well as their enactment of the TRANSLATE curriculum materials. Next, I used the video recordings of observations to open code (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) for deviations from and adaptations to the curriculum materials as they were given to teachers in Spring 2022. From the codes generated, I conducted a round of axial coding (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) to connect codes generated from the interviews and observations. After, I used the concept of boundary objects to generate themes from these axial codes. Across the two cases, I engaged in an explanation building analysis (Yin, 2018) to understand how teachers’ enactment of the curriculum materials, operating as boundary objects, varied across their figured worlds as well as how their enactment led to changes (or not) in their understanding of translanguaging pedagogies. See Table 1 for examples of the connections between interview excerpts, axial codes, and themes.

Interview excerpt	Axial codes	Themes
Claire: I don't, I think just like, I don't know exactly the best PD next. I feel like just showing them a good model lesson not like have a specific or an hour long lesson, but just showing them somewhat like the Translate goes through but just different	doing teacher PD with a model lesson from curriculum	Boundary type: teacher and school staff

models and like a SIOP lesson plan and what would be expected of them? If they were to have a lesson that was specifically for EL students?		
Emily: Oh, we had just started talking about it. It was like [administrator] had said, she recommends like doing the Imagine Reading for the older kids. And so I looked at that a little bit, but I still haven't looked at that a whole lot. Because then we started doing this and this was perfect.	taking place of computer programs	Boundary type: teacher and school staff
Claire: They've taught me how different they can be. And also, well, how similar they can be, but also just seeing Medina and seeing like, I didn't think Tanvi could cuz she can't write or read in her language. But it was cool to see her be able to, like, transcribe into English, like, she can say it, but she's writing it how she would in English.	bridging student linguistic knowledge	Boundary type: teacher and students
Emily: I would have to describe it in two different ways. If I was in [SCD], it would be more, they're more literate in their languages. These guys just weren't and I wasn't expecting that. So it was kind of eye opening, to see that they, they, they couldn't really go between the two languages as well as I thought they would have.	connecting the idea that knowledge in one language supports knowledge in the other	Boundary type: teacher and curricular idea

Table 4-1. Connections between interviews, axial codes, and themes.

Positionality Statement

My position in this research is rooted in my experiences as a former “mainstream” high school teacher of MLLs, many of whom felt constrained by the “English learner” label given to them in elementary school. My goals involved reigniting students’ enjoyment of reading and writing, supporting their academic growth, and offering space for their multilingualism; for many students, however, school was an uncomfortable space of English, a place where they left their languages at the door. Therefore, I entered this project with a desire to support both students and teachers to create a more heteroglossic space.

My role as a participant observer and coach for the teachers included offering help with individual students during class and support in understanding or accessing materials outside of class. As a white, mostly monolingual English speaking woman, I found many commonalities with my participants, which allowed me to provide assistance and ask questions during classes and interviews without appearing punitive or intimidating. My whiteness also allowed me easy entry into teachers’ classrooms, unquestioned by administrators and students, as I reflect the demographics of the “typical” teacher in the United States. However, my whiteness and state of being a white listening subject (Rosa & Flores, 2017) can also prevent me from recognizing harmful or restrictive student treatment so that I do not address these issues with teachers or in this paper. Overall, while the similarities between my positionality and the teachers give me insight into these teachers’ actions, they may also cloud my interpretations of these actions. I have attempted to reflect on the dangers that come with my positionality (Milner, 2007) to interrogate my findings and the implications of these findings for the learning opportunities of linguistically and culturally diverse students, such as those in the classrooms of Emily and Claire.

Findings

While Emily and Claire both teach in schools that exist within a linguistically restrictive, accountability driven state educational system, their classroom figured worlds and histories-in-person allow for different methods of curricular enactment. In particular, teachers' use of curriculum materials as boundary objects allows them to bring together groups who share space and common interests: multilingual students, the school community, and curricular ideas. A hallmark of "good" teaching is responsiveness to student needs, so teachers must adapt plans and change materials. Within multilingual classrooms, García et al. (2017) refer to this action as translanguaging shifts, as teachers move with the flow of language in use. Teachers also make changes to curriculum materials according to the needs and requirements of their school context, particularly regarding time. The length of class periods, the time within a school year, school holidays, and proximity to upcoming assessments all influence how teachers deliver materials to students.

Although curricular ideas tend to be the most invisible force operating within schools, this group is also the largest in scale. I am referring to this group as the ideas themselves, rather than the writers, since the ideas remain within curriculum materials as they are brought into schools. This study also used professional development sessions and one-on-one coaching to emphasize specific curricular ideas, including supporting multilingualism in the classroom, the power of translation, and the connection of students to texts. As Emily and Claire used the materials, then, they also attempted to satisfy the focus of the curriculum. I must also acknowledge the limitations of these curriculum materials; I do not want to position these materials as the key for these teachers to learn about or enact translanguaging pedagogies. Depending on the students and the context, some components of the curriculum materials are

more or less easily enacted. For example, students who do not have a partner who speaks their same language may have difficulty in revising their translations or explaining their linguistic choices. In the implications section, I will offer some ways that the materials can be improved, connected to the findings below.

I organize the following section by offering what I noticed as the main instructional concerns of Emily and Claire, followed by how these concerns related to the boundaries with their students, their schools, and curricular ideas. First, Emily enacted the curriculum with a focus on vocabulary, an emphasis on similarities, and a modified English-to-English translation exercise. Claire enacted the curriculum with a focus on students' speaking practice, the changing role of data, and determination in "sticking with" the protocol for translation activities.

Emily: Modifications to Create Commonalities

Emily, a veteran teacher of 20 years who recently transferred to teach in the Southern Rural District from the Southern City District, regularly referenced her experiences working with refugee students in the SIFE (Students with Interrupted Formal Education) program in her previous district. She noted that the teachers at her schools had limited experience with multilingual students, so that her role often involved advocating for her students to receive accommodations in mainstream classrooms. Emily's responsibilities in both of her schools involved offering pull-out classes to EL-classified students and proctoring assessments; Emily taught students in kindergarten through fifth grade, sometimes with these different grades in the same class period. In addition, she reported that most of her students had high levels of English proficiency, which was a "new experience" to which Emily felt she was still adjusting.

Boundary Object Between Teacher and Students: Emphasis on Similarities

In her first interview, Emily shared her previous frustrations with curricula from her time in SCD. She explained that her SIFE students, who were typically newcomers to the English language, were supposed to use the same texts as mainstream students with no additional scaffolds to access them. Furthermore, these texts tended to be disconnected from student experiences: “Many of them were topics that the kids had no relationship with. Like Elvis Presley is really cool, don't get me wrong, but a whole text on Elvis Presley for a first grader? No.” Emily felt that the topics in the curriculum materials’ fluency passages and guided reading texts connected to student interests and experiences, so that she began to consider other fictional texts her students might enjoy. However, her dedication to shared student knowledge prevented her from supporting differentiation of fluency passages. While the curriculum included four levels of fluency passages from beginner reader to advanced fourth grade level, Emily chose the next-to-highest level for all her students to read. Not all of her students read on the same level; some students were noticeably more fluent readers than others. However, Emily’s modification seemed to relate to her desire for a shared sense of background knowledge, or a kind of classroom community that placed all students on the same level. Interestingly, Emily stated in her second interview that students enjoyed choosing their own activities, which was one key component of the curriculum; however, over the course of eight observations in one semester, I observed Emily making the choices.

Boundary Object Between Teacher and Curricular Ideas: Modified Translation Activities

During the spring semester, the second unit of the curriculum included a component explicitly asking students to engage in translanguaging practices with short segments of text from another novel in verse, *Inside Out and Back Again*. During one visit, I noticed that most

students were working together to paraphrase the segment of text in English rather than translating the sentence into their own languages. Only one student attempted to translate the passage into Spanish, and she was encouraged to paraphrase in English when she came across one word she did not know in Spanish.

Student: “Can we translate it into Spanish?”

Emily: “If you want to translate it to Spanish, be my guest. The rest of you can translate it into English. What do you think? I’m not going to give it to you. You’ve got to think. ‘Even at our poorest, we always had beautiful furniture and matching dishes.’”

Student: “I don’t know how to translate this in Spanish.”

Emily: “You don’t have to translate it in Spanish. Change it up in English. What could you say for ‘even at our poorest’?”

Two students, Thomas and Brantley, are familiar with Yapese, though Thomas used Yapese more frequently in speaking with his grandmother. Since these students expressed difficulty with translations, Emily initially offered them support via Google Translate, which was not very helpful. Other students who spoke Spanish at home were not familiar with reading or writing in Spanish; therefore, they also felt challenged to transliterate their oral knowledge onto paper. Emily made the decision to alter the instructional plan offered in the materials, no longer asking them to translate the English text into other languages. Reflecting upon this adaptation in Interview 3, Emily responded that

“When we first started doing it, I can't remember what the first passage was. But we pulled out computers for Brantley and Thomas. And the rest were all working with Angelica because they didn't know how to write in Spanish and she did. And so here are Thomas and Brantley trying to look up their two different languages on the computer,

and they would maybe find one word. And it was more tedious than them learning. So then it was like, why don't we just see if we can put this in our own words? And then it just kind of sprang.”

In particular, Emily describes the process of paraphrasing in English as putting the excerpt “in our *own* words.” When claiming English as “ours,” Emily implies that English is the language of the classroom community. Furthermore, Emily's reflection suggests harmony among students after this adaptation was made. However, in my observation, I could see how Angelica wanted to assert her Spanish knowledge, raising her hand and repeating words in Spanish. As Emily recorded students' paraphrases on chart paper, she made no effort to transcribe Angelica's contribution.

In her final interview, Emily defined translanguaging as connected to the perceived limitations of her new teaching context: “I would have to describe it in two different ways. If I was in [SCD] it would be more, they're more literate in their languages. These guys just weren't and I wasn't expecting that. So it was kind of eye opening, to see that they couldn't really go between the two languages as well as I thought they would have. [...] I feel like it could give them background on their other language.” While Emily located the problem that students were having with the translation activities in the students' lack of linguistic knowledge, she did not offer support or encouragement for students to “try out” their language skills. Instead, her focus on what students shared, which was knowledge of English, led her to miss crucial parts of the translingual emphasis of the curriculum.

Boundary Object Between Teacher and School: Focusing on Vocabulary

Initially, Emily expressed her excitement about the guided reading text in Unit 1, *When Stars Are Scattered*, since she was able to share her former experiences with refugee students.

She noted how her current students, a small group of third graders whose languages included Spanish and Yapese, had no background knowledge of the refugee experience; the graphic novel chronicling the journeys of two brothers in a refugee camp provided Emily with the opportunity to bridge her previous teaching experiences with her new context. Emily's emphasis on providing background knowledge to students became evident throughout the school year in her focus on building students' English vocabulary. At the end of most lessons, Emily chose activities for students to practice vocabulary, located both within and outside of curriculum materials.

One of the curriculum choice activities, Head's Up, includes paper cards to cut out and hold on one student's head, while the other student offers clues for the paper holder to guess the word. This game became the main choice activity from the curriculum, as students scrambled to quickly guess the vocabulary words with partners. Emily also used Blooket, a popular online educational review game, at the end of several classes to review vocabulary words from the week. The game allows teachers to input words and definitions, and students sit at their laptops to answer questions and compete for the number of correct answers with their classmates. Not surprisingly, Emily's 3rd graders became quite adept with these academic vocabulary words. In her second interview, Emily explained that her emphasis on vocabulary stemmed from what she saw as a student need: "there's a lot of times, they go to a test and they're lacking the vocabulary." Although Emily was not necessarily test-focused, her role as an EL teacher in a mostly monolingual English-focused school led her to narrow her attention to one facet of language learning. Her decision is not empirically good or bad; instead, this choice reflects how she felt that the curriculum materials could best serve her students within her specific school context.

The curriculum also served as a boundary object that brought student linguistic knowledge to the forefront. Emily had vague knowledge about the linguistic abilities of her students, especially students who knew languages other than English and Spanish; during the school year, she gained knowledge about the Micronesian languages of the students, as well as students' abilities to read and write in non-English languages. In her last interview, Emily spoke about the use of Yapese by one student with his grandmother and the proficiency of another student with writing in Spanish. Emily also reported her growing ease with "trying out" Spanish with her students, causing her to empathize more with her students: "I had a little girl at my other school that, I said something, and she went, ugh, like that? Because I was saying [a word in Spanish] wrong. But yeah, and just, you know, looking at them and knowing that they're working so hard all day long. Because they're translating." Despite Emily's use of the curriculum materials as a bridge to English rather than opening a broader space for multilingualism, lessons that called for open discussion and exploration of language still provided space for students to share their linguistic knowledge. In the end, Emily expanded her view of students as more linguistically capable. However, in a linguistically restrictive context, where academic success is measured only in terms of English proficiency, Emily's focus on the practice of English vocabulary attempts to provide a point of access for her students.

In Emily's case, the boundary object of curriculum materials provided a malleable structure, so that she was technically enacting the activity offered in the curriculum without getting at the objective of that activity. Emily's years of experience as well as her school context, which emphasizes the importance of academic English above all other languages, contribute to her treatment of the boundary object. Ultimately, Emily's status as a veteran teacher contributed

to her enactment of curriculum materials in a way that attempted to satisfy her own experience with “successfully” supporting MLLs.

Claire: Translingual Trials Despite Discomfort

Claire, a new EL middle school teacher in Southern City District, had six years of experience as an elementary teacher. Claire noted that the previous EL teacher at the school did not “service the hours” well and did not seem like a good fit, so she decided to move into the EL teacher role once that teacher left. After completing a certificate program at a local university, Claire began teaching at the middle school level. However, she described feeling overwhelmed at the prospect of providing appropriate instruction for her multilingual students, whose English proficiency ranged from very beginner levels to advanced, in the same class period. Most of Claire’s students were Spanish speakers, though she also had Farsi and Gujarati speakers in her fifth grade classroom. Following the curriculum materials gave Claire a sense of confidence in her role, as she trusted that the materials would work even if she did not know how to improvise in the moment.

Boundary Object Between Teacher and Students: Focus on Speaking Practice

Claire regularly referred to her desire to get students talking more in class, so that she made one modification to the curriculum in the second semester: she added a component from the first semester, the see/think/wonder protocol. This protocol, which involves showing students a photo and asking them to talk about what they see, what they think about the photo, and what they wonder about the photo, was included in the first unit to support students’ critical thinking about frames in a graphic novel. Claire continued to use this protocol with photos she would project at the beginning of class, with the questions about what they see, think, and wonder written in English, Spanish, and Gujarati on the side. Students understood this routine and

immediately shouted answers to Claire's questions: "A boy!" "A soccer ball!" "A boat!" The photos, which were related to the unit's read aloud text, rarely sparked debate, but Claire used them to entice quieter students to speak in front of their classmates. When this did not work as well as she hoped, Claire instituted the WIDA points board. Students would earn points for each of the four domains (speaking, listening, reading, and writing), and if they gained enough points, they would earn a pizza party. The speaking points, in particular, garnered a lot of complaints, as frequent talkers felt their contributions were not being added to the board, and quiet students' points would be immediately marked and celebrated. Of course, since the speaking counted if it was offered as an answer in front of the class, all the points were awarded for English contributions. The influence of the test shaped how Claire used the curriculum as a boundary object; while she encouraged students to use other languages with their peers, this kind of talking was not extrinsically rewarded.

However, over the course of the school year, the curriculum materials created a shared linguistic space between Claire and her students. In her second interview, which occurred midway through the school year, Claire reflected on what she had learned in using the curriculum so far: "I learned more Spanish from them. I learned that like, I guess I've been able to see it through their lens now. So I've just learned from them, like, how to learn as a student, and that when we go on break, I forget some of the Spanish things I'm not using as frequently when I'm with my friends and same with them." Claire's growth from the beginning of the school year, when she felt self-conscious using Spanish in the classroom, to seeing her language skills grow in terms of how her students develop language-in-use, highlights the space for linguistic discussion and reflection created by the curriculum materials. In her last interview, Claire pointed to the curriculum's translation activities as leading to her favorite moments in

class because she was able to see typically quiet students become active participants as they provided translations and engaged in cross-linguistic comparisons (see Figure 2). For example, some of the Spanish-speaking girls in Claire’s class usually only spoke with their small group. As students offered up translations to be written on chart paper on the back wall, these girls yelled out corrections and disagreements with other students, in Spanish. Overall, Claire’s emphasis on participation and engagement, as shown by students speaking in class, was supported by students’ ability to use their full linguistic repertoire with curriculum materials.

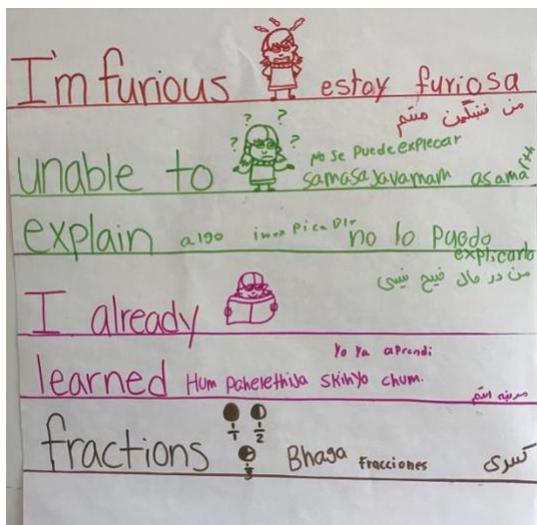


Figure 4-2. Translation chart in Claire’s classroom.

Boundary Object Between Teacher and Curricular Idea: Sticking With Translation Activities

Even in her last interview, Claire stated that she was “still figuring out who I am as like an EL teacher.” However, Claire faithfully followed the translanguaging protocol in Unit 2, week after week, despite her sense of uncertainty about whether students had translated excerpts “correctly.” Again, in her final interview, Claire explained that “I don’t feel comfortable enough to like add to anything, because I don’t know what works and what doesn’t work with the EL kids as much.” Instead, she decided to “stick with” the curriculum, ultimately offering her students the opportunity to showcase their linguistic knowledge and position themselves as experts. For

example, Claire was uncertain about how to support students with the translation activity beyond writing their translations on the board for others to see. In a follow-up email, I suggested that she might try to ask students about their choices for translation the next time she engaged in the activity; this directive is also included in the curriculum materials, though Claire might have overlooked the suggestion in the moment. Sure enough, the next week, Claire had a student volunteer to write part of the chosen excerpt in Spanish, and another volunteer wrote the same part in Farsi. She asked the students: “What are some things that are different from what [student] wrote and what you guys wrote?” The answers included students simply stating that it was a different language or a different way of writing; one student observed that the Farsi writer started on the right side of the line rather than the left. Claire enthusiastically highlighted this observation, and she asked a student who speaks Gujarati to translate the next part alongside a few different Spanish translations. This time, Claire asked the students to read their translations aloud “because for some of us, if we don’t speak that language, we might not be able to understand what it would sound like.” Students readily noticed English and Spanish cognates, though they were unable to make any connections with Farsi and Gujarati. In particular, the latter languages belong to different language families and, as the only speakers of these languages in the classroom, the students seemed to be uncertain about how to explain similarities and differences. However, Claire’s line of questioning, in response to curriculum materials, piqued student interest in the translations and languages of others.

Boundary Object Between Teacher and School: The Role of Data

Although both Emily and Claire continued to use some digital programs during class time, the curriculum offered Claire the opportunity to get students off the computers. Previously, Claire used digital programs, such as Lexia and FastBridge, during pull-out class times. In her

first interview, Claire expressed excitement about the paper-based nature of the curriculum materials, since she said that her students were “definitely more distracted” on laptops. Another issue with these digital programs was their continuous data collection, without necessarily offering opportunities for practice. Claire noted how FastBridge offered her important “data points,” but she wasn’t sure how to actually improve students’ fluency: “I was seeing some growth, but I definitely saw more growth after practicing fluency because we’re constantly testing fluency, hoping that we’re just helping them by testing them regularly. But actually having a practice every day, it seemed to have a lot bigger growth.” Without having curriculum materials that supported fluency practice, Claire used the only resources available to her, which focused on static data points without tools for development. Moreover, Claire noted that the curriculum material’s fluency tracker, which supported students to track themselves, allowed students to see their growth in real time and build their confidence.

The curriculum also provided a shared space as Claire made plans to share strategies from the materials with mainstream teachers at her school. In her first interview, Claire shared how she was trying to involve other teachers at her school to improve access for multilingual students. She explained that she wanted to “just show them a good model lesson, not like have a specific or an hour-long lesson, but just showing them somewhat like what the TRANSLATE [lesson] goes through.” Claire noted that her current school had experienced a major demographic shift in students over the past few years, with fewer black students, more Latinx students and more EL-classified students enrolled. Therefore, as the new EL teacher, Claire felt that part of her role included educating mainstream teachers about the requirements and appropriate accommodations to make for students. The curriculum materials provided one kind of developed structure that she could show teachers.

The TRANSLATE curriculum materials became Claire’s instructional lifeline, as they were organized for daily use and included fluency practice and fiction, components she felt were important. From the beginning of her time with the project, Claire frequently referred to students in terms of their levels of English proficiency, as measured by the ACCESS test. In fact, two common terms were regularly used to refer to multilingual students in the classrooms of Emily and Claire, as well as throughout their districts: high and low. In her last interview, Claire explained that the curriculum materials shifted her perspective on student abilities, in that she was able to observe students’ multilingualism in action: “I didn’t really truly know past WIDA what their levels were. So it just made me more perceptive and noticing things that the students, like what their language skills are and what they can and can’t do.” Notably, Claire’s newfound perceptions led her to question the placement of one of her students, when she realized that he did not understand or speak languages other than English. We discussed this issue, which Claire called a “red flag,” in the hallway before class one afternoon. Claire made plans to speak to her coach to ask if there was a possibility that the student could be placed in a different reading support class. However, according to state law, the student would be eligible for exiting the EL support program after receiving a certain score on the upcoming ACCESS test; due to the increased difficulty of the 6th grade test, Claire felt certain that the student would continue to receive EL support services the following year. Here, the curriculum materials created an important shared space of understanding for the teacher and a student who became stuck in a “support” class that might not be serving his needs. Despite the probable outcome for the student, Claire moved away from regarding test scores as indicative of student knowledge or need. Still, even in her last interview, Claire recommended the curriculum for “ones and twos,”

reflecting her tendency to group students according to proficiency levels rather than individual characteristics.

Claire defined translanguaging in her last interview as students “using their home language and their background to help them understand things in English or any language.” Interestingly, Claire’s inclusion of using one’s languages for understanding in “any language” indicates an expanded idea about the role of multilingualism. The translanguaging activities in the curriculum materials were not only taken up to support the growth of the students in English; additionally, Claire viewed the purpose of the activities as related to linguistic growth in general. In a hallway conversation, Claire told me about how her Farsi speaking student was learning Spanish from classmates, and how she was teaching two other students how to write in Farsi. The desire to learn how to write in Farsi, in particular, was sparked by the translation activities, where the Farsi-speaking student’s writing was on display. Therefore, the students’ experiences with the curriculum affected how their teacher understood the role of multilingualism.

Discussion

When I asked Emily and Claire what they had learned about their students while using the curriculum over the course of the school year, both pointed to a newfound understanding of student capacity. Despite using the curriculum materials for their own purposes (Emily for vocabulary practice, Claire for WIDA speaking practice), the educative elements of the curriculum as well as its focus on translanguaging activities seemed to create that sense of disequilibrium that sparks teacher learning (Ball & Cohen, 1999). Emily spoke about how the Diving into Language activity continued to be the most difficult yet most productive challenge for her students, as they used their knowledge of English vocabulary to paraphrase excerpts. Similarly, Claire mentioned that the translation activity provided new opportunities for students

to engage during class; in fact, Claire stated that the curriculum was “transforming” for student engagement. As boundary objects, the educative curriculum materials in this study allowed for both teacher autonomy in what they emphasized and teacher learning via new ideas and strategies in the materials, as detailed in Table 2. However, the extent of its influence depended on the context and background of the teachers, as well as the limitations of the materials, detailed in length in the implications section.

Curricular Element	Influence on Teacher Practice and Knowledge
culturally relevant read aloud texts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emily shared her previous work with refugee students • Claire made plans for using novels in future years
fluency passages connected to read alouds	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Claire changed focus from regular digital fluency assessments
introductory activity (see/think/wonder protocol)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Claire included multiple languages on PowerPoint slides
activities focused on students’ languages and talking about multilingualism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emily gained knowledge about students’ languages and their linguistic abilities • Claire gained knowledge about students’ languages, their linguistic abilities, and insight into the EL placement process
Diving into Language activity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emily focused on students’ abilities to paraphrase in English and learned about students’ written knowledge of languages • Claire discovered student translingual knowledge and learned about students’ written knowledge of languages

Table 4-2. Connection between elements of curriculum materials and influence on teacher practice and knowledge.

Emily’s unique context allowed her more autonomy in the materials she chose and delivered, despite having to contend with larger-scale concerns, such as an emphasis on informational texts over fiction and concerns with test preparation. SRD’s recent expansion of EL services resulted in several newly hired EL teachers and a need for greater coordination among EL teachers in the district; therefore, the district’s EL coordinator found our project’s

curriculum materials attractive, so that he recommended elementary and middle school EL teachers to join. Emily's participation made her a "good" teacher in the eyes of the district coordinator, who visited Emily's classroom once while using the curriculum. She reported that he was "thrilled with it" due to the high levels of student participation. Interestingly, Emily did not report much interaction with school administrators or other teachers, whose roles in her decision making were limited likely due to movement between two schools. Still, Emily felt the push and pull of assessments, as they interrupted the time available for students to engage with curriculum materials.

The teachers' classroom figured worlds do not exist completely outside of other influential figured worlds. Emily and Claire's decisions to emphasize vocabulary versus speaking practice connect to their histories-in-person as well as the larger figured world of educational accountability. Both teachers must comply with federal and state guidelines, where the progress of EL-classified students is marked only by their performance on standardized tests. Emily's extensive history in education inured her to the world of testing, wherein she noticed that academic vocabulary contributed to better scores. By offering her students regular exposure to and practice with academic vocabulary, Emily felt that her students would be better prepared to "exit" the program. In an informal conversation with Emily at the end of the school year, she expressed her frustration with recently released ACCESS test scores, where several students had been a tenth of a point away from being able to leave EL services. Her concern with the students remaining in the program focused on those students' perceptions of themselves and their abilities; because the promise of doing well on these tests is to leave EL services, students begin to view the program as one in which they don't (or shouldn't) want to be. While the curriculum materials provided a way for Emily's students to showcase their linguistic knowledge, placing

their multilingualism in a positive light, Emily's continued emphasis on English vocabulary dimmed some of that light. In other words, Emily's agentic use of the curriculum as boundary object overshadowed its original intent, thereby making it "fit" better into her classroom figured world.

Claire's focus on speaking practice, on the other hand, did not interfere as much with the translangual aspects of the curriculum. Students received points for class-related speaking at any point during the instructional period, so they may have been even more motivated to participate in discussions about translation choices. Claire's purported reluctance to deviate from the curriculum points to the potential power of boundary objects to exert great control over activity, depending on one's sense of agency within their figured world. For Claire, though, the boundary object served to offer her a sense of direction and control in a space where she felt unmoored. Notably, the only kind of speaking that accrues points occurs in English, since small group discussions occurring in other languages don't "count" as WIDA practice. Although Claire expands her classroom space as a translanguaging corriente (García et al., 2017) at the individual and small group level for her students, Claire's role in the broader accountability figured world still leads her to deem non-English languages as not "counting."

Another impact of the educational accountability figured world appears in Emily and Claire's continued labeling of students by their assessment scores: high, low, ones, twos, and so on. Even after Claire shared her revelation about the inaccuracy of ACCESS scores, later in the same interview she stated how the curriculum is not "meant for those higher levels. So if I could just like, separate them, but that was the difficult part, was just having all the levels in one class, for a curriculum that's more based on the students who are probably ones, twos and threes." Claire's statement underscores the difficulty of differentiation, a necessity that cannot be

completely addressed by a curriculum. However, Claire's reference to students as their WIDA levels perpetuates the belief in the test as an irrefutable mechanism to understand the needs and abilities of the students. Of course, these assessments comprise their own seemingly rigid boundary object that impacts the adoption of curriculum materials, especially with scheduling and time constraints around the testing season. Again, the figured world of educational accountability does not afford Emily and Claire the position to ignore the tests; instead, they must plan around and adapt curriculum materials, a boundary object over which they can exert greater agency, to fulfill their roles.

Implications

Educative curriculum materials, operating as boundary objects, offer a structure around which to organize teachers' instructional practices within their classroom figured worlds. In the end, however, the plasticity of the curriculum materials might result in the preservation of the practices or understandings of teachers, particularly when teachers already have a strong sense of who they are as a teacher of multilingual students. Educative elements can introduce teachers to new concepts and methods, but teachers decide how to enact them. Therefore, other professional learning structures, such as regular one-on-one coaching, professional learning group meetings with other EL teachers (Little, 2002), and video formative feedback sessions (Horn & Garner, 2022) might be mechanisms that create greater disequilibrium (Ball & Cohen, 1999) to increase teacher learning and shift teacher practice.

For Instructional Designers

Despite knowing that a variety of professional learning structures best supports teacher learning, we must also recognize that many teachers may not have the resources for this kind of support (Collopy, 2003; Davis & Krajcik, 2005). Educative curriculum materials can be

implemented within teachers' practice, possibly making this form of professional learning more appealing, actionable, and sustainable. In Davis et al.'s (2017) most recent synthesis about their pursuit of educative curriculum material design principles, they recommend that educative features should include suggestions for adaptations, be rooted in teachers' practice, offer multiple formats, and meet a variety of teacher needs (p. 302). These recommendations guide my own suggestions for instructional designers seeking to develop other translanguaging-focused materials.

In reflecting on how Emily and Claire overlooked some of the purpose behind translanguaging pedagogies as they enacted our project's curriculum, I recommend additional explanations about translanguaging as a theory and how the practice of translanguaging supports MLLs' metalinguistic and reading comprehension growth. In addition, providing student examples of activities might help teachers envision the possibilities of student-produced translingual responses. While our curriculum included some notes about this process, tangible student evidence is more helpful to teachers. Videos of multilingual student discussion, in partnerships, small groups, and whole class configurations, could also be impactful for teachers. Last, more guidance for how to adapt activities for various levels of English and other language proficiencies, including more support about transliteration when students aren't familiar with writing in their other languages, is necessary for teachers with linguistically diverse classrooms.

For Professional Learning Providers

As noted earlier, educative curriculum materials may provide additional, sustainable support for teachers who want to engage in translanguaging pedagogies. However, to ensure a greater impact on teacher practices, these materials should be used in conjunction with other professional learning structures. Our project engaged in monthly group professional development

sessions, comprised of project researchers, coaches, and participating EL teachers across both districts. However, attendance at these sessions could be sparse. We offer the sessions on Zoom, to accommodate teachers' schedules and after school plans, but this structure was perhaps too loose and not tied to teachers' daily practice (Davis et al., 2017). A better structure for more engaged collaboration might be teachers organizing their own professional learning group meetings (Little, 2002) in their districts, so that they could be in person and share similar district pressures.

Another structure that might improve professional learning support for teachers would be more specific one-on-one mentoring sessions, facilitated through video formative feedback (Horn & Garner, 2022). While I regularly observed Emily and Claire, we rarely had time to do a lengthy check-in or reflection. Emily left to go to her other school in the district immediately after our observation time, and I walked with Claire to her next class, where she offered push-in support, during the five minutes she had between classes. More intentional space created for the teachers' inquiry and reflection might lead to more teacher learning and changes in teachers' practices. Horn and Garner's (2022) video formative feedback cycle (VFF) attempts to support this kind of inquiry; in the VFF cycle, teachers ask a question for co-inquiry, researchers ask teachers to choose student focal groups for recording, researchers record video of the classroom and the groups, the researchers review the video and select clips for debriefing, and they debrief with teachers. This process engages teachers in reflecting on what happened during class, so that "as teachers developed new interpretations of instructional moments, they imagined other ways of working in the future" (Horn & Garner, 2022, p. 30). In our project, these VFF cycles may have allowed teachers to reconceptualize what they thought was happening as students engaged in translanguaging, thereby spurring their efforts to continue providing these pedagogies. Of

course, their classrooms' multilingualism makes the logistics of this process more difficult, as researchers or professional learning coaches may not be familiar with students' languages to provide interpretation of conversations. Still, utilizing a version of this reflective support can be impactful, as teachers re-see and re-hear their students and the heteroglossic space created in their classroom figured worlds through translanguaging pedagogies.

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