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"Es que nadie me quiere ayudar," Affective Factors In The Schooling Experience Of Recent Immigrants And Dual Language Instruction

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“ES QUE NADIE ME QUIERE AYUDAR,” AFFECTIVE FACTORS IN THE
SCHOOLING EXPERIENCE OF RECENT IMMIGRANTS AND DUAL
LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION

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Dean of the Graduate School

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2015

Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to my family with all of my love: my supportive and caring husband, Joe Talamantes, and to our beautiful children, Josephine Talamantes-Prater, Rosario Talamantes, Jose Emilio Talamantes, and Justin Mariano Talamantes.

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SCHOOLING EXPERIENCE OF RECENT IMMIGRANTS AND DUAL
LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION

by

MARIA DEL ROSARIO TALAMANTES, M.ED. – Instructional Specialist

DISSERTATION

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Abstract

This dissertation is a critical ethnography of the schooling experiences of recent immigrants in dual language immersion classes in US schools where the separation of languages is a policy (Adelman Reyes, 2007; Collier & Thomas, 2004; Cummins, 2005; Lee et al., 2008). Under this program, language is said to be used as a resource to motivate learning among students working in cooperative groups (Gomez, Freeman & Freeman, 2005; Kagan, 1995; Ruiz, 1984). However, this study revealed that language was also used as a tool for oppression among recent immigrant students (Bakhtin, 1981; Giltrow, 2003; Heller, 1995). Focusing on recent immigrant students' voices through their testimonios, informed by LatCrit (Delgado, R. 1989; Ladson-Billings and Tate, 2006), recent immigrants uncovered their feelings and shared their counterstories; the point of view of people of color (Delgado, R. 1989; Matsuda, 1987). Testimonios, along with participant observation and interviews revealed that language was used by various actors as an oppressive tool within the dual language immersion classroom. Teachers implemented the separation of languages policy differently (rigidly or flexibly), which impacted recent immigrants in various ways. Teachers who separated languages in a flexible manner adopted translanguaging practices to embrace multilingualism (Canagarajah, 2005, 2012; Creese & Blackledge, 2010; García & Sylvan, 2011; Joseph & Ramani, 2012; Kubota, 2008) were more successful. From students' testimonios, participant observation, and interviews with students and teachers, I found that recent immigrants who attended classes where the teacher strictly separated languages experienced academic and personal struggles in their adaptation to the new academic environment. Finally, recent immigrants encountered a more welcoming learning environment in their adaptation to the new schooling experience when attending classes where the teacher practiced a flexible approach of separation of languages (translanguaging).

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Chapter 1: Introduction

“Schools and teachers can play a significant role in mitigating the effects of grouping up under difficult circumstances” as in the case of students facing traumatic experiences in their past.”

Errante, 1997, p 356

1.1 Overview

In this dissertation, I present the findings obtained from the exploration of the schooling experiences of six recent immigrants in the United States when placed in dual language immersion classes where separation of languages is a policy. In this study, I found that within the same bilingual model where it is expected that teachers separate languages half of the academic time, there were some teachers who separated languages in a strict and others in a flexible manner. These pedagogical practices impacted recent immigrants in different ways. From students’ testimonios, participant observation, and interviews with students and teachers, I found that recent immigrants who attended classes where the teacher strictly separated languages experienced academic and personal struggles in their adaptation to the new academic environment. On the other hand, recent immigrants who attended classes where the teacher practiced a flexible approach of separation of languages (a translanguaging practice), encountered a more welcoming environment in their adaptation to the new schooling experience. Self-regulated learning strategies were expected to be practiced among students when working in cooperative groups. However, I found that students who were academically and linguistically more advanced in English refused to assist some recent immigrants and made fun of them because of their level of linguistic proficiency in the second language, English (linguistic bullying). These incidences of linguistic bullying happened when the teacher did not assist recent

immigrants in their new language, and was not able to monitor cooperative work to make sure recent immigrants were academically assisted.

The title of this dissertation focuses on the responses of two students: Manuel and Malena (all names of participants and places are pseudonyms), in particular. The stories these students told me introduced me to stressful situations experienced by the recent immigrant students participating in this study; their cases are presented in chapter 6. When I interviewed these recent immigrant students in the course of focus group sessions, they expressed that they felt stressed in their new schooling experience because nobody wanted to assist them when they were not able to understand the lectures in English.

Observations and interviews took place in an elementary school in the border area of El Paso, Texas at Border PK-5 Elementary School (pseudonym). From observations, I noticed that these schooling experiences caused a sense of fear among the emergent bilinguals (García, 2009). The students were placed in a dual language classroom where the separation of languages was a policy. In the dual language classroom, half of the academic time was delivered in English; most of the recent immigrant students' second language.

Frequent expressions presented throughout the observations and interviews such as: “*ellos lloran en la clase de inglés,*” “*los inmigrantes recientes lloran*” [they cry in the English class, the recent immigrants always cry] drew me to ask the participants about the cause of such distress. It was more so because of how Malena responded about her experiences when learning the second language. Referring to her first year at this particular US school, d she said: “*sentía que no valía nada.*” [I felt worthless]. Malena felt worthless because nobody wanted to help her, which caused her to cry. When I asked both students (Manuel and Malena) to explain the cause of their distress, they individually answered, “*Es que nadie me quiere ayudar*” [It's because

nobody wants to help me]. Their words became the title of this dissertation. According to both, the participating Spanish and English teachers, recent immigrants often cried when going to the English class. From this finding, I wondered how the strict or flexible separation of languages may affect the recent immigrants who came from the country nearby, Mexico; an insecure environment where children experience civil violence and family separation.

This dissertation documents and analyzes the voices of recent immigrants regarding their experiences in classes where teachers include, or exclude, their first language for academic instruction. Research on recent immigrants' schooling experiences mostly focuses on academics (García & Barlett, 2007; García Flores, & Chu, 2011; Orellana & Reynolds, 2008; Valdés, 1998, 2010). However, research seldom addresses the affective experiences when recent immigrants attend classes where the teacher separates or includes students' native languages. In particular, this dissertation focuses on dual language immersion classes, where literature is even scarcer. When I reviewed literature relevant to this topic, I found that research has neglected to investigate the affective experiences of recent immigrants attending classes in this particular program model where separation of language is a policy, which is implemented in a variety of ways in these academic environments.

1.2. Researcher Positionality: Becoming an immigrant in the United States

As a Mexican immigrant in the United States, I have faced the struggles recent immigrants generally experience when entering a new country, such as, confronting a new culture and new language. This experience helped me make sense of my career as a bilingual teacher, and as an instructional specialist in bilingual education. Practicing my teaching with a 6th grade dual language class during my teaching internship helped me reinforce my beliefs about the importance of integrating students' everyday cultural practices into the curriculum.

According to Lomawaima et al. (1995), “she learned well the lesson imparted through stories when, after a long day of chores, she would ‘join the family on mats around the fire to hear stories, and receive still more advice on becoming a wise and good woman” (p. 33).

In my case, for example, I invited students to incorporate their previous experiences into math lessons (i.e. describing scenarios where fractions could be useful in real life situations). I incorporated music choice during social studies when talking about regions. For example, on one occasion, as homework, I asked students to choose a song that one of her relatives liked. They had to write the reason for choosing that song. The following day during social studies time, students either could sing part of the song, or brought a CD to class to show and tell about their song choice. After playing or singing their songs, I would ask students about the musical differences among the songs. Some students who were born in the United States would show an “oldie” song in English. Students who were from the northern part of Mexico most likely would talk about a “norteño” song (a song played with accordion, drums, and acoustic guitar). Students whose family roots were from the south of Mexico (like myself) would show a “*cumbia*” (rhythmic music with percussions and electronic music instruments such as piano, guitar, bass guitar and drums). Students were able to hear the different instruments, rhythms, and lyrics within songs. Then, I introduced the diversity of people and their customs, language, even music choice as part of each unique region.

For the lessons I planned, students were assigned to show and tell cultural artifacts from their parents or relatives. Students had to explain the story behind the artifact. This particular class was in Spanish. Parents and relatives were invited to the social studies activity since the artifacts belonged to family members. Students were encouraged to present their relatives to the class, and explained about the artifact which was part of the homework; students had to write

about their cultural artifacts. For example, a student who was from Spain brought a colorful yellow shawl with flowers that belonged to her grandmother, and another student brought a picture of his grandfather wearing a sombrero and riding his horse in Mexico. This lesson helped build a sense of cultural appreciation (Henze & Hauser, 1999; Huerta-Macias, 1995; Lomawaima et al, 1995; Major, 2009) among students in the classrooms who were also encouraged to ask questions about each unique cultural object. I was also able to share my cultural artifact, a picture of the *parroquia* [parish church] of my town in Acámbaro, Guanajuato, Mexico.

Personalizing culture as posited by Henze and Hauser (1999) through engagement of cultural practices, such as inviting students to share cultural experiences, helped engage students in the lessons. This academic practice of including cultures in the curriculum also helped to make students feel welcome in the classroom. According to Major (2009), “culture is the social and intergenerational glue that defines, connects, sustains, and enriches the members of successful communities-including school and classrooms” (p. 24). In other words, inviting students’ everyday cultural practices is the key to successfully creating safe environments for people within the diverse social communities. In these social communities, as Major (2009) explains, students benefit when feeling welcome in environments where all cultures are accepted, and recognized as unique. The creation of safe classroom communities is an important goal in education when lecturing diverse students, as Major (2007) and Henze and Hauser (1999) explain.

However, classrooms in U.S. schools are seldom addressed as diverse cultural communities. In contrast, classrooms in the US are often constructed as individualized academic spaces supported by policies in favor of assimilation and against the integration of diversity of cultures in education (Bonilla-Silva, 2004, 2010; Park, 2011; Schenzul & Carroll, 1990).

According to Schensul & Carroll (1990), “national policies favored an assimilationist approach. New arrivals were expected to learn English, obtain work, and integrate into American communities” (p. 340). Bonilla-Silva (2004) refers to such an assimilationist approach as color blind racism when “district leaders chose to not see or address issues of race” (p. 698).

In this dissertation, I see the integration of students’ cultural experiences, including language practices, as an important tool for teaching recent immigrants. It is important to mention that as an educator teaching in a dual immersion class on the border, being able to share my culture with students coming from Mexico made it easier for me to understand and incorporate significant cultural practices during academic instruction, than for teachers who do not share a similar culture with students. Henze and Hauser (1999) explain how it is easier to include students’ culture in the classrooms when the teacher shares similar cultural backgrounds with the students. According to Henze and Hauser (1999), “when teachers and students share similar cultural and linguistic backgrounds, making these connections is easier, because teachers already have some fairly well-grounded information about the child’s culture” (Henze & Hauser, 1999).

When I entered my doctoral program in 2010, aspects of my culture, such as previous experiences as a Mexican woman and bilingual teacher, were the tools that helped me make sense of my new academic challenges. Each class I took reinforced my interest in the sociocultural context of learning a new language. As I gained new knowledge relevant to my specialization in the doctoral program, such as bilingualism and social justice, I made connections to relevant events that took place in the Juárez -El Paso border region. These events included the drug war and civil violence as a result of the selling of illegal substances, and the fight for territory control (Campbell, 2010; Escalante, 2011; Miller, 2009). Each class I took

increased my interest as a bilingual educator, and as an advocate in favor of additive bilingual models to teach emergent bilinguals. The additive programs recommend maintaining students' native language while acquiring the second (Cummins, 2008; García & Barlett, 2007; Ramani, & Joseph 2012; Valenzuela, 1999). My interest on additive bilingualism and recent immigrants in the US became stronger the second semester when I took a Social Justice class in the doctoral program. I definitely agreed with the idea that subtractive bilingualism is implemented in the United States as a method to diminish and make one's first language disappear in order to gain control over minorities (Galindo, 2011; Ruiz, 1984; Valenzuela, 1999). Apple (2004) refers to cultural control as keeping hegemony among minorities within the educational system. I became aware about Freire's (1967) *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* which helped me make connections to how violent events that have been taking place in Ciudad Juárez contributed to the displacement of new immigrants coming into the United States when looking for a safe environment for their families (CONAVIM, 2009).

1.2.1. My Culture: *Mi testimonio*

It is important to mention that my testimonio in this dissertation corresponds to my previous experiences as a recent immigrant, and as a bilingual teacher in this country. My testimonio was useful to gain rapport with the participants of this study.

Firmly believing in cultural aspects such as language and previous experiences as part of one's identity (Holland, Skinner, Lachicotte, & Cain, 1998), for my dissertation I decided to share my experiences as a Mexican immigrant woman who once crossed the border "illegally" looking for family unity, the same as many others that crossed frontiers pursuing a dream. Sharing my experience (*mi testimonio*) facilitated my position as a researcher interested in my

own community, while focusing on academic and pedagogical issues that are affecting recent immigrant families from Mexico in this U.S. border region.

My testimonio helped me to understand the experiences of recent immigrants when entering a new country, not only in the school context, but also in their home environments. I experienced what it was to come back home from a new school, struggled and frustrated when taking classes in a new language. In addition, experiencing and sharing my testimonio as a bilingual teacher of emergent bilinguals (García, 2009) helped me understand how teachers perceive this population of students learning a second language in an environment that is framed by policies based on monolingualism (Galindo, 2011; McGroarty, 2013; Ruiz, 1984; Stewart, 1993; Tollefson, 2013). It is important to mention that I used testimonios as a methodological tool for gathering data, as used by LatCrit (Pérez-Huber, 2012; Solórzano & Delgado Bernal, 2001). My testimonios (addressed theoretically in Chapter 3) became an important tool for gaining rapport with all of my participants. Testimonios also served as the starting point to begin the course of the focus group sessions with students and the interviews with the participating teachers.

Working with recent immigrants allowed me to witness their struggles when attempting to adapt to the new culture and the new language. I was also able to observe their frustration to the point of crying as teachers had mentioned. These experiences inspired me to document and analyze language usage and its role in the education of recent immigrants. Therefore, the primary focus of this dissertation is to understand the experiences of emergent bilingual students, and their feelings when confronting the challenge of being immersed in the new language in partially monolingual environments where teachers include or exclude languages. Testimonios were an

important tool for allowing these students to express their experiences and points of view on the strict separation of languages policy in the classrooms.

1.3. Violence and the New Waves of Immigration from Mexico

As of 2015, new waves of immigration are coming to El Paso, Texas as a result of the ongoing violence that has been taking place in Ciudad Juárez, although violence rates started decreasing in 2011 (Staudt & Mendez, 2015). Researchers address such violence in this border region and agree that drug selling, and power control are the reasons of such unfortunate violent events (Campbell, 2010; CONAVIM, 2009; Escalante, 2011; Miller, 2009 Staudt & Mendez, 2015). According to Staudt & Mendez (2015); “Ciudad Juárez has been the border center point and ground zero for the violence of the drug war” (p. 2). Only during the period of 2007 to 2009, about 55,000 people moved from Ciudad Juárez to El Paso, Texas (CONAVIM, 2009). Previous statements are estimations of recent immigrants entering into the United States (El Paso, Texas) from Ciudad Juárez. It is not likely to give precise statistics about the total number of recent immigrants entering in this border due to the fact that some of those immigrants cross the border without documentation, like I did 26 years ago. There is no record that shows the exact number of recent immigrants entering to the US.

These statistics of new waves of immigrants coming from Ciudad Juárez to El Paso were crucial for establishing the criteria to choose the participants of my Dissertation study; recent immigrants residing in the El Paso region in the period of about two years prior to my study, which took place in 2014. Statistical information of this type was very important for this study to point out how demographic changes not only affected the population of recent immigrants in this border region, but also impacted demographics in schools. Such demographic changes also

increased the need for adapting the curriculum for recent immigrant students, such as in the case of dual immersion classes.

Demographic changes not only increased the population and variety of people along the U.S. border, but also the pedagogic needs bilingual teachers have to address when teaching this particular population of students (Cornfield, & Arzubia, 2004). According to public information provided from three independent school districts (Ysleta, Socorro, and Canutillo ISD) in El Paso, Texas, the number of newcomers in the last five years has increased at several campuses. Many times I observed how teachers did not know how to work with recent immigrants. I was able to witness the struggle emergent bilinguals experienced in border schools when learning the second language. In addition to the stress that came with moving to a new country, students often experienced stressful situations in their country of origin. The recent immigrant students would often recall violent events that took place in their country, Mexico. These observations are consistent with Araujo and de la Piedra, (2013) who show that recent immigrant children have to face the challenge of confronting the new culture and learning another language when attending schools in this country (de la Piedra & Araujo, 2012; Araujo & de la Piedra, 2013). These researchers add that these students often bring with them their experiences living in an insecure country. My experiences as a bilingual teacher with recent immigrants in the border are consistent with these findings.

For example, in 2009 when I was a bilingual math teacher in a rural area near El Paso, I observed recent immigrant students brought up murder stories that involved relatives, friends or neighbors to an algebra lesson I organized. They offered examples of violent events that took place in their country for several years. In addition, students became frustrated with the language of instruction. In this ESL class in a middle school where I taught math to emergent bilinguals,

students were supposed to receive academic instruction mainly in English, the second language. Spanish was only allowed for translation 20 percent of the class time, as the administrators explained when I was hired. I was able to see the frustration in these emergent bilinguals when they were not able to understand what the lesson was about. This is consistent with research that shows how recent immigrants bring with them previous stressful experiences that can make it more difficult to adapt to the new academic environment (Portes & Rumbaut, 2001; Zhou & Bankston, 1998; Suarez-Orozco et al, 2009). From these experiences, I became intrigued about emergent bilinguals' feelings regarding the challenge of learning a second language, in particular when they are not able to receive academic instruction in their first language. Moreover, I wondered how the strict separation of languages could influence recent immigrants' schooling experience.

1.4. Statement of the Problem

Moving to a new country is often not a smooth process for children (Cornfield, & Arzubiaga, 2004; Valdés, 1998, 2010). Valdés (1998) explains that recent immigrants have to travel “physical, emotional, and psychological” distances to arrive to this country (p. 4). The author points out that those recent immigrant children and their families encounter severe problems when entering the educational system in the US. These students have to face the challenge of learning English in classrooms where the first language of recent immigrants is not used for academic instruction. Valdés (2010) also addresses the struggles recent immigrants face when arriving to the US, and refer to such struggles as *invisible borders* that include family separation, deportations, and segregation in their new academic experiences. Valdés advocates in favor of these new students, and invites teachers to learn about recent immigrants' struggles and the invisible borders these students have to overcome in order for teachers to address these

students' academic needs. Similarly in this study, recent immigrant children coming from Ciudad Juárez to El Paso face the challenges of learning a new language, becoming biliterate, and coping with their misfortune of having experienced living in an insecure environment in their country of origin (Araujo & de la Piedra, 2013; de la Piedra & Araujo, 2012).

Recent immigrants face a new challenge when placed in bilingual classrooms where the teacher strictly separates their first language from the new. My assumption was that the previous statement was true, especially when emergent bilinguals are placed in classes that separate languages for academic instruction, such as in the case of the dual language 50/50 classes where the separation of languages is strictly enforced (Adelman Reyes, 2007; Collier & Thomas, 2004; Cummins, 2005; Lee et al, 2008), and where one can expect that half of the academic time instruction is delivered in the unknown language. Since I was able to observe that some teachers in dual immersion classes mixed languages to help students understand academic concepts, I have also taken an interest in investigating the impact of the inclusion of languages when teaching recent immigrants in academic spaces where monolingual instruction is a key component of language policy (separation of languages). For example, when doing my teaching internship in a 6th grade dual language classroom, on occasion, the teacher would use translation to help the recent immigrants. Sometimes she would assign other students or even me to assist the new students. At times, when the teacher saw these new students struggling with academic instruction in English, she would teach them in their first language.

Demographic changes and globalization are the key factors that are closely related to the emergent need for adopting multilingual measures for communication around the world, especially when talking about education where monolingualistic ideologies have been implemented, and have left aside additive language models that promote multilingualism

(Canagarajah, 2005, 2012; Heller, 1995; Hornberger & Link, 2012; Joseph & Ramani, 2012; Kubota, 2008). Using Bourdieu's (1977) theory on reproduction in education, Heller (1995) argues against monolingualistic ideologies that are supported by educational institutions and curriculum design. According to Heller (1995), certain groups keep social control through the implementation and imposition of cultural practices in education; which includes promoting monolingualism through the curriculum. Such practices are implemented by the dominant social group with the aim to keep control among other social groups (Apple, 2004; Bourdieu, 1977; Heller, 1995).

Apple (2004), also adopting Bourdieu's (1977) ideas, posits educational institutions as reproductive systems that duplicate dominant cultural practices. Bourdieu explains that this cultural reproduction is a resemblance of a symbolic violence imposed by a dominant society. In Bourdieu's words: "Every power to exert symbolic violence, i.e. every power which manages to impose meanings and to impose them as legitimate by concealing the power relations which are the basis of its force, adds its own specially symbolic force to those power relations" (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1977, p. 4). Heller (1995) extends such ideas of cultural reproduction and power within the educational system by explicitly arguing that, "schools are an important window on the role that educational institutions play in constructing relations of power" (p 375). Heller refers to language dominance as a way to control minority languages, and she mentions that such control is related to dominance within ethnolinguistics: "the study of how language relates to culture and ethnicity" (Underhill, 2012, p. i). According to Heller (1995); "Language norms are all the more important when institutional relations of power are tied up with ethnolinguistic ones, as in the monolingualizing tendencies of the bureaucratic nation-state faced with a multilingual population" (pg. 374).

Ruiz (1984) presents three orientations researchers adopt to see language; as a problem, as a right or as a resource. Ruiz (1984) argues against the view of language as a problem where the integration of the first language into the curriculum is not supported. Ruiz explains that from this perspective, language is considered a problem for planning in education. Under this view of language as a problem, languages other than English are blamed for the speakers' supposed difficulties to socially fit into society in the US (Hufstedler, 1980). From the perspective of "language as a problem", "multilingualism leads ultimately to the lack of social cohesiveness" (Hufstedler, 1980, p. 69). Ruiz points out that, from the later perspective, "it becomes as well, an important element in the justification of monolingualism as an ideal" (p. 21). Ruiz opposes such orientation of language as a problem, and favors a perspective that understands language as a right and as an effective resource in education. This topic will be further developed in chapter 2.

Recent immigrants are usually placed in a variety of academic settings; monolingual, subtractive bilingual programs, or dual language programs. Literature in the field has identified bilingual education, and in particular dual language instruction, as the most effective model to teach linguistic minority students (Adelman Reyes, 2007; Christian and Whitcher, 1995; Collier and Thomas, 2004-2009; Cummins, 2005; Huerta Macias, 2005; Lee et al, 2008, 2009). However, when I reviewed literature regarding recent immigrants, I found that there are no studies that explicitly reveal recent immigrant students' feelings when attending classes where the separation of language is a policy, such as in the case of the dual immersion classes where it is expected that teachers separate first from second language half of the academic time.

1.5. The Gap in Research

A good number of studies have focused on the effects of discriminatory practices on the emotions of minoritized students. There has been research on the feelings of high school

African-Americans, Asian-Americans, and Latino students in regards to the different ways of discrimination they confronted in and out of school context (Rosenbloom & Way, 2004). There is also work on feelings of shame in education when ESL nursing students enter the US. These college students are not able to ask for assistance when not understanding key concepts because they feel ashamed of not knowing English (Colosimo & Xu, 2006). Research also shows how the perceived poor literacy and speech skills among economically disadvantaged students taking literacy class in Brazil caused feelings of shame in these students who did not want to speak because they were criticized and frequently corrected (Barlett, 2007). In Barlett's study, those students who were not able to use the correct vocabulary, or to read and write properly were perceived as inferior. For Barlett (2007) these feelings of shame are used to keep social inequality in Brazil.

Additionally, there is also research that vaguely addresses emergent bilinguals' perceptions and feelings towards low expectation when attending ESL (English as a second language) classes (Callahan, Wilkinson, & Mauller, 2008; Mendoza-Denton, 2008; Yonezawa & Jones, 2003). There is also work that involves recent immigrants, their schooling experiences, and their academic struggles in the classrooms where teachers separate languages (García & Barlett, 2007; García & Sylvan 2011; García Flores & Chu, 2011; Orellana, 2001; Mendoza-Denton, 2008; Orellana & Reynolds, 2008; Valdés, 1998, 2010). However, students' feelings when the teachers do not use students' first language for academic instruction are also vaguely addressed.

As I reviewed literature on emotions and emergent bilinguals, I saw that there is a need for research in the emotional schooling experiences of recent immigrants attending classes where languages are included or excluded for academic instruction. Furthermore, there is a need for

research that allows recent immigrant students' voices to be heard. Research that highlights students' voices regarding their feelings in their new schooling experiences where the teachers separate or include languages is scarce. In that sense, exploring and documenting students' experiences towards the strict or flexible implementation of the separation of languages policy serves the purpose to understand the emotional impact of these two pedagogical approaches on recent immigrants' experiences, and inform educators and policy makers about the way newcomers feel. These voices will provide important information in order to analyze if a strict separation of languages policy is necessary and effective. This dissertation addressed this need in research when showcasing the voices of recent immigrants in the US, the unheard voices (Ladson-Billings, 2006), through their testimonios. Testimonio is an approach to qualitative research in education as proposed by LatCrit (Delgado-Bernal, 1995; García, 1995; Pérez-Huber, 2010; Solórzano & Delgado Bernal, 2001). In this study, the newcomers' testimonios reveal the emotional impact of separation of languages in a strict or flexible manner when attending dual immersion classes in US.

1.5.1 Addressing the gap

In this dissertation, separation of languages acted as an added stressor for recent immigrants. The previous statement is drawn from the findings presented in chapters 5 and 6. This experience (the separation of languages) increased the levels of stressors and feelings such as sadness, unworthiness, inadequacy, insecurity, and anger among the students when they were not able to understand academic instruction in the new language. This situation was compounded when the teacher or students did not assist these students in their native language, or when bullying occurred. In contrast, the flexible separation of languages (translanguaging) motivated recent immigrants when teachers used the students' first language as a tool to scaffold learning.

I approached these academic situations by listening and documenting recent immigrants' voices with the aim to reveal their emotional experiences in their new classrooms. There were three specific practices in the participating classrooms that I focused on: when the classmates in their group refused to help, when the teacher separated languages in a strict manner and did not use the students' first language to assist them, and when the teacher separated languages in a flexible manner by using recent immigrant students' first language to support them in their academic needs. In this dissertation, students' testimonios reveal the "truth" (from their perspectives) from their living experiences in the new classrooms. The findings of this dissertation may help to advocate in favor of recent immigrants' academic needs, and for the necessary educational reforms to accomplish it.

1.6. Research Questions

Main question:

1. How do the separation of languages and translanguaging practices influence the affective aspect of emergent bilinguals when acquiring the second language?

Sub-questions:

1. How is the separation of language policy implemented in the dual language classrooms?
2. How are the translanguaging practices implemented in dual immersion classes where the separation of languages "must" be strictly practiced?
3. What are the feelings that children express when experiencing these two different academic situations?

1.7. Significance

This research contributes to a growing body of literature on the impact of language policies (Galindo, 2011; Jaret, 1999; McGroarty, 2013; Ruiz, 1984; Stewart, 1993; Tollefson,

2013) and the affective experiences of recent immigrants (García & Barlett, 2007; García & Sylvan 201; Orellana, 2001; Mendoza-Denton, 2008; García, Flores & Chu; Orellana & Reynolds, 2008; Valdés, 1998, 2010) who are placed in dual immersion or ESL classes where the strict separation of languages is a policy (Adelman Reyes, 2007; Collier & Thomas, 2004; Cummins, 2005; Lee et al, 2008), and the teachers follow this policy in a rigid or strict manner. This research may help administrators, teachers and policymakers to grow in awareness of the emotional impact that separation of language recent immigrant students may confront in the context of unsupervised “self-regulated learning” (Windstead, 2013), or “peer teaching” (Angelova, 2008).

Self-regulated learning can help construct meaningful learning environments when students work in small heterogeneous groups (Kagan, 1995; Slavin, 1991). However, peer teaching can create a sense of hostility within the group members when students assigned to help the emergent bilinguals, recent immigrants, refuse to assist and make fun of their inability to fully communicate in English, and when recent immigrants have difficulty understanding academic instruction in the new language. These incidences can be an addition to recent immigrants’ previous and prevalent stressful experiences by making it more difficult to adapt to the new academic environment (Portes & Rumbaut, 2001; Suarez-Orozco, Pimentel, & Martin, 2009; Zhou & Bankston 1998). Such experiences can negatively impact students in the process of learning, as pointed out by Levine and Pizarro (2004), and Levine and Edelstein (2009), including learning a second language (Ozanska-Ponikwia, 2011; Pavlenco, 2006).

Bilingual teachers need to be aware of how emotions can impact students in the process of learning the new language. This is such as in the case of recent immigrants who receive academic instruction, and the first language is used as a scaffold and resource for learning in the

second language (translanguaging), or when native language is excluded from academic instruction in the unknown language. Having this awareness is particularly important in those cases when recent immigrants are immersed into a new language, and do not receive the academic help in their first language for half of the academic time, such as in the case of dual immersion classes. However, it is important to mention that some teachers do not follow the policy of separating language for academic instruction, and mix languages to help recent immigrants, as found with a 4th grade teacher Mr. Godina and Patricia, a recent immigrant (a case presented in chapter 4).

Understanding how the strict or flexible separation of languages emotionally impact recent immigrants, is the focus of this study. I gathered data from the recent immigrants' testimonios as well as from observations in their classrooms, and from interviews with teachers. I hope this dissertation will help administrators and teachers to be better informed when planning and delivering academic instruction for recent immigrants. I also hope that this study will contribute to the literature by documenting and analyzing newcomer's testimonios about their experience with the separation of language policy. This is with the purpose to promote a safe and motivating learning environment for recent immigrant students when they are able to receive academic assistance using their first language as a resource (translanguaging). This pedagogy may help overcome unsafe situations when recent immigrants become intimidated by peers that are more linguistically proficient in the second language, and are not willing to help.

1.8. Definition of Terms

This section presents the key terms that need to be defined with the purpose to situate the context of this dissertation. I have defined these terms so that the reader can have knowledge of how they are used in this research study.

1.8.1. Recent immigrants: In this study the term ‘recent immigrants’ is used to identify those students that have migrated to the United States from Mexico with their parents or relatives in a period of about two years by the time of the investigation. To participate in this dissertation, the recent immigrant students had to fulfill the requirements of time residing in the USA living in El Paso, Texas border region. This information was provided by participating teachers, students, and parents. These students had to be attending dual immersion classes in the participating school “Border Pk-5” Elementary School.

This criterion was chosen because in El Paso, Texas we had an increase of recent immigrants from Ciudad Juárez as a result of insecurity and increased violence (Campbell, 2010, 2015; Escalante, 2011; Miller, 2009). According to the census’ (2011) data, from 2007 to 2011, the number of foreign-born immigrants in El Paso Texas had increased by 25%. From 2008 to 2011 Ciudad Juárez had globally been the center of attention for its high incidence of violence (CONAVIM, 2009). These demographic changes were crucial to determine the criterion of recent immigrants residing in El Paso, Texas with the aim to navigate through their new schooling experiences, and to see how previous stressing experiences affected these students’ new schooling in a new country when learning a second language in partially monolingual dual language classrooms.

1.8.2. Emergent bilinguals (EBs): Emergent bilingual is the term used to refer to recent immigrant students who are immersed in the language they are learning. These students emerge toward the goal of becoming bilingual as mentioned by García et al. (2010), who explains that regardless of proficiency in the new language, all of those learning a second language are emergent bilinguals. García (2010) argues that learning a second language is endless. This is due to the fact that, balanced bilingualism where the emergent bilinguals fully and equally speak both

languages does not exist. The term emergent bilingual replaces the term “ELLs” (English Language Learners) that, according to García et al. (2010), “devaluates other languages and puts the English language in a sole position of legitimacy” (p. 3). García et al. (2010) use this term to define students that, “through school and through acquiring language ... become bilingual, able to continue to function in their home language as well as in English – their new language and that of the school” (p. 2). In her own words, García (2009) explains that, “The term emergent bilingual refers to the children's potential in developing their bilingualism; it does not suggest a limitation or a problem in comparison to those who speak English. As such, bilingualism is recognized as a potential resource, both cognitively and socially, consistent with research on this topic” (p. 322).

1.8.3. Emotions: Emotions in relation to second language acquisition in this study refer to the influence of previous and prevalent emotional experiences that may affect the process of becoming bilingual. Emotions are also known as feelings, and in the schooling experience of emergent students can become one more stressor to cope with when confronting immersion classes that separate their first language from the second. Ozanska-Ponikwia (2011) argues that learning a second language brings a different sense of emotionality which can make learning easier, or more difficult, when acquiring the second language. This depends on the attitudes adopted when switching languages, as well as “cultural scripts, frames of expectation, autobiographic memories, and levels of proficiency and emotionality” (Ozanska-Ponikwia, 2011, p 217).

1.8.4. Language: From a sociolinguistic view, language is defined as the utterances that act as a bond among speakers in a specific social context (Makoni & Pennycook, 2007; Martin-Jones, Blackledge & Creese, 2012; Pennycook, 2010). This idea of language as a social tool for

interaction where the speakers share their unique point of view of the world, as posited by Bakhtin (1981), is implemented in this investigation to explore recent immigrants' new schooling experiences in the US. Bakhtin's (1981) perspective on language goes beyond Saussure's (1959, 1993) approach of language as a systematic process that involves symbols (signifier) and the meanings (signified). According to Saussure (1993), "In any system, one must consider its whole; that is what makes a system" (p. 107). In this study, language is part of a heteroglossic world where any utterance used to perform bilingually is also considered language; an idea borrowed from Bakhtin (1981). Kamberelis (2006) also uses Bakhtin to address heteroglossia and states that "heteroglossia is a complex mixture of languages and world views that is always dialogized, as each language is viewed from the perspective of the others" (p. 51). In Bakhtin's (1981) words, "As a living, socio-ideological thing, as heteroglot opinion, language, for the individual consciousness, lies on the borderline between oneself and the other. The word in language is half someone else's. It becomes "one's own" only when the speaker populates it with his own intention" (p. 293).

The sociolinguistic approach adopted for this study embraced language as the set of utterances for social communication (Duranti, 1997; Ervin-Tripp, 1972; Gumperz, 1964; Platt & Platt, 1975) where not only speaking, listening, writing or reading are language expressions. Language is "the totality of linguistic forms regularly employed in the course of socially significant interaction" (Gumperz, 1964, p. 137), such as in the case of this investigation where students and teachers used translanguaging strategies to socially and academically communicate meaning through drawing, speaking, translating, copying, signing and so on, or when language was used as a tool of oppression (linguistic bullying). For example, language was used as a tool of oppression when more fluent English-speaking students in this study were assigned to help

recent immigrants and made fun of the newcomer's pronunciation. Linguistic bullying occurred when students made fun of recent immigrants by laughing, linguistically mocking, and signing to convey harassing messages. These last examples are also the utterances that represent language in this study.

1.8.5. *Monolingualistic ideas:* “Monolingualistic ideas” is the term used when referring to the ideology of monolingualism addressed by Blackledge, (2002), and Heller (1995). Blackledge expresses that, this ideology is prevalent among a multicultural society through the implementation of English as the norm, while ignoring, “the creative processes of linguistic mediation, interaction, and fusion that take place in social life” (Canagarajah, 1999, p 3). Ruiz also explains that from the perspective of language as a problem, this orientation “becomes as well, an important element in the justification of monolingualism as an ideal” (p. 21). In this study, monolingualistic ideas are present in the model of dual language education observed.

1.8.6. *Translanguaging:* This term, as defined by García and Sylvan (2011) is the process by which bilingual students and teachers engage in complex discursive practices in order to, “make sense of, and communicate in multicultural classrooms” (p. 389). The authors add that even though translanguaging involves code switching and translation when students switch or translate languages to communicate with each other, translanguaging differs from codeswitching and translating, “in that it refers to the process in which bilingual students make sense and perform bilingually in the myriad ways of classrooms – reading; writing, taking notes, discussing, signing, and so on” (p. 389). Through this process students are able to make sense of academic communication through reading, writing, taking notes, discussing, signing notes and more. Translanguaging is referred to as the ability of emergent bilinguals to use the diverse utterances from their linguistic repertoire to engage in communicative and educational social

contexts “to engage diverse students’ multiple meaning-making systems” (García & Wei, 2014, p. 3). Canagarajah (2011) defines translanguaging as “the ability of multilingual speakers to shuttle between languages, treating the diverse languages that form their repertoire as an integrated system” (p. 401). Translanguaging in this research is offered as an optional pedagogy to overcome monolingualism and the strict separation of languages.

1.8.7. Stressors: In this study, stressors are the external events or situations, attitudes, and pedagogies that may cause emergent bilinguals to feel stressed in an academic context. Suarez-Orozco, Pimentel, & Martin (2009) talk about some of the stressors newcomer immigrants face when entering a new educational system. The authors refer to those stressors as the new challenges that are closely related to their experiences when migrating into the new country which include: experiencing racism, discrimination and the challenge of acquiring the second language. According to Suarez-Orozco et al (2009); “these stressors complicate immigrant students’ adjustments to the new school and community settings” (p. 713), such as when facing the challenge of learning a second language, and confronting a new culture. In this study, the stressors recent immigrants confronted were: having to receive academic instruction without the inclusion of their native language, not receiving support from peers when working in cooperative groups, and the misfortune of experiencing linguistic bullying from peers who were more proficient in English, made fun of them, and refused to help recent immigrants when unable to understand academic instruction in their second language.

1.8.8. Dual language immersion classrooms: Dual Language immersion classrooms in this research are the academic spaces where students are taught in a first and second language in a separate manner as a policy of this program (Lee et al, 2008, Collier & Thomas, 2004, and Cummins, 2005; Adelman Reyes, 2007). The teacher or teachers (when students switch classes)

deliver pedagogical instruction exclusively in one language without mixing the other language. It is when students are immersed in the second language. According to Thomas and Collier, (2012), dual immersion models have the purpose to help “English Language Learners” (ELLs) reach academic success and increase their literacy and academic skills in both languages. The goals of the two-way instruction are: dual literacy development (in the first and second language), high academic success, and appreciation of cultural diversity (Thomas and Collier, 2004-2012; Izquierdo, 2011; and Cummins, 2011).

1.8.9. Testimonios: As defined by Saavedra (2011), Testimonio is a, “Latin American literary genre that has been used by individuals to tell a collective story and history of oppression through the narrative of an individual” (p. 261). In this study, the testimonio genre is used to share my own experiences as an immigrant woman and bilingual teacher to invite the participants to share their own testimonios as recent immigrants in this country, and in a new academic context where they are partially immersed into the new language. Furthermore, testimonios in this proposal are very important because they are used to invite emergent bilingual students to show their “voice;” the voice that was unheard (idea borrowed from Delgado-Bernal, 1995 and Ladson-Billings 1995, 2006) in regards to their schooling experiences when confronting separation or integration of languages. Testimonios in this study are used as a method for gathering data.

1.8.10. Linguistic bullying in education: Linguistic bullying in education is my contribution to the body of literature that addresses language as a tool for oppression in education, such as in the case of discrimination among minority high school students (Rosenbloom, 2004), as a generator of shame when not able to understand academic concepts in the second language (Colosimo, 2006), and when speech and literacy skills are used to maintain social inequalities (Barlett,

2007). My findings also add to the body of research on recent immigrants schooling experiences (García & Barlett, 2007; García & Sylvan 2011; García Flores, & Chu, 2011; Mendoza-Denton, 2008; Orellana, 2001; Orellana & Reynolds, 2008; Valdés, 1998, 2010;), and to the literature that address bullying in education, that does not focus on language (Atlas & Pepler, 1998; Craig, Pepler, & Atlas 2000; Gumpel, Zioni-Koren & Bekerman, 2014).

In this study, and in the context of education with recent immigrants, this construct of linguistic bullying in education is used to identify and address the acts of linguistic aggression when, “a student is being bullied or victimized when he or she is exposed, repeatedly over time, to negative actions on the part of one or more other students” (Owleus, 2005, p. 9). Extending on Owleus’s (2005) influential definition of bullying in education, I add that bullying in this study is caused as a result of imbalance of power (Bakhtin, 1981). In this study, the imbalance of power occurred when linguistically advanced students harassed those students who were emergent bilinguals and were at the beginning stages of learning English. This imbalance of power can create a hostile environment for recent immigrants who are learning the new language, such as when students make fun of recent immigrants’ pronunciation, or when reluctant to help these students as assigned by the dual language teacher.

1.8.11 Language oppression: For this dissertation, this term is used to address language as a tool for oppressing (Bakhtin, 1981) recent immigrants when not able to understand academic instruction in the unknown language, English, and not receiving help from classmates or the teacher in their first language when attending dual immersion classes where separation of languages is a policy (Adelman Reyes, 2007; Collier & Thomas, 2004; Cummins, 2005; Lee et al., 2008). This incidence takes place in those academic spaces where the strict separation of languages is used as a pedagogical practice in the classrooms where recent immigrants’ first

language is not used as a tool for academically assisting them. Language oppression differs from linguistic bullying in the sense that language oppression is the systematic way of applying the separation of languages policy among students that are linguistically disadvantaged and have to work in cooperative groups with more advanced students assigned to help recent immigrants. In this event, the students assigned to help recent immigrants used language as tool of oppression when they refused to assist recent immigrants and mistreated them when needing their help in English. Language oppression refers to the stratification of language (Bakhtin, 1981) in the classroom, when the dominant language is at the top of a stratified system and minority languages are at the bottom and are devalued (Apple, 2004; Bakhtin, 1981; Heller, 1995). In this case, recent immigrants' classmates did not value recent immigrants' less developed second language and made fun of their abilities. This is when language becomes a tool of oppression.

1.9. Organization of the Study

1.9.1. Chapter 1

Chapter one has introduced the rationale for the title of this dissertation. This introductory chapter presented my testimonios as an immigrant woman, and as a bilingual teacher of emergent bilinguals attending ESL classes in this country. These experiences lead my interest on recent immigrants and language as a tool for keeping control over minorities. In this introductory chapter, I also presented the experiences that intrigued me, and helped me focus on the separation of languages as one more added stressor for some recent immigrants in this country, as in the case of Brianna and Julian (students who will be introduced in chapter 5). In addition, I have introduced the significance of the study, the research questions, and definitions of the key terms in this chapter.

1.9.2. Chapter 2

Chapter two presents the theoretical frameworks, LatCrit, Heteroglossia and dialogism to address the need for listening to the unheard voice of recent immigrants through testimonios, and to be able to analyze interactions of these students with the classmates in their groups. This section also provides the connection that exists among the aforementioned theories. As the background of this study, this chapter also presents a brief historical overview of immigration in the USA, and focuses on Mexican immigration from Ciudad Juárez in El Paso, Texas.

Chapter two, furthermore, addresses literature regarding the root of bilingual programs in the USA. The historical background presented serves as the context to understand the literature review. Here I review previous research on separation or integration of languages in education. I focus on dual language teaching as one of the academic programs that may separate languages for academic instruction.

I also reviewed literature on emotions in relation to second language acquisition. Emotions are framed from a cognitive psychology view that increased my knowledge, and research interest on the feelings that emergent bilinguals may experience when acquiring the second language under stressful or motivating environments where their first language takes an important role. Thus, this chapter also summarizes research that involves emergent bilinguals' schooling experiences. Finally, I discuss research in classrooms where academic instruction has been conducted through translanguaging. This last pedagogical tool was found to be an optional academic strategy to help overcome separation of languages in a variety of classrooms and programs.

1.9.3. Chapter 3

This chapter describes the setting of this study in the El Paso border region. This chapter explains the methodology as well; data collection procedures and analysis based on a Critical Ethnography. Under this methodology, testimonios provided by the participants are the discourses that revealed the diverse perceptions about the schooling experiences of emergent bilinguals. Participant observation, field notes, and audio recordings of focus groups and interviews were used to gather additional information regarding emergent bilinguals' schooling experiences attending classes that integrate or separate languages.

For the analysis of data I used Grounded Theory when doing early analysis of data, participant observations, and testimonios with recent immigrant students. Additionally, I did interviews with the participants' parents and teachers. In this 3rd chapter I explained how I did discourse analysis to interpret testimonios. Moreover, I did triangulation of data when connecting these discourses with my observations of students working in their group, as well as with the interviews with teachers and parents participating in this study.

1.9.4. Chapter 4

This chapter presents the results obtained from the cluster of data collected in a period of 5 months in an elementary school that is relevant to the emotional experiences of recent immigrants that attended classes where the teacher implemented the separation of languages in a flexible manner where translanguaging took place. In this chapter, it is intended to highlight the responses of a student (Patricia) through her testimonios about her feelings when attending her first year in the new school with Mr. Godina who used translanguaging strategies to teach students. In addition, other sources of data are used to show additional information regarding the emotional experiences of the participant students. Such data include participant observation,

interviews with the teachers, and an interview with Patricia's grandmother. This was with the aim to give the research trustworthiness.

1.9.5. Chapter 5

From the analysis of data gathered through participant observation, field notes and students' testimonios in the course of the focus groups, in this chapter I present the cases of Brianna and Julian (pseudonyms) that show how the separation of languages created a stressful environment when the recent immigrants were not able to understand what the lectures in their second language were about. In this chapter, moreover, I show the participants' feelings of embarrassment. I encountered these findings through the participant students' drawings and writing samples in their agendas, and when doing participant observation in the dual language immersion classroom. In addition, this 5th chapter shows the teacher's perception of language policy, and the way it was practiced. Students' advice for teachers when teaching recent immigrants is also presented.

1.9.6. Chapter 6

This chapter reveals findings in regards to bullying against recent immigrants in dual language classrooms. Such aggressive behaviors were found in repeated occasions with two 5th grade recent immigrant participants. The findings were drawn from these students' testimonios of which include the expression in their drawings and written statements recorded in their agendas. The participant students shared their experiences orally in focus groups. These experiences were about their new schooling in academic environments where separation of languages was at work, or when teachers used translanguaging practices to teach recent immigrants.

1.9.7. Chapter 7

In this chapter I have presented the conclusions based on the research findings. This ending chapter summarizes the emotional impact of policies such as separation and integration of languages in academic environments where the first language was excluded from academic instruction in a strict or flexible manner when teaching recent immigrants. I have also presented the limitations of this research and the implications of the findings.

Chapter 2

“People experiencing positive and negative emotions have different motivations. They process information differently as a result, and these differences affect memory”

Levine and Pizarro, 2004, p. 542

2.1 Introduction

This chapter begins by presenting the theoretical frameworks that this proposal draws from. The chapter provides a review of literature relevant to the affective factors of recent immigrants attending immersion classes in the United States, and frames the emotional impact on these emergent bilinguals as a result of the separation or integration of languages practiced within academic instruction in this country. The theoretical framework in this proposal involves LatCrit to address issues that involve oppression among people of color whose voice is silenced by a dominant voice.

The theoretical framework also addresses aspects of heteroglossia and dialogism from Bakhtin’s (1981) ideas to explore the interactions of recent immigrants with their classmates in their classroom when working cooperatively. Using heteroglossia and dialogism as a theoretical framework facilitated exploring the ways in which recent immigrants worked in their groups, such as using their entire repertoires, including Spanish and English, in order to assist each other. Bakhtin’s ideas of dialogism are useful for the analysis of the participating students’ critical points of view based on their schooling experiences. In this particular case through testimonios, recent immigrants expressed their feelings and their points of view regarding their experiences when attending classes where the teacher separated their first from the second language. It was intended to document and analyze the aforementioned experiences where separation of languages is part of the curriculum. It was also important to analyze documented experiences

when recent immigrants attended classes where the teacher integrates languages in dual language instruction. This was with the purpose to see how these two pedagogies affected recent immigrants in their new schooling experiences.

Following the theoretical frameworks, the literature review is presented. This section begins with an introduction of the main topic that involves recent immigrants, their background and the beginning of hegemony through language control to keep dominance in education among minorities. I include research that reveals the experiences of emergent bilinguals (EBs) when attending classes where language is separated or included (translanguaging) for academic instruction, their feelings and perceptions. Cooperative learning (Kagan, 1995), also known as self-regulated learning (Windstead, 2013) is presented as an effective pedagogy to teach emergent bilinguals, and as an important strategy applied within a dual language program. Furthermore, translanguaging is offered as the pedagogy that helps integrate diversity of language in the classrooms.

Additionally, this literature review presents the gaps found among the presented research. Most research focuses on the effectiveness of the dual language instruction, but has neglected to investigate about the affective experiences of recent immigrants attending dual immersion classes where the teacher excludes or includes language as a tool for academic instruction. The literature review is presented from four perspectives: anthropology, sociology, pedagogy, and cognitive psychology. Work on dual language immersion, bilingualism, and affective factors span all of these disciplines. Therefore, I found that research in the aforementioned disciplines is complementary to my study and reinforced my research interest.

The anthropological and pedagogical lenses reveal the new schooling experiences of emergent bilinguals. In particular, anthropology and sociology address culture and identity

struggle. The pedagogical perspective addresses the bilingual paradigms that are subtractive or additive, the root of hegemony as the tool for keeping dominance among non-dominant cultures in education, and the optional paradigm to overcome the separation of languages, translanguaging. Finally, cognitive psychology shows how negative or positive emotions can take an important role in second language acquisition.

2.2 Theoretical Frameworks

I draw from the use of testimonios as a genre for giving voice to the oppressed, as used by Latina/o Critical Race Theory (LatCrit) for developing this proposal. LatCrit is an extension of CRT (Critical Race Theory) that adopts the use of testimonios as the method that enables the researcher to show the voice of the people of color that are being oppressed. Pérez-Huber (2009) explains that testimonios can lead to the best understanding of people of color and their experiences in education because of the contextualization of the individual within the collective. Delgado-Bernal, Burciaga, and Flores (2012) explain that the use of testimonios, as used by LatCrit, is a methodological approach that involves “political, social, historical, and cultural histories that accompany one’s life experiences” (p. 364). This dissertation is based on the use of testimonios as a tool for facilitating recent immigrants to show their voice, the voice that has been unheard, and as a tool for gaining rapport with the participants.

I also draw from Bakhtin’s (1981) theory of heteroglossia and dialogism to address pedagogical practices where first and second language are included, in addition to the diverse utterances for free academic expressions in the classrooms, such as in the case of translanguaging. Furthermore, drawing from Bakhtin’s ideas of dialogism in the context of this study, I also argue that when the teachers separate first from second language in a strict manner, as a required practice in a dual immersion model, they are minimizing the dialogue that could

take place between teachers and recent immigrants which can generate more stress on these students and can negatively affect their learning (Levine & Edelstein, 2009; Levine & Pizarro, 2004; Ozanska-Ponikwia, 2011). It is when centrifugal forces (minority languages) and centripetal forces (official language, English) collide and can create tension within teachers and students. That is to say when teachers follow the policy of separation of languages and do not include students' first language into the academic instruction. This policing, as posited by Matusov et al (2015), interrupts the dialogism in the classroom. According to Matusov (2015), "policing can be prioritized over education at times. Teachers may have strong commitment to their own values of protecting societal oppressed minorities" (p. E15). In this context, the lack of a comprehensive communication within teachers and recent immigrant students due to the strict separation of languages policy can cause a sense of sadness and stress on recent immigrants who cannot understand what the lectures are about when the academic instruction is in English, as in the cases of Julian and Brianna (presented in chapter 5). Additionally, in this investigation, testimonios are a form of dialogism where the participant students are able to express their own point of view about their new academic experiences when immersed in the second language in a strict or flexible manner (addressed in chapters 4 - 6).

2.2.1 LatCrit and Critical Race Theory (CRT)

LatCrit is a branch of Critical Race Theory (CRT), and both theories share some similarities. A remarkable similarity between CRT and LatCrit is based on the fact that the two theories challenge dominant ideologies that oppress people who are minoritized (Pérez-Huber, 2012; Solórzano & Delgado Bernal, 2001). CRT and LatCrit are subgroups of the CLS (Critical Legal Studies) but founded from different perspectives. Pérez-Huber et al. (2012) highlight the fact that CRT overturned the governing ideologies that were rooted in educational theory and its

practices. Such ideologies shape the perception of the educational experiences, conditions, and outcomes of people of color through narrative (Pérez-Huber & Cueva, 2012; Smith-Maddox & Solórzano, 2002; Yosso, 2006). CRT in the 1980s grew out of legal theory (CLS) as a result of a series of debates against CLS, and their failure to effectively address issues regarding race, and to embrace the integration of minoritized scholars into the legal studies (Bell, 2000, 2007; Hernandez-Truyol, 2007). CLS aroused during the Civil Rights movement in the 1960s with the aim to address racial issues, and to overturn the hierarchy of domination over society using the law (Bell, 1995; Blalock 2014; Delgado, 1984).

Despite the similarity that exists between CRT and LatCrit, the difference is that LatCrit addresses issues that are being neglected by CRT; such as language, immigration, ethnicity, culture, identity, phenotype, and sexuality (García, 1995; Pérez-Huber, 2010; Solórzano & Delgado Bernal, 2001; Valdés, 1996). LatCrit originated after a series of debates that took place in various CRT meetings, between the 1980s and early 1990s. The first formal meeting where LatCrit was considered a legal movement took place in San Juan Puerto Rico back in 1995 (LatCrit, 2013).

Referring to CRT, Cole (2009), Delgado-Bernal (1995) and Ladson-Billings (1995, 2006) address the importance of listening to the voice of those who have been discriminated against. Delgado-Bernal (1995) argues that the voice of people of color has to be heard over the dominant one. The author adds that people of color's stories come from different frames of reference. Ladson- Billings (2006) agrees advocating in favor of listening to minority voices, which traditional scholars have not listened to. Ladson-Billings points out that CRT researchers are not making up the stories they present through their work, but are contributing to the

construction of narratives “out of the historical, sociocultural and political realities of their lives and those people of color” (Ladson- Billings, 2006, p. xi).

Ladson-Billings and Tate (2006) affirm that the voice of people of color is crucial for thoroughly analyzing the educational system (p. 58). Ladson-Billings and Tate reveal that people of color’s voices are silenced. The authors point out that the authentic voices of people of color are the teachers, parents, and administrators. Similarly, Cole (2009) argues that in order to make connections between CRT and education, “we need to give voice to people of color” (p. 49). In this dissertation, it was intended to listen and document the voices of recent immigrants through testimonios regards their new experiences in US schools.

As a researcher, I act as an advocate in favor of listening to those voices, the voices of those who are been oppressed in a stratified system where a dominant language is at the top and non-dominant languages are at the bottom, as Bakhtin (1981) explains. Those voices are revealed in this dissertation and show recent immigrants’ experiences and feelings towards the strict separation of languages and the inclusion of languages through translanguaging practices.

LatCrit specifically adopts the use of testimonios as the method for giving voice to people of color that are being oppressed. Pérez-Huber (2009) explains that testimonios, when used as a methodology, can lead to the best understanding of people of color and their experiences in education. Delgado-Bernal, Burciaga, and Flores (2012) explain that the use of testimonios, as used by LatCrit, is a methodological approach that involves “political, social, historical, and cultural histories that accompany one’s life experiences” (p. 364) as a way to foster changes through ideological consciousness, and make a change in society.

Cervantes-Soon (2011) who conducted a study in Ciudad Juárez, Mexico, uses LatCrit as a theoretical framework and testimonios as a methodology to elicit the voices of the participants,

two high school girls. The participants of this study were given the opportunity to express their experiences through testimonios which offered their struggle for freedom and dignity in a culture that marginalizes women. Cervantes-Soon used testimonios as a methodology not only to gather data, but also to build up a sense of rapport between participants and teachers. According to Cervantes-Soon (2011). “by sharing their experiences, their joys, and their pain, teachers gave students the message that their relationships with their students were valuable to them” (p. 53).

Prieto and Villenas (2012) also used testimonios as a methodology and as a tool for gathering data. The purpose of their study was to share their own experiences as teachers of pre-service teachers in predominantly white educational institutions. Prieto and Villenas, through their testimonies, show not only their life experiences with student-teachers that were mainly white, but also share the disconnection experienced between the school environments and their home environment. Through their testimonios, they were able to express their emotions and to analyze each other’s discourses. Prieto and Villenas shared their voices through their experiences participating in their own study, and through the interpretation and analysis as researchers. According to Prieto and Villenas (2012), “noticing the emotion in our voices as we recalled such painful incidents and the blatant disregard and disrespect displayed by white students towards us, our issues and our people” (p. 420). The authors reveal their feelings through their own testimonios when able to experience teaching in a community where they felt like outsiders. Their cultural background was not the same as the pre-service teachers who were mainly white, and students attending classes imparted by the researchers. They were able to analyze their emotions when listening to each other’s voices through their testimonios.

Similar to Cervantes-Soon (2011), Prieto and Villenas (2012) saw the use of testimonios not only as the most suitable methodology to show the voice of the oppressed, but also as a way

to gain and reveal personal consciousness of such oppression when the participants are able to express their similar experiences with others. Through the use of testimonios in this study, LatCrit was essential to give voice to those students who are being oppressed through the imposition of a dominant language and restriction of their first language in the classroom. Through the use of testimonios, recent immigrants were able to show their perception of academic environments based on their schooling experiences in the new academic context. The testimonios collected are the voices of those students that were given the opportunity to show their story from a different lens, the frame of reference of the oppressed, leaving behind the voice of the oppressor.

2.2.2 Theory of Heteroglossia and Dialogism

Dimitriadis and Kamberelis (2006) and Morris (1994) address Bakhtin's (1981) ideas of heteroglossia and dialogism as an overview of the main concepts involved with the two theories. Dimitriadis and Kamberelis (2006) highlight the fact that heteroglossia and polyphony are important characteristics of dialogism. The authors point out that dialogism is the most important theoretical construct of Bakhtin where the central focus is language.

Dialogism corresponds to the representation of the multiple voices (polyphony) as in a novel; the focus of Bakhtin (1981). A novel is a literary genre known as one of the utterances that represent language in words. The concept of polyphony in Bakhtin (1981) signifies multiple voices. This term is borrowed from musical terminology (Bakhtin, 1981; Robinson, 2011) and represents Bakhtin's ideas of dialogism where polyphony takes place when not only one voice is heard, but multiple and diverse voices are interacting in a dialogue. In this study, I address the research questions with the use of dialogism and heteroglossia to uncover the interaction of multiple voices in the classrooms including recent immigrants and the teacher. I see Bakhtin's

example of a novel as a community in the classroom where all the voices are part of one academic interaction within students and the teacher.

According to Morris, (1994), “the central focus of Bakhtin’s theory of dialogism is language. A secondary focus is the human subject as unfinalizable complex of identities, desires, and voices. With respect to language, Bakhtin claimed that all discourses – literature, everyday talk, military commands, and so on – are dialogic, a complex amalgam of multiple voice” (p. 51). Dialogism, in other words is the space where heteroglossia takes place and represent discourse in different social or cultural contexts (genres). According to Dimitriadis, and Kamberelis (2006) “heteroglossia is a complex mixture of languages and world views that is always dialogized, as each language is viewed from the perspective of the others” (p. 51).

In Bakhtin’s (1981) words, “as a living, socio-ideological thing, as heteroglot opinion, language, for the individual consciousness, lies on the borderline between oneself and the other. The word in language is half someone else’s. It becomes ‘one’s own’ only when the speaker populates it with his own intention” (p. 293). It is when dialogism takes place where multiple voices (centrifugal forces) interact with one another. Multiple voices are in opposition to a single voice which represents a centripetal force that is “put to use by any dominant social group to impose its own monologic, unitary perception of truth” (Dimitriadis & Kamberelis, 2006, p. 15).

In this study English language, its ideologies and practices is a centripetal force due to the fact that this language dominates Spanish language. In this dissertation in a heteroglossic environment where translanguaging takes place, centrifugal (Spanish, the minority language) and centripetal (English, the dominant language) forces interact with one another in an environment where the teacher implements separation of languages (centripetal forces) in a monolingual environment where English dominates.

Bakhtin's theoretical frameworks are also the base of this dissertation and involve discourse for allowing the participants reveal their own perceptions and "particular points of view on the world" (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 293). In this study students were able to show their points of view about separation of language based on their schooling experiences in the new classroom. Using Bakhtin's ideas, I am including the word as an utterance for free expression (discourse).

Discourse through testimonios in this study are the outcome of social languages, the voice of the oppressed that reveal their truth from a different frame of reference in opposition to the monologic, single voice put by the dominant social group. This new context represents the bilingual community in the United States where recent immigrants bring with them their own culture and language, and confront the socialization, "social languages" as posited by Bakhtin (1981) where Spanish and English interact with one another (centrifugal forces), despite the fact that centripetal forces are at work through separation of languages as mentioned before.

Bakhtin, referring to heteroglossia explains that each language is a unique and important part of a social language. In order to conceptualize one's particular point of view, Bakhtin explains, it is necessary to use words. The theorist presents the creation of a novel as a creative way to show an example of social heteroglossia where all the created characters and their particular social languages are part of one language, and it is presented in a literary form. From Bakhtin's ideas, I argue that translanguaging in a classroom is an example of social heteroglossia addressed by Bakhtin but in a different context; especially in the context where recent immigrants with diverse cultures also bring diversity of languages to the classrooms. This theoretical framework is very important for this dissertation due to the fact that I did participant observation to be able to see students interacting with each other when using first, second

language, and other utterances to communicate with each other while learning in an educational and social community.

Using Bakhtin's ideas of dialogism where expression is at work and through the use of testimonios as a method for gathering data as used by LatCrit, the participants of this study were able to express their feelings when attending those academic spaces where translanguaging (dialogism and heteroglossia) is practiced, as mentioned before. In this study the schooling experiences that involve translanguaging were documented and analyzed, as well as the schooling experiences of recent immigrant students that attended academic spaces where separation of languages took place. This is with the aim to reveal the impact of these two pedagogies on recent immigrants who use their own voice through their testimonios to share their new academic experiences.

My assumption was that the two diverse academic spaces create different emotionality among students; especially when they are recently coming from a different country, such as in the case of Mexican immigrants that have to face the segregation or integration of their language. I also argue that such emotionality can affect this population of students in the process of acquiring the second language. Therefore, this study focus on language as a tool for keeping hegemony over minorities such as with recent immigrants who face the challenge of attending classes that separate the first from the second language.

Bakhtin (1981) referring to the centralization of language as a hegemonic practice, explains that stratification of language is rooted in the dominant ideology where the dominant language attempts to terminate language plurality. According to Bakhtin (1981), language centralization takes place as a result of "the victory of one reigning language (dialect) over the others, the supplanting of languages, their enslavement, the process of illuminating them with the

true word, the incorporation of barbarians, and lower social strata into a unitary language of culture and truth” (p. 271). In other words, language centralization takes place when the hegemonic language is placed above all minority languages, and leads to a stratified system where the languages below the one in power are devalued

Making a connection with Bathkin’s (1981) ideas regarding language and cultural practices as hegemony and the literature reviewed, I have found translanguaging and testimonios as expressions of heteroglossia, “a complex mixture of languages and world views that is always dialogized, as each language is viewed from the perspective of the others” (p. 51) Heteroglossia for Bakhtin (1981) is, “the base condition governing the operation of meaning in any utterance. It is that which insures the primacy of context over text. At any given time, in any given place, there will be a set of conditions- social historical, meteorological, physiological- that will insure that a word uttered in that place and at that time will have meaning different that it would have under any other conditions” (p. 428). Bakhtin (1981) further frames heteroglossia as necessary to accomplishing linguistic consciousness. Translanguaging not only allows the use of diverse utterances for establishing academic dialogism, but also facilitates the interaction of centripetal and centrifugal forces where the official language, English, collides with other languages (minority languages).

Giltrow (2003) uses Bakhtin’s ideas of verbal-ideological consciousness and defines it as the, “speakers’ awareness of their own speech in relation to others’ and in relation to the operation of centralizing system” (p. 363). I found translanguaging, in particular, to be the optimal academic strategy to overcome “hegemony of myth over language as well as the hegemony of language over the perception and conceptualization of reality” (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 369), and to accomplish “verbal-ideological decentering... when national culture loses its sealed-

off and self-sufficient character, when it becomes conscious of itself as only one among other cultures and languages” (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 370).

In this study, the analysis of translanguaging practices as a flexible approach to separation of languages, and testimonios as tools for free expression when the strict and flexible separation of language are practiced by the teachers, revealed the reality of recent immigrant students whose language is minimized as a result of language dominance, or when their language is included for curriculum instruction. This dissertation may help appreciate how a partially monolingualistic environments, even in a dual language program, can affect recent immigrants’ attitude towards second language acquisition, in comparison to those academic environments that welcome the use of diverse languages where the official language and diverse dialects collide (heteroglossia).

Ethnographies of language and socialization have been implemented in educational and social identity contexts using Bakhtin’s (1981) ideas of heteroglossia, and dialogism as a theoretical frame to help understand the application of opportunities for students to express their own point of view of the world (Cohen, 2009; Cuenca, 2011; Neverow-Turk, 1986). Alexander Cuenca (2011) mentions Bakhtin (1981, 2004) to address dialogic pedagogy as a way to help strengthen students’ voices during Social Studies discussions in the classroom. As Cuenca (2011) mentions, when implementing this approach, Social Studies teachers are able to create a dialogical environment among students, and students are able to use their critical thinking through the dialog. Cuenca (2011) refers to Dewey (1976) to talk about creative democracy as a life style that develops within dialogues. Students learn to show their own voice, which help them become good citizens when able to listen to others’ point of view.

Neverow-Turk and Turk (1986) present a pedagogic model for teachers to follow when teaching beginning writers. Based on Bakhtin's theories of dialogism, along with notions of collaborative learning, the authors designed their model to encourage dialogism and heteroglossia in the classroom. Neverow-Turk and Turk (1986) mention that when applying their social model for developing writing skills, students were able to take responsibility of their own learning when interacting and sharing their point of view on the chosen idealistic literature that provides opportunities to play with ideas that are culturally based. Finally, Cohen (2009) applies Bakhtin's (1981) dialogism and heteroglossia theories in a study that involves preschool children in a school in New York. The purpose was to investigate how the preschoolers could appropriate the diverse social/cultural roles and rules when the teacher assigned students to pretend play different social positions and "use a variety of 'voices' in role enactment" (p. 331). Cohen (2009) demonstrates how students were able to enter in a heteroglossic world, and were able to employ diverse ways of communicating. Students were also able to pretend/adopt an authoritative and persuasive discourse, according to their imagined social/cultural position.

Skinner and Holland (2001) use Bakhtin's ideas of heteroglossia, voice, utterance and dialogism to investigate the relations that exist between the social and personal developmental stages of human beings, and identities of human beings through the analysis of narratives. The authors conducted an ethnographic study of Nepali adolescents that took place in a rural community in Nepal as an example of self-narrative. Through discourse analysis, the authors show the participants' voices that involved their social and cultural worlds. Skinner and Holland presented their results adopting Bakhtin's ideas not only as a theoretical frame, but also as a method that helped the researchers to analyze and understand the voices of their participants within their narratives. According to Skinner and Holland (2001) "narratives are externalized,

multi voiced utterances that originate from the author's internalization of past and imagined dialogues and encounters in the social world" (p. 17). In this study, testimonies as part of the narrative genre were also planned to be used for allowing my participants to externalize their voices which could reveal the connections of their social and cultural worlds as part of their previous and recent experiences in an academic context.

Skinner and Holland, (2001) based on Bakhtin's ideas of hegemony within society and culture, address social and language stratum affirming that this is particularly associated with diverse social groups. The authors claim that such social groups, "are not equal in power, prestige or authority" (p. 17). The authors add that there are authoritative voices within society (hegemony), and highlight the fact that "in any society, there are counter-hegemonic voices that threaten to weaken and subvert more authoritative ones" (Skinner & Holland, 2001, p. 17). The authors agree with the idea that characterizes language as "heteroglossic." This means that language is collected based on a combination of social languages. Some of those languages are involved in resistance and struggle, as Skinner and Holland (2001) explain. This idea is crucial when intending to apply the critical ethnography designed for my study. Through the analysis of testimonios, I was able to reveal my participants' voices based on their social and cultural experiences in an academic context where language is used to keep hegemony (language as a power), or to decenter power over minorities through the inclusion of languages in an academic context (translanguaging).

The purpose of analyzing their testimonios is to give voice to oppositional stories, taking into consideration that, when a voice is unheard, it is because a dominant voice is dominating the oppressed one, as argued by Coffey and Atkinson (1996). Coffey and Atkinson (1996) reveal that stories can be used to make dominant voices stronger and trustworthy or they can be adopted

to “give voices” to those who are being silenced. In this case, the voice of the silenced group corresponds to recent immigrants in the US regarding their schooling experiences and the affective impact of policies and practices of separation or integration of language in the classrooms. Jaworski and Coupland (2001) point out that narrative analysis is an important tradition within discourse analysis. The authors highlight the fact that it is, “through narrative discourse that we comprehend the world and present our understanding of it to others” (Jaworski & Coupland, 2001, p. 34). In this study I use testimonios, and narrative discourse to facilitate recent immigrants to show their voice and to make sense of their schooling experiences within separation or integration of languages in American education.

2.3 Mexicans in the USA: Anti-immigrant Sentiments and Language Policy

Durand (1998) focuses on Mexican immigration and points out how the new immigration reform, the 1965 Immigration Act, impacted migration into the United States. Durand’s argument is consistent with Thomson (2004) and Galindo, (2011) who explain that this immigration reform brought anti-immigrant sentiments among Europeans settled in American land. Durand explains that the IRCA (Immigration Reform and Control Act), approved by President Ronald Reagan, changed the legal status of Mexican immigrants that legally entered into the United States to work (p 211). According to Chishti, Meissener, and Bergeron (2011), “the IRCA ushered in the most far reaching changes in immigration law since the passage of the 1965 immigration and Nationality Act.” The authors add that the main goal was to “increase border security.” However, in the attempt to establish border security in this country, the US government permitted a massive number of non-European immigrants into the United States. Brick, Challinor, and Roseblum (2011) mention how such immigration trends changed the demographics of immigration in the United States. The authors also highlight the fact that

Mexican immigrants are the larger group in the United States. According to Brick et al. (2011), “about 11.5 million of the 38.5 million total” are immigrants coming to the United States from Mexico” (p 4). Such demographic changes contributed to the high concentration of Mexican immigrants in the US, especially in the USA-Mexico border areas, such as in El Paso, Texas.

The addressed demographic changes created anti-immigrant sentiments among Europeans in American land (Galindo, 2011; Jaret, 1999) that were reflected in education among recent immigrant children (Stewart, 1993) through language policies that intended to “unify” the nation through Americanization among immigrants. According to Galindo (2011), “one specific response to this fear was the Americanization movement that addressed social issues presented by mass immigration from Europe by means of educational programs for adults and children that across time became narrowly focused on a coercive assimilation as the means to achieve cultural and linguistic uniformity in the nation” (p 325). Over time, the use of language and culture for maintaining control in the educational domain is a powerful tool for maintaining hegemony, the imposition of a dominant culture over Others (Apple, 2004).

In turn, immigrants in general, have educational needs that have to be reached through the inclusion of their culture into the pedagogical practices (Cornfield & Arzubaiaga, 2004, p 160). However, dominant language policies are still present in these contemporary times where globalization has increased the flow of immigration in the United States and the need to recognize and use of multilingualism as a pedagogical tool in US schools has been raised (Canagrajah, 2005; Honberger & Link, 2012;). Such policies, as Apple (2004) and Heller (1994) explain, are being imposed as a way to keep dominance over society. Dominant language policies include the strict separation of languages, which is based on monolingualistic ideas where

English continue to be the dominant language (Canagrajah, 2005, 2012; Heller, 1995; Honberger & Link, 2012; Joseph & Ramani, 2012; Kubota, 2008).

2.4 Recent Immigrants from Ciudad Juárez

In the last decade, violence is increasingly taking place in the southwestern US border, Ciudad Juárez and El Paso, Texas (Campbell, 2010; CONAVIM, 2009; Escalante, 2011; Miller, 2009; Staudt & Mendez, 2015). From this unfortunate reality, new waves of immigration are coming to the United States; especially in the El Paso, Texas region near Ciudad Juárez that has globally been the center of attention for its high incidence of violence (CONAVIM, 2009; Staudt & Mendez, 2015). I refer to such violence as an act of “dehumanization,” as used by Freire (1967) who talks about diverse forms of oppression. Freire talks about humanization as the vocation of all human beings. He states that when such vocation is violated by oppression, this can be deprived and dehumanization takes over, or continues invading human efforts to survive. The author also mentions that such dehumanization violates humans’ right to be fully human. The author mentions that oppression among the oppressed can be present in the form of injustice, exploitation, and violence from the oppressors (1).

Freire’s ideas weave into the CRT/LatCrit theories that advocate in favor of those who have been oppressed through the imposition of white supremacy or hegemony. In particular, in this study is argued that language is used as a tool for oppressing emergent bilinguals when minimizing the use of the first language and imposing the dominant language, which in this case is English. Freire addresses the need for reaching consciousness of oppression, in order to exercise “praxis,” to reach freedom. Bakhtin (1981) not only addresses consciousness as a way to recognize that one is being oppressed, but focuses on language and relates to such consciousness as “linguistic consciousness” (Giltrow, 2003. p. 363). According to Giltrow (2003), linguistic

consciousness refers to, “speakers' awareness of their own speech in relation to others' and in relation to the operation of centralizing system” (p. 363). Giltrow relates to what Bakhtin calls “verbal-ideological consciousness” (1981, p. 342). LatCrit, with the use of testimonios as a way to show the oppressed’ voices is connected to Freire (1967) and Bakhtin (1981) since both theorists address the oppressed based on hegemony and suggest consciousness as the starting point towards freedom from oppression.

As a result of the addressed violence in Mexico, new forced waves of immigration are entering in the United States. CONAVIM (2009) (Comisión Nacional Para Prevenir y Erradicar la Violencia Contra las Mujeres), an academic journal promoted by SEGOB (Secretaria de Gobernacion, Mexico) in association with UNAM (National University Autonomous of Mexico), reveals that from 2007 to 2009, from approximately 230,000 people moving away from Ciudad Juárez as a result of insecurity and violence, 24% immigrated to El Paso, Texas. According to CONAVIM (2009), from 2007 to 2009, “about 55,000 people migrated from Juárez to El Paso, Texas” (p. 74). CONAVIM also reveals that the other 76% of people moving away from Ciudad Juárez emigrated to Durango, Coahuila, and Veracruz. At tha time, Ciudad Juárez was considered the most violent city in the whole world (CONAVIM, 2009; El Universal, 2010).

Excelsior (2011), Campbell (2010), CONAVIM (2009), and Staudt and Mendez (2015) corroborated the abovementioned statement regarding Juárez as the most violent city adding that from 2008 to 2010, Juárez maintained the first position in violence worldwide. Excelsior, a Mexican newspaper, revealed that in 2011, Acapulco, Guerrero, in Mexico became the most violent city in the world. Nonetheless, the fact that Ciudad Juárez was found to be the most violent city from 2008 to 2010, has left a sense of insecurity, less people to reside in the Mexican side of the Ciudad Juárez – El Paso border, and an increase in the number of recent immigrants

in El Paso, Texas (Census, 2011). According to the U.S. Census (2011), from 2007 to 2011, the number of foreign-born immigrants in El Paso Texas has increased by 25%. These demographic changes influenced my decision to focus on the population of recent immigrants from Ciudad Juárez residing in El Paso, who attend two-way immersion classes in a range of two years, from 2011 to 2013.

Because of these demographic changes, schools in this transnational border have been receiving new immigrant students who must be accommodated into bilingual or monolingual classes, additive or subtractive. However, research has shown that, attending a new school in another country, learning a new language and succeeding academically are not easy tasks (Suarez-Orozco, Pimentel & Martin, 2009; Trueba & Zou, 1998; Zou, 1998). Recent immigrant children and teenage students who are attending classes struggle when confronting the challenge of acquiring the second language (Suarez-Orozco, Pimentel & Martin, 2009; Trueba & Zou, 1998). Moreover, some students also have to cope with trauma as a result of the misfortune of having experienced living in a country during times of crisis and insecurity.

Most immigrant children are placed in partially-monolingual or monolingual classrooms when they move to the US, depending on their parents' approval, and on the availability of the bilingual programs in each school. In the case of the participating school in this study recent immigrants had two options: to attend dual immersion classes, or to be placed in monolingual (English) classes. English only instruction for recent immigrants is a challenge that can make of their new academic experience one more stressor (Suarez Orozco 2009, Suarez Orozco & Suarez Orozco, 2009) that can negatively impact the process of language acquisition (Gardner & Lambert, 1959; Levine & Pizarro, 2004; Ozanska-Ponikwia, 2011).

2.5 The Bilingual Classrooms in US: Emergent Bilinguals' Schooling Experiences and Feelings

This section addresses relevant information when researching recent immigrants' schooling experiences. For example: the need for addressing traumatic experiences in US schools as a healing remedy, and the root of bilingual programs (additive or subtractive) that intend to overcome unequal access to education as an outcome of the Lau V. Nichols (1997) decision. In particular, this section presents two-way immersion classes as part of the context of this study. The separation of languages practiced in these immersion classrooms is also addressed as a way of cultural oppression that, even though it is not intentional, adds more stressors to recent immigrants' schooling experiences. In addition, this section also includes research about the schooling experiences of emergent bilinguals, and suggests translanguaging as one of the most effective paradigms to overcome the separation of languages that act as one more stressor for emergent bilinguals who have experienced traumatic situations.

2.5.1 The Bilingual Programs: Additive and Subtractive

Safe learning environments come from the setup of the classroom, the curriculum design, and the pedagogical models and applications by teachers. The teaching strategies are designed around the pedagogical approaches implemented by the teachers who follow the administration's framework that specifies the bilingual program to apply. In this case, when talking about language acquisition, it is necessary to talk about the bilingual programs that are designed to help emergent bilinguals acquire the second language and academic knowledge.

Lau v. Nichols (1997) decision regarded non-English-speaking Chinese children not having equal access to education in the US. When receiving academic instruction in English, these students were not able to understand academic instruction. The legal decision addressed

unequal education in American schools as a violation of Civil Rights. This legal case involved immigrant Chinese people in San Francisco, California, who claimed their children were not provided with an equal opportunity for education. Their children, emergent bilinguals, were immersed into segregated English only instruction and failed to succeed academically. The legal decision in favor of Lau was the starting point of bilingual education as a right for non-English speakers immigrating into this country. However, the Federal Court did not specify what type of bilingual programs would fit the academic needs of Emergent Bilinguals.

Lau Remedies were the guidelines for placing emergent bilinguals (EBs) into bilingual classes. Nevertheless, currently, the gap between the implementation of the most effective bilingual programs and the practice of bilingual education still exists since policies were not clearly stated as to define what programs would be best fit for EBs' needs for acquiring the second language. According to Crawford (1995), the Lau Remedies do not specify "how to identify and evaluate children with limited English skills, what instructional treatments would be appropriate, when children were ready for mainstream classrooms, and what professional standards teachers should meet" (p. 46).

As defined by Cummins (2008): bilingual education is the pedagogical model that allows students using "two or more languages of instruction at some point" in their schooling experiences" (xii). The bilingual programs are additive or subtractive (Lambert, 1974). The additive programs are the ones that maintain students' native language (Ramani & Joseph, 2012). On the other hand, the subtractive bilingual programs are those also called "transitional bilingual programs" (García & Barlett, 2007). While additive programs intend to maintain students' first language, as Ramani and Joseph (2012) highlight, transitional bilingual programs are designed with the goal to eliminate, progressively, the first language until the second becomes the

dominant language (Valenzuela, 1999). This idea comes from stipulations in the 1974 Bilingual Education Act that briefly addresses the maintenance of bilingual programs and goals. However, as García and Barlett (2007) mention that, “the Bilingual Education Act had narrowed the goal of bilingual education as the teaching of English to those who were “limited English Speakers” and explicitly promoted what was defined as transitional bilingual education (p. 2).

Subtractive bilingual education diminishes the first language and frames the English language as the dominant (Valenzuela, 1999). The notion of English language, as the dominant, comes from hegemonic ideas which keep control of minorities within the educational system, (Apple 2004), and was rooted, in part, from anti-immigrant sentiments experienced by European settlers, after the 1965 Immigration Reform Act (Galindo, 2011; Stewart, 1993). Nonetheless, the idea of immersion as a bilingual program comes from Lambert’s (1974) idea of additive bilingualism that was developed after the immersion bilingual education program implemented in Quebec (García & Sylvan, 2011). García and Sylvan explain that under the immersion program, “a child enters school with a first language (L1), a second language (L2) is added, and, as a result, the child becomes a speaker of both languages” (p 378).

2.5.2 Status quo in education

Language can be used as a tool for oppressing people (Bakhtin, 1981; Giltrow, 2003, and Heller, 1995). There is a clear relation between hegemony and the practices that take place in the classrooms (Apple, 2004). This is to maintain the status quo where one language dominates over the ones placed at the bottom of a stratified system (Bakhtin, 1981; Skinner & Holland, 2001). This dominance affects minorities when centralization of language devalues the non-dominant languages. In this dissertation, I argue that we have to hear the voices of those who are been oppressed (in this study recent immigrants) through the imposition of the dominant language

while minimizing the use of the first language. This is crucial in order to understand the story of those who are been silenced by the dominant discourse, and to know how to address their academic needs. Hegemonic practices of language control (Bakhtin, 1981; Giltrow, 2003; Heller, 1995) among minorities can be traumatic (Apple, 2004; Barlett, 2007; Colosimo & Xu, 2006). Such practices can have implications on recent immigrants' adaptation to the new academic environment, such as shown in chapter 5, and 6. Hegemony as a way to maintain the status quo through the application of language policies such as the separation of languages becomes part of the problem that shapes this dissertation.

Using Gramsci's theory of hegemony, Apple (2004) argues that maintaining the status quo is a way of keeping dominance in a stratified society. Such dominance is also known as symbolic violence and cultural dominance, as theorized by Bourdieu (1977, 1990). Bourdieu explains that dominant social groups establish a system to maintain relations of dominance in society. Hegemony is reflected in the education system and can serve as "a mechanism of cultural and economic preservation and distribution" (Apple, 2004, p 3). Apple points out that through the curriculum, cultural dominance can take place by hegemonic forces that control not only people, but also contribute to the control of meanings. According to Apple (2004), "control is exercised as well through the forms of meanings the school distributes. That is: "the formal corpus of school knowledge" can become a form of social and economic control" (Apple 2004, p. 61), as well as the control of curriculum design and methods of instruction. Apple mentions that teachers can become instruments to keep such dominance or to interrupt it. Dominance takes place when solely following the official curriculum as the main tool for designing pedagogical practices, and not considering what is best for students. Such practices are ways of oppression, according to Freire (2004). The author points out that when teachers are not conscious of such

oppression, they are falling into the category of oppressors. On the contrary, teachers may disrupt hegemonic practices through inclusive pedagogical practices, such as translanguaging or using funds of knowledge.

Freire (2004) refers to dehumanization as the vocation of all human beings. He states that dehumanization would take over after the oppressor deprives the oppressed from their vocation. Dehumanization, according to Freire (2004) is created “by injustice, exploitation, oppression, and the violence of the oppressor” (p. 1). Based on Freire’s work, McLaren (2007) refers to alienation as the estate when work loses its “purposefulness.” When teachers are alienated, they “will be mediated in the direction of the status quo” (Gitlin & Ornstein, 2007, p. 263). Knowing that teachers can contribute to oppression in the school system, and that they can be tools for maintaining the status quo, we have to detect some of the disguised forms of cultural dominance that are at work within the educational system. Teachers who prohibit the use of the students’ native language are examples of dehumanizing and oppressive practices that are at work towards preserving the status quo. These practices can make some teachers lose sight of the purpose of education.

2.6 Two-way Immersion Programs

A massive number of immigrants entered the United States from the 1800s, to the early 1900s (Blanton, 2004; Galindo, 2011; Jaret, 1999). In 1924, a new immigration reform opened the entrance to European countries only to the United States (Dobkin, 2009; Galindo, 2011; Thomson 2004). Native-born from European descent in the 1900s were concerned about the non-European immigrants who did not share the same culture, language and beliefs as them. This created anti-immigrant attitudes towards non-European immigrants (Banton, 2004; Galindo, 2011; Jaret, 1999; Park, 2011). As a way to control non-mainstream immigrants, the

Americanization period began, as well as the language policies to attack bilingual education (Blanton, 2004; Galindo, 2011,) that was taking place in the US, where languages other than English were “tolerated” in order to introduce non-European immigrants to English (Blanton, 1999, 2007). Overcoming restrictions of language usage among minorities in 1963, and as a result of the re-emergence of bilingual education (Thomas & Collier, 2012), the first two-way bilingual school that was officially recognized was the Coral Way Elementary School in Dale County, Florida (Blanton, 2004; Christian, 1996; Freeman, 1988; Potowski, 2007; Thomas & Collier, 2012). Teachers from Cuba who were proficient in academic Spanish and teachers who were proficient in English helped accomplishing the academic and oral immersion of students in the two languages (Blanton, 2004; Gomez, Freeman & Freeman, 2005; Potowski, 2007).

The dual language immersion programs, also known as two-way immersion are presented as an additive model to help students maintain their first language while acquiring the second (Christian, 1996; Collier & Thomas, 2004; Gomez, Freeman & Freeman, 2005; Thomas & Collier, 2012; Warhol, & Mayer, 2012). This particular type of immersion program, according to Warhol, & Mayer (2012), “presents an enrichment model of instruction rather than a remedial, transitional, or compensatory instructional model, as it is an additive bilingual environment in which students add a second language to their native language instead of replacing their native language with the second language” (p. 149).

Despite the fact that dual language immersion programs help on the development of biliteracy (Adelman Reyes, 2007;, Collier & Thomas, 2004; Cummins, 2005; Lee et al., 2008) for recent immigrants, the strict separation of languages and immersion to the second language can become one more stressor that can interfere with their cognitive development when increasing their negative emotional experiences (Gardner & Lambert, 1959; Levine and Pizarro,

2004; Ozanska-Ponikwia, 2011) especially when talking about the population of recent immigrant students that have experienced traumatic experiences in their past. When talking about recent immigrants, it is very important to understand that these students have to adapt to the new system, and still have to cope with their previous experiences that in many cases are “tragic and painful, that plays an important role in their adaptation to their new country” (Zhou, 1998, p. 4).

Izquierdo (2011) thoroughly explains the process that takes to become biliterate, and highlights the fact that two-way dual language instruction “has become an increasingly attractive option for school communities” (p.1). The goals of the two-way instruction are: dual literacy development (in the first and second language), high academic success, and appreciation of cultural diversity (Cummins, 2011; Izquierdo, 2011; Thomas & Collier, 2004 2012) implementing instruction in monolingual environments to reach the goal of becoming biliterate. However, I noticed that literature only focuses on the effectiveness of these programs. I also saw that the feelings expressed by recent immigrants when learning English were neglected. For this population of students, the separation of languages becomes one more added stressor to their schooling experiences that may slow down the process of second language acquisition.

2.6.1 Separation of languages

In a dual language program the separation of languages is a key component (Adelman Reyes, 2007; Collier & Thomas, 2004; Cummins, 2005; Lee et al., 2008). The main purpose of this pedagogical practice is for students to become bilingual (Lee et al., 2008, pp. 75-76). Collier and Thomas (2004) talk about the strategies implemented in these programs: “with no translation and no repeated lessons in the other language, separation of the two languages is a key component of this model” (Collier & Thomas, 2004, p 2). Cummins (2005) criticizes the rigidity

on language separation, and argues that even though the extensive usage of the target language is very important when applying a dual language immersion program, “it should not be implemented in a rigid or exclusionary manner” (p 18). Cummins refers to the strategies that are implemented in immersion classes where the teacher firmly maintains academic instruction using only the target language. Similarly, Lee, Hill-Bonnet, and Gillespie (2008) criticize language separation in dual language education and argue that this pedagogy is *artificial* and does not allow a natural development of bilingualism. Palmer, Mateus, Ramirez, and Henderson (2014) point out that research need to better guide teachers “for nurturing bilingualism, biculturalism, and biliteracy in their schools” (p. 758). The authors agree with the idea regarding the separation of languages not offering a natural development of bilingualism in dual language classrooms, as posited by Lee et al. (2008). Valdés (1997) also criticizes the separation of languages under dual language programs, and state that English speakers are the only ones exposed to a natural language interaction (in Spanish). The design of these programs is based on taking advantage of minority students, as argued by Valdés (1997), to help English speakers to become bilinguals. Palmer, et al. (2014) suggests that development on dynamic bilingualism develops in classrooms where teachers use both languages (i.e., translanguaging practices) and where they model and practice bilingual skills. Translanguaging is addressed later in this chapter.

Even though some of the recent immigrants are placed in bilingual classes that intend helping them develop second language using the first language as a tool for reaching the goal, separation of languages is a common feature that helps creating stressing academic environments for recent immigrants (Rumbaut, 2001; Suarez-Orozco et al., 2009; Zhou & Bankston, 1998). Such experiences may slow down the process of second language acquisition, even in the dual language programs which are the most effective programs for emergent bilinguals (Collier &

Thomas 2004, 2012; Izquierdo, 2011). In the bilingual model, 50/50 immersion addressed in this study, the academic environment becomes monolingual where half of the academic time is in English.

Adelman Reyes (2007) investigates separation of languages in dual language classrooms and explains that this approach is necessary to help students to achieve language proficiency in the two languages. The author points out that, students under dual immersion classes can use their first language to communicate with classmates, but the teacher can only communicate with them using the target language. Through the descriptions of interactions between second grade students in a dual immersion class, Adelman Reyes shows how throughout a science lesson students were able to work cooperatively using their first and second language; however, the teacher only responds to students using the target language, Spanish or English. As you read the interesting interaction among students in this article, you are able to perceive a sense of resistance among students when the teacher was not able to respond to students in their first language, when it was not the target language for academic instruction. The teacher pretended she was not able to understand what the students were talking about, but used gestures to approve or disapprove students' comments using the target language.

Angelova (2007) addressed children's language choices with a first grade two-way dual language immersion class. Through observations and interviewing the participants, seven children attending this dual language class, the authors documented a sense of appropriation of language ideologies which is the base of these programs. Volk and Angelova (2007) use Martinez-Roldan and Malave (1998) to define the addressed language ideologies as the "beliefs and attitudes shared by individuals regarding the use of a particular language in both oral and written form in the context of power struggles among different groups" (p. 179).

Volk and Angelova (2007) show how the participants, some of them with Spanish as a first language and some with English as a first, were able to negotiate between the uses of languages following the practiced ideologies. Students appropriated the language ideologies that were at work in their classrooms. For example, Volk and Angelova explain how a first grade participant student who was proficient in the two languages, when attending the class in English, spoke in Spanish to help a student that knew less English, and needed assistance. However, the student realized that she had to speak in English and communicate with all the students in the target language, even with those who speak both languages, and communicate most of the time in English. The authors' argument was in favor of the dual language programs to reach language competence in both languages. Under these dual language programs, the teachers have to be able to teach in a target language without mixing languages.

However, Valdés (1997) criticizes dual immersion programs. The author points out that these programs are designed to take advantage of minority students, and to help English speakers students become bilinguals. Valdés argues that under this academic instruction, English speakers are the ones who benefit from natural language interaction where students are exposed to the second language use. Based on observations in a dual immersion program in a community in California, Valdés (1997) was able to appreciate a sense of power on a participant called Andrew whose parents were Caucasians and part of the middle class. The author argues that for those parents, the dual immersion class was perfect to help their child “attain a position in society commensurate with their status and accomplishments” (Valdés, 1997, p. 17). While this program empowers the ones already in power over the powerless, this type of instruction mainly benefits English speakers.

Even though research shows evidence of the effectiveness of dual immersion programs, there is no research that shows the affective experiences of recent immigrants in this type of program, when not understanding instruction in the unknown language. When placed in these dual immersion classes, recent immigrants confront a new culture, the challenges of learning a second language, and become biliterate (Araujo & de la Piedra, 2013; de la Piedra & Araujo, 2012). This new experience becomes a stressor for these students when not able to understand academic instruction in the second language.

2.6.2 Cooperative learning

Dual language instruction requires the application of “self-regulated learning” (Windstead, 2013), or “peer teaching.” As addressed by Angelova (2008), this strategy helps constructing meaningful learning environments where students formed in small groups help each other in a target language. This approach is also known as, cooperative learning. Kagan (1995) explains that cooperative learning is the strategy that can help the ESL teacher foster comprehensive input for students’ interactions with one another in a natural manner. Kagan (1995) explains that “students to a large extent learn how to speak by speaking” (p. 3). The author highlights the importance of increasing the second language output for ESL students to acquire the second language, and adds that cooperative learning serves as a motivation for students since they are not afraid to ask or answer the right or wrong questions.

Slavin (1987) affirms the importance of this approach focusing on the subject of math and presents the effectiveness of this strategy in his study where students did excel in the subject when students were working in groups. Slavin (1987) defines cooperative learning as the “set of instructional methods in which students work in small, mixed-ability learning groups” (p. 8).

Under this approach, “students work together to maximize their own and each other learning” (Johnson and Johnson, 1999, p. 73).

Nonetheless, under this approach, language is used as a resource; (Gomez, Freeman & Freeman, 2005) orientation originally presented by Ruiz (1984) who posits that there are three orientations towards language: language as a problem, as a right, or as a resource. That said, I argue that even though in a dual language model cooperative learning is used as a resource when students work in groups, language may also be approached as a problem. The dual language program model generally requires isolating the languages to immerse students in both languages. This policy results in focusing on one, eliminating the use of the other during half of the academic time. When applied in a rigid manner, this practice creates tension among recent immigrants who are not able to understand academic instruction in the unknown language. From this view, I extend on Ruiz ideas stating that in a dual language classroom, language may be seen as a problem when the strict implementation of separation of languages creates a sense of frustration, sadness, and embarrassment among recent immigrants.

My position in this argument is not against the cooperative learning that, according to research is a very effective approach for learning (Johnson and Johnson, 1999; Kagan, 1995; Ruiz, 1984; Slavin, 1991; Tarim, 2009), but to advocate in favor of recent immigrants that are not able to understand what the lectures are about when explained in their second language (the strict separation of languages). My position is against the strict separation of languages that negatively affect recent immigrants. Most of the time, the academic assistance needed by these students is left to self-regulated learning in their groups. In a cooperative learning approach, “the teacher keeps the process under control, guiding them by means of providing materials, explaining, etc. when the students are in need of help” (Tarim, 2009, p. 326). In a dual language

class, recent immigrant students need to understand what the lectures are about, and need the academic help from the teacher in their first language too, besides the linguistic help from their peers in their group. Inclusion of both languages is perceived as a problem, and the strict separation of languages takes over generating more problems when causing negative emotional experiences among recent immigrants, such as in the case of Julian and Brianna addressed in chapter 5.

2.7 Affective Factors and Second Language Acquisition: A Cognitive Psychology View

English only instruction favors non-minorities, English dominant population (Cummins 2000), and can become an added stressor in the schooling experiences of recent immigrants that have to face new challenges when entering a new school. According to Suarez-Orozco (2009) “these stressors complicate immigrant students’ adjustments to the new school and community settings” (p. 713). Monolingualism also serves as a tool for controlling cultural practices, such as language usage (Apple, 2000; Bourdieu, 1977, 1982,; Honberger & Link, 2012). The idea of English only instruction as a generator of academic stressors that can act as inhibitors for language acquisition among recent immigrants is supported by Levine & Pizarro (2004) who argue that negative emotions can affect cognitive development. Levine and Pizarro (2004) argue that, “people experiencing positive and negative emotions have different motivations. They process information differently as a result, and these differences affect memory” (p. 542). The authors explain that the emotional state of people plays an important role on retrieving information. Levine and Edelstein (2009) explain that, “emotion or stress impairs memory for information that could be considered central” (p. 836).

As an example, Levine and Edelstein point out that, due to the experience of stressful situations, people tend to narrow their memory when comparing their retrieval of information to the information retrieved by those who experienced less stress. The authors address the cases in which soldiers were interviewed about their stressful situations during war. Levine et al reveal that soldiers going under more stressful situations were not able to remember the interviewer. On the other hand, soldiers with less stressful experiences were able to remember the person interviewing. Levine et al. (2009) highlight the fact that emotions are related to working memory. Using Baddeley and Logie (1999) Levine and Pizarro define working memory as, “the processes involved in the short-term maintenance, manipulation, and rehearsal of information. It serves as the gateway for long-term retention and retrieval” (p. 838). In sum, according to Levine and Pizarro (2004), and Levine and Edelstein (2009), emotional experiences affect the capacity to retain information.

Research reveals that people’s memories, based on their previous emotional experiences, “can be particularly reconstructed based on their current appraisal of events” (Levine & Pizarro, 2004, p. 533). Research evidence also shows that positive emotions such as happiness can work as a “highlighter” to recalling information when compared to negative emotions such as sadness or fear (Levine et al, 2006). This notion of positive emotions is consistent with Errante’s (1997) notion of creating safe learning environments to help children overcome unplanned negative experiences, such as when coming from insecure environments. In turn, motivation is very important in the acquisition of a second language (Gardner & Lambert, 1959; Ozanska-Ponikwia, 2011).

Gardner and Lambert (1959) also argue that when the learner of a second language interacts with other cultural group, the new “attitudes towards that particular group will at least

partly determine his success in learning the second language” (p. 267). It all depends on the learner’s previous cultural experiences, the recognition of other cultures (Ross & Wang, 2010), and on the teacher’s approach to help students feel safe when learning a second language (Ozanska-Ponikwia, 2011). According to Levine and Pizarro, (2004), “people experiencing positive and negative emotions have different motivations. They process information differently as a result and these differences affect memory” (p. 542).

These ideas are consistent with Ozanska-Ponikwia (2011) who also argues that learning a second language brings a different sense of emotionality which can make it easier, or more difficult when acquiring the second language. This depends on the attitudes adopted when switching languages, as well as “cultural scripts, frames of expectation, autobiographic memories, and levels of proficiency and emotionality” (Ozanska-Ponikwia, 2011, p. 217). This means that acquiring the second language depends on students’ cultural practices, their previous experiences, and affective factors such as personality and levels of emotions. This argument supports the idea of using cultural practices such as first language and previous knowledge for creating a welcoming academic environment for recent immigrants, rather than restricting the use of students’ resources for learning (including language) and limiting students’ academic development. Emotions in relation to second language acquisition in this review refer to the influence of previous and prevalent emotional experiences that may affect the process of becoming bilingual (Levine & Pizarro, 2004; Oatley et al., 2011, Ozanska-Ponikwia, 2011; Pavlenko, 2006). Cognitive Psychology is the field that provides information about the process that takes to develop cognitive tasks, such as retrieval of information for second language acquisition. Such processes are closely related to external factors, for example previous or prevalent emotional experiences that can work as stimulus or inhibitors in the cognitive process

that takes to acquire a second language (Levine & Pizarro, 2004; Ozanska-Ponikwia, 2011; Pavlenko, 2006). For example, the limbic system that regulates language and emotions is also connected to the executive functions that regulate working memory (Baddeley, 1996). Executive functions are not interconnected to a particular area, for instance, memory language or perception (Ward, 2011). The specific role of executive functions is metacognitive to supervise and control cognitive development in general which also includes decision making (Ward, 2011, p. 311). Nonetheless, executive functions are closely related to working memory (Baddeley, 1996) that serves as “a system for the temporary storage and manipulation of information” (Ward, 2011, p 183). In sum, executive functions control cognitive development (Baddely, 1986; Ward, 2011). Additionally, cognitive development, as mentioned by Albutabeli (2012) includes language production which is closely related to emotions, regulated by the limbic system (Ward, 2011). From the cognitive psychology view, emotional process cannot be separated from the cognitive development including language acquisition.

This study addresses the gap in research literature on the emotions of recent immigrants learning a second language, highlighting their perspectives through their own testimonios. This is with the purpose to document students’ schooling experiences using their own voice, feelings and perceptions about the new school when confronting the challenge of acquiring the second language in academic environments that separate or integrate languages as part of academic instruction.

From observing dual language classes, I noticed that some teachers under this model do not practice separation of languages in a rigid manner. Some teachers use translanguaging to teach students, where first language and second language are integrated for academic instruction. It is important to mention that either translanguaging or a strict separation of language are not

merely taking place when applying such effective models. These experiences can take place in any monolingual or bilingual academic setup where separation of languages is practiced.

However, this study is focused on a two-way immersion context due to the fact that there are few studies that focus on the emotions experienced by recent immigrants when attending two-way dual language classrooms. Those studies focus on academic success of the program, but not on the affective experiences of recent immigrants attending classes that segregate or integrate their first and second language.

2.8 Linguistic Bullying in Education

Bullying is recently becoming a focus for psychological investigation (Olweus, 1991; Pepler & Craig, 1995, 1998; Ziegler & Pepler, 1993). Bullying in schools has been getting the attention of researchers and school administrators in the last decades (Bouman, 2008; Camocesa, Goosens, Schevengel & Terwogt, 2003; Shapiro, 2008). School bullying is a concern that has been taking place among the public, not only in the US, but also in other countries such as Scandinavia (Owleus, 1997) Canada (Atlas & Pepler, 1998; Craig, Pepler, & Atlas, 2000), Australia (Bouman, 2006), the United Kingdom (Rivers et al., 2009), and Japan (Craig, Pepler, & Atlas, 2000).

One of the most recognized pioneers in psychology for exploring early research on bullying in education is Dan Owleus, a professor in Psychology who presented one of the first empirical studies regarding bullying in education. The researcher presented his work in 1973 in Scandinavia and in US in 1978. In 1980, he was the investigator who implemented the first intervention to prevent bullying in education, according to the American Psychological Association (2014). Numerous researchers interested in bullying use Owleus's work to draw from, and use his definition of bullying to develop their work, such as Bouman (2008); Carrera,

DePalma and Lameiras (2011); Craig, Pepler, and Atlas (2000); Norden (2014); Noorden et al. (2014); Smith et al. (2002); Thomas, Connor, and Schott (2014); Vlachou et al. (2110); Voising and Hong (2012).

Bullying can be approached and perceived from different lenses. Some academics, address the problem of bullying in schools focusing on gender as a variable for finding the frequency and prevalence of such schooling actions among students (Barone, 1997; and Thornberg & Jungert, 2014). According to Fox, Johns, and Sayers (2014), “over the past 30 years a great deal of research shows that there are gender differences in children’s experiences of bullying at school” (p. 359). Other researchers concentrate on addressing bullying prevention approaches (Beran & Shapiro, 2005; Bouman, 2008; Jenson, Brisson, Beneder & Williford, 2013).

The majority of studies that address school bullying are based on quantitative approaches where researchers use questionnaires and surveys for gathering data (Olweus, 1991, 1993; Besag, 1989; Solver and Olweus, 2003; Thornberg & Jungert, 2014). The researchers adopting these quantitative approaches use frequencies and percentages to analyze and show the relation of bullying to other variables such as gender differences (Fox, Jones, & Sayers, 2014; Sayers, 2014; Smoth et al, 2002;) ethnic background (Coy, 2001), cultural sensitivity and language accent (Martinsen, Alvord, & Tanner, 2014), and emotional perceptions using questionnaires that are translated into numbers and patterns (Solberg & Olweus, 2003). However, there is relatively little work that adopts qualitative approaches on bullying in school. Some of the few studies that address bullying in education implementing qualitative approaches are; Atlas and Pepler (1998), Craig, Pepler, and Atlas (2000), Gumpel, Zioni-Koren and Bekerman (2014).

Atlas and Pepler (1998) measured the prevalence and the origin of bullying in school. This study took place in Toronto, Canada. The authors adopted a qualitative approach to gather data doing observations of participant students when interacting with each other in their classroom. However, the authors classified data by patterns and frequencies converting qualitative data into numbers (quantitative results). The participants were 27 students, 19 boys and 8 girls attending a public school and qualified as aggressive or non-aggressive by the teachers using self-report.

Eight classrooms were observed; five classrooms, grade levels 1 – 3; and three classrooms, grade levels 4 – 6. The authors did 28 hours of observations doing audio and video recording. The researchers justified the use of qualitative tools for gathering data explaining that observing interactions in the classrooms can provide perceptions of students about bullying, more than those provided by self-report, and added that qualitative research “extend our understanding of behavior patterns that may not be apparent through self-reports” (Atlas & Pepler, 1998, p. 88).

The main purpose of Atlas and Pepler (1998) was to analyze the occurrence and the nature of bullying interactions in the classrooms. This study also aimed to appreciate the characteristics of children, aggressive or non-aggressive, involved in such behaviors. Results reveal that the frequency of bullying was of 68 incidents from 28 hours of videotape. The average rate of bullying was of 2.4 episodes per hour. The nature of verbal bullying was of 53% while the physical aggression was of a 30%. The combination of verbal and physical aggression was of a 17%. In sum, bullying in the classroom occurred about two times in one hour. Verbal aggression in the classrooms occurred with most frequency; more than half of total bullying in

28 class hours. Physical aggression occurred more than the combination of verbal aggression and physical aggression with 30 and 17% successively.

Craig, Pepler and Atlas (2000) present a study regarding bullying in school. The social context was in a playground and in the classroom. The participants were 34 students; 24 male and 10 female. The aim of this investigation was to see if there was a difference between the frequencies of bullying in the classroom in comparison with the bullying that takes place in the playground. The researchers adopted qualitative methods for gathering data such as observations in the classrooms. Craig et al measured the duration and frequency of bullying and classified data into types of bullying. The authors converted data into quantitative results of frequencies and averages. Craig, Pepler, and Atlas (2000) recorded children's interactions (1st to 6th grade levels) using video cameras for 28 minutes in the playground and 31 minutes in the classroom. The results show that bullying occurrence in the playground was greater than in the classroom. The rate of bullying in the playground was of 4.5 per hour. On the other hand, bullying episodes in the classroom was of 2.4 per hour.

Knowing that the occurrence of bullying in school is high, Craig, Pepler, and Atlas (2000) suggest teachers to be aware of how bullying can take place in school. Craig et al recommend teachers to pay special attention to the incidents of bullying that can take place in the classrooms. From the obtained results, the researchers explain that even though some teachers know about bullying in their classrooms, most of them seldom impede this type of aggression. Craig, Pepler and Atlas recognize that teachers' lack of intervention on these incidents can be due to the difficulty to detect these aggressive behaviors in schools. According to Craig, Atlas, and Pepler (2000) "our observations indicate that teachers intervene in approximately one in six playground episodes and in one in five classroom episodes" (p. 32).

Gumpel, Zioni-Koren, and Bekerman (2014) conducted an ethnographic study with tenth grade remedial classes in Israel to investigate more about bullying in education; the roles of students involved in such type of aggression. The participants were 20 students; 12 boys and 8 girls with ages from 15 to 16 years old. This ethnographic study took one year where researchers did observations of students and teachers interactions in the classroom. The investigators also did in-depth interviews with teachers and students participating in this study. Gumpel et al. explain that a qualitative approach for their study was the most appropriate and argue that a positivist approach (quantitative) may not provide with enough “information on the dynamic interpersonal relationships” (p. 217). The researchers observed the activities that took place in the classrooms, and focus on the perceptions of the participants regarding bullying, the victims and the risk factors that are involved with students’ roles on these behaviors.

Gumpel, Zioni-Koren, and Bekerman (2014) recorded more than 250 hours of observations in the participants’ classrooms and interviews with teachers and students..After gathering data, the authors analyzed it in three stages. First, they analyzed their observations on the social context of the classrooms. The researchers then analyzed audio recordings (the interviews) and created themes related to the participants’ perceptions of bullying and victimization. The third stage consisted of analysis of the stories that come up from the analysis of interviews. With the purpose to make sure the interpretation of the observations and interviews were accurate with the students’ behaviors in the classrooms and their responses, the authors did member check before finalizing the coding.

Gumpel, Zioni-Koren, and Bekerman (2014) presented the findings making connections between their detailed information from observations to the interviews with students’ responses about their own perception as bullies or victims. The categories of positionality, according to the

results were aggressive bullies, and the victims. The aggressive bullies used physical and relational aggression on weaker students. The victims were the weak students perceived as different, a very low social economic status; the outsiders. These students were ridiculed by other classmates; the bullies. The authors added that there were group of students who were not bullies or victims. These group of students “showed no direct involvement, even appearing at times to be unaware of these incidents” (Gumpel, Zioni-Koren, & Bekerman, 2014, p. 221). They were the bystanders, as the authors call them. In addition, Gumpel et al. found that teachers’ management techniques are crucial for determining the degree of bullying in the classroom. Teachers with structured and disciplined teaching strategies had few incidents of bullying, while teachers with less structured teaching styles had more bullying interactions. According to Gumpel, Zioni-Koren, and Bekerman, (2014), “it was clear from the observations that when the students were in structured, organized, and predictable lesson with focus on discipline; there were also fewer coercive and aggressive interactions between the pupils” (p. 222).

Many studies such as the mentioned previously are focused on elementary or middle schools. However, even though bullying in school is addressed in different ways and grade levels, there is no work on bullying against recent immigrants because of the perceived linguistic limitations in the second language; particularly in a dual language classroom where academic instruction is taught in the second language half of the academic time. Furthermore, , there is a need for research on the previously mentioned academic context with a special focus on the emotional impact of separation of languages on recent immigrants that have experienced being bullied as a result of language oppression. Research neglects showing the voices of those students who suffer discrimination in an environment where language is used as a tool for

oppression as in the case of bullying against recent immigrants whom linguistic skills in the second language are perceived as limited.

We need to document the voices of those victims of bullying in education. We can accomplish this by revealing the counter-narratives of recent immigrants, their testimonios as used by LatCrit, so that we can be aware of the emotional impact of separation of languages that is creating a hostile environment on some recent immigrant students in elementary education where language stratification exists as addressed by Bakhtin (1981). Bakhtin explains that the dominant language is at the top of a stratified system that signifies power among other languages that are at the bottom and are considered less than the dominant language. Such attitude towards language and power is also presented by researchers whom address bullying as an imbalance of power. For example, Solberg and Olewus (2003) cover the three aspects of bullying in education: “the intention to harm the victim, the repetitive nature of bullying, and the imbalance in power between the victim and the perpetrator(s)” (p. 245). However, the psychological literature on bullying in education reviewed here deemphasizes issues of language.

2.9 Emotions, Discrimination, and Shame in and out The Educational System

There is work that addresses the emotions resulting from discrimination in and out the context of education (Rosenbloom, 2004), feelings of shame among ESL nursing students in the US (Colossimo, & Xu, 2006), and emotions of shame among Brazilian literacy students, where literacy and speaking skills are used to maintain social inequality in Brazil (Barlett, 2007). There is also research that vaguely addresses the feelings of recent immigrants when attending ESL classes with low expectations for ESL students, such as García and Barlett (2007), García and Sylvan (2011), García Flores, and Chu (2011), Orellana and Reynolds (2008), Valdés (1998, 2010). However, there is no work that fully addresses the emotions of emergent bilinguals,

recent immigrants, attending dual immersion classes where language is used as a resource for teaching (translanguaging), or as a tool for linguistic oppression and bullying.

Rosenbloom (2004) addresses the feelings of shame among ESL and foreign-born nursing students in the US. Based on a two year ethnographic study doing participant observation and interviews, Rosenbloom reveals students' experiences, feelings and perceptions regarding discrimination in their life. The focus was on the experiences of minority students' discrimination in general. The participants were 20 African-American, 20 Asian-American, and 20 Latino students. African-American and Latino students reported that they were discriminated against when going to the store or by the police officers who always would keep their eyes on them. These students also reported that they were treated as troublemakers by the teachers while Asian-Americans received better treatment and were perceived as the good students who always were well behaved in class and did their homework. All the participants were aware of the different treatment, including the Asian-Americans. African-American and Latino students also pointed out that the poor expectations the teachers demonstrated towards them was a way of discrimination, and made them feel uncomfortable. Asian-Americans were discriminated against by non Asian-Americans in the school. These students were physically attacked by other students, when walking on the hallways in the transition from class to class. Asian-American students felt that they were mistreated because they were not tall and strong enough to defend themselves. All the participants explained that having things stole from their backpacks was common, and none of these 60 students reported such violent acts to teachers or authorities.

Colosimo and Xu (2006) address the feelings of shame on ESL and foreign-born nursing students in the US. Due to the fact that there is a shortage of nurses in the United States, more international nursing students are entering the country to resume their studies for acquiring their

nursing certifications. The authors explain that nursing schools in the US are having trouble retaining ESL students who drop out their nursing careers. The feelings of shame when not able to understand academic concepts in English were the main reason for these students not asking their professors for assistance and not to participating.

The students did not ask questions when not understanding lectures, despite the fact that these students had previous records as being academically competent in their countries. The authors explain that for these students, it was very difficult to adapt to the new language and culture, which generated feelings of shame and anxiety. Colosimo et al. propose that there is a significant connection between low self-esteem and feelings of shame and humiliation. The researchers recommend assisting these students to overcome their feelings of shame by encouraging ESL students to get involved in the discussions and to ask questions when needing assistance. However, the authors admit that these recommendations can be a challenge when in their cultural backgrounds of ESL students feelings of shame are perceived as the result of failing to honor the reputation of their families, such as in the case of the Asian students.

Building on sociocultural theories of literacy and on Bourdieu's (1977) practice theory, Barlett (2007) conducted ethnographic research in Brazil regarding the connection that exists between speech, literacy and the emotional aspect of shame. Using Freire (1970), and Macedo (1987), Barlett argues that literacy and speech in Brazil are factors that are used to maintain cultural reproduction of social inequalities. Barlett reports on an ethnographic study that involved 40 youth and adult students attending literacy classes in four educational programs. Barlett points out that 36 of the participants individually brought up discussions of feeling shame about their literacy and speech skills. The participants revealed that they felt ashamed when not able to read or write something, or when not able to use the proper vocabulary words when

speaking. Such experiences, as the participants explained, took place in or out of the school. The participants explained that it was traumatic when people tried to correct them, so they sometimes opted for not speaking. At school, students were also ashamed because students and teachers would make fun of their pronunciation. Barlett (2007) explains that the participants were aware of the low status they were part of as a result of their literacy and speech skills, and some students opted to improve their communicative skills to speak properly and to gain more confidence when socializing with other people. Barlett concludes that in Brazil, literacy and speech shame are emotions that are used to keep social inequalities among the diverse social groups.

2.10 Research in the Bilingual Classrooms: The Affective Factors

This section addresses monolingualism and separation of languages in the educational system in the United States, the affective factors that EBs experience when not able to use their first language in classrooms, or when its use is limited to translation (i. e., ESL instruction). Research in the educational field concerning the experiences of emergent bilinguals is vast and growing. However, the affective aspects among EBs experiencing separation of languages are vaguely addressed.

2.10.1 Monolingualism and separation of languages: Labeling EBs and their feelings

Some of the research found in the US educational arena that involves recent immigrants and their schooling experiences are Valdés (1998, 2010), García and Barlett (2007), García and Sylvan (2011), García, Flores, and Chu (2011), Orellana and Reynolds (2008). The researchers address recent immigrant's schooling experiences and their academic struggles in the classrooms that separate languages. However, the feelings these students experience when not able to use their first language for academic purposes are vaguely addressed. As I reviewed the literature

relevant to this study, I noticed that the affective portion of the research is not addressed thoroughly. However, as I was reviewing this literature I was able to perceive a sense of discouragement of the participants when feeling different from mainstream students, and/or when achieving low academics.

Valdés (1998) reveals the academic struggles two recent immigrants went through when attending monolingual classes where the teachers did not know any Spanish. The affective experiences these students went through are indirectly reflected when Valdés documented recent immigrants' academic indifference due to the fact that their language proficiency was limited. Orellana (2001), the same as Valdés (1998), explores the experiences of recent immigrants in the United States to argue against the perception of recent immigrants as "a problem or challenge in education" (p. 366). The focus is on students; in school and out of school. Orellana shows the contributions of these students to their families and school, which was based on helping others. However, the author does not describe students' feelings when attending classes that do not welcome their first language or when perceived as a problem. Valdés (2010) also addresses recent immigrants' academic struggles. In this case, the author points out that struggles are due to the implementation of practices that she called, "invisible borders." Valdés refers to family segregation due to deportations, tracking of students, and the separation of languages. The author additionally highlights the need for teachers to know how to apply the pedagogical practices to overcome such practices that contribute to recent immigrants' academic struggles. Nonetheless, the author does not explicitly address the emotional impact of these practices, such as how family segregation affected these students in an academic environment that segregates their language, or how these students may feel when tracked or labeled.

2.10.2 ESL Instruction: EBs' Perceptions and feelings

I have found few examples that show emergent bilingual students' perceptions and feelings towards classes that separate language and emphasize English as the dominant language (i. e. ESL instruction). The research addressed in this section is from the work of Mendoza-Denton (2008), Callahan, Wilkinson, & Mauller (2008), and Yonezawa & Jones (2003). This section presents the aforementioned research, focusing on tracking or labeling of emergent bilinguals in classrooms where the teachers segregate their first language from the second language and shows how students respond to such practices.

Ability tracking or curriculum differentiation (Valencia, 1984) is used to re-segregate non mainstream students (Hughes, Gordon, & Hillman, 1980). Segregation was eliminated after the Supreme Court decision in 1954 in Brown V. Board of education. However, re-segregation has existed and still exists in the academic field. According to Hughes et al, (1980), "this type of segregation generally takes place when schools that have being racially desegregated go to a system of academic tracking or ability grouping (p. 14). Valencia (1984) refers to such ability grouping as "curriculum differentiation." Such academic approaches benefit mainstream students who are placed into Advanced Placement (AP) classes that make it easier for these students to graduate from high school, and be ready to go to college. This is due to the fact that AP classes are based on high standards, in comparison to the low standards implemented in a classroom with English Language Learners. However, as Mendoza-Denton (2008) in her study explains, students who were labeled as LEP (Limited English Proficient) will not be able to get into those advanced classes. It would be hard for LEPs to reach the required academic proficiency to get into college, or to graduate from high school. According to Mendoza-Denton (2008), "when

classified as LEP, a student could not follow the school regular course program for college preparation, but instead had to continue taking English as a second language courses” (p 34).

An English as a Second Language (ESL) program is one example of monolingual academic instruction and “curriculum differentiation,” mentioned by Valencia (1984). Mendoza-Denton (2008) in her ethnographic study with Latina youth attending ESL classes in California, explains how acronyms such as LEP (Low English Proficient), FEP (Fluent English Proficient), and ESL students were crucial for shaping students’ academic success. The author explains that labeling and placements were determinant for “predicting a student’s educational opportunities” (p 34). Mendoza-Denton’s (2008) perceptions of labeling as academic predictors for LEPs to attend ESL classes is consistent with Oaks and Lipton (2007) whom explains that, “labeling translates into lowered self-confidence and lower expectations for all students not graced with the highest status label. Placement in, low, middle, or almost-but-not-quite top class often becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy” (p 311).

As addressed by Mendoza-Denton (2008) labeling ESL students is a way to marginalize students. Since they are placed into classes with low academic expectations, it would discourage students when feeling different or inferior to students placed in the regular or AP classes. Moreover, students would notice unequal treatment from teachers toward ESL and mainstream students. ESL students are aware of the real purpose of labeling. Mendoza-Denton, (2008), describes ESL students’ reactions to the poor expectations towards them, but do not focus on their emotional experiences when attending ESL classes, and learning the second language.

Mendoza-Denton (2008) reveals the perceptions of a teacher and an English proficient Mexican immigrant student that was not able to enroll into advanced classes: “He is too rowdy,”

said the teacher. “I am bored in class,” said Armando. “What is this? This is a dog. This is a cat. Give me a break! I’d rather get kicked out of class.” (p. 35). As I analyzed the mentioned responses, I was able to perceive that Armando felt the rejection and low expectations from his teachers. His attitude shows a critical attitude towards this type of low quality schooling. This awareness caused a lack of motivation on the Mexican immigrant.

Callahan, Wilkinson, and Mauller (2008), similar to Mendoza-Denton (2008), talk about ESL students’ attitudes and address the origin of the ESL programs. The authors mention that the school system is the generator of divisions derived from labeling students. Callahan et al (2008) also mention the Lau vs. Nichols (1974) legal case as the generator of such labeling and divisions. This law mandates schools to provide the necessary instructions to teach immigrant students the second language. However, those programs that serves as “support” for ELL students when learning the second language would also make them feel marginalized and different from other students. These students would be placed into classes with minimum expectations in comparison to students in Advanced Placement classes with higher expectations.

Similarly, in Yonezawa’s study (2003) teachers and students were aware of the different treatment. Their effort to provide EBs students with the necessary strategies to help them reach high academic goals was limited. According to Yonezawa and Jones (2003), who interviewed EB students asking questions about their perceptions on the ESL program, “focus group results suggested that students largely believed that the tracking and placement practices within their schools were unfair” (p. 17).The following is one of the participants’ responses in Yonezawa and Jones (2003):

My history teacher focuses more on her AP classes than on her lower level classes.

Sometimes she’ll come to school just to go to her AP classes and won’t even come to

ours. She said, “Well, I’ll be here to go to my AP class, but you guys are going to have a substitute.” I see [it] like, “So we’re not good enough that you can come to our class too” (p. 18).

As I read the previous excerpt, I was able to perceive how emergent bilinguals were able to identify the unequal treatment. However, even though Mendoza-Denton (2009), Callahan, Wilkinson, and Mauller (2008), and Yonezawa and Jones (2003) address the attitudes and perceptions towards different treatment and academic expectations, the authors do not address the affective experiences of EBs when undergoing separation of languages practiced in the classroom for academic instruction and second language acquisition.

2.10.3 Recent Immigrants’ schooling experiences in the US: Their stressors

In this section, I review research from the field of anthropology and sociology that addresses personal experiences of immigrants in this country, their experiences when recently entering into the US, and their struggles when attending the new school. This section helps making connections among what research found about recent immigrants’ experiences and the experiences new generation of recent immigrants may go through when placed in academic setups that separate their home language from the new; especially when the new students are coming from stressful environments.

Trueba and Zou (1998), drawing from their personal experiences as immigrants in the United States, explain the experiences immigrants face when entering a new country, the challenge of facing a new culture, and their resilience to cope with new cultures. The authors refer to ethnic immigrants, and address “ethnic identity” shaped by “a worldview, a life style, a language and a family structure” (p.1). The authors add that cultural practices are part of recent immigrants’ identity, and recommend teachers to use it as pedagogical tool “to improve learning

in the case of differentiate groups within society (the usually referred as minorities)” (Zou & Trueba, 1998, p. 321). This argument is consistent with Errante (1997) and Zou (1998) who support the idea regarding the need for teachers to create safe learning environments for recent immigrants.

Suarez-Orozco, Pimentel, and Martin (2009) talk about the stressors newcomer immigrants face when entering a new educational system. The authors refer to those stressors as the new challenges that are closely related to their experiences when migrating into the new country, which include experiencing racism, discrimination, and the challenge of acquiring the second language. According to Suarez-Orozco et al. (2009); “these stressors complicate immigrant students’ adjustments to the new school and community settings” (p. 713). The authors agree with Portes and Rumbaut (2001), and Zhou and Bankston (1998) and their notion about immigrant students’ successful adaptations that, “appear to be linked to the quality of relationships they forge in their school settings” (p. 717). Recent immigrant students bring with them previous experiences that are part of their culture (Major, 2009), which in turn, are linked to emotionality and second language acquisition (Pavlenko, 2006, p 27). Moreover, students who come from an insecure society bring with them experiences from a culture of violence that educators have to be able to address in US schools with healing remedy to their burden.

Suarez-Orozco and Suarez-Orozco (2009) focusing on recent Mexican immigrants in the United States, blame the educational system for failing to fulfill newcomer students’ needs and realities when entering the new school (p. 328). Using Macedo (1993), Shannon and Escamilla (1999) point out that, recent immigrants “are victims of a colonizing educational process” (p 349) where their culture is perceived as “potential threats” against the dominant culture (p 350). This argument is consistent with Galindo (2011) and Apple (2004) who address

cultural oppression through language to keep power over minorities within the educational system; the roots of monolingualism in the US (explained in chapter one).

Valdés (1998) addresses issues that involve recent immigrants in California, such as the struggles this population of students in middle school go through when acquiring the second language. In her case study that involves two recent immigrants from Mexico, Valdés mentions how monolingualistic practices and segregation of students contributed to students' academic indifference and limited language proficiency. ESL teachers were not trained to teach recent immigrants, and did not know any Spanish. These students were taught with material that was developed for special education students. Throughout the two years of the study, Valdés shows that attitudes towards language acquisition were very important for these two students in succeeding academically. Lilian showed indifference towards learning and she would copy other students' work, while Lisa was more open and willing to learn. She would repeat what the teacher would say, and practiced the vocabulary words. Seven years after the study, Valdés followed the two students and found that students' attitudes towards schooling did not change. Lilian did not finish high school. While attending school, she assisted to remedial classes where the focus was mainly on language, not on college preparation. On the other hand, even though Lisa graduated from a high school that did not track students, she was not able to register for college classes. She was still labeled as a non-English-background student. Valdés shows that tracking in that part of California was also practiced at college level, and made Lisa feel devastated. Even though I saw that Valdés presented students attitudes towards learning based on tracking throughout and after the time of the study, the author did not presents how students felt when language instruction and academics were limited throughout their academic experiences in this country.

Similar to Valdés (1998), Faltis and Valdés (2010) talks about recent immigrants, and also talks about refugees in Southwestern states, including: California, Arizona, Texas, New Mexico, and Colorado “with long histories of immigrant migration” (p 286). Valdés (2010) uses the term “invisible border” to point out the practices that affect recent immigrants and refugees in US schools. The study presented here contributes to this literature by emphasizing the students’ voices through testimonios, and by looking at the particular context of the dual language program.

2.10.4 Research on dual language programs

Among the studies that show the effectiveness of the dual language programs are Collier and Thomas (2004), who present results from an 18 year longitudinal research that shows the effectiveness of the one-way and two way dual language programs. The authors compared the programs using a quantitative methodology where students’ achievement was measured to see how the diverse programs contributed on narrowing the academic gap between L1 and L2 among English language learners. After analyzing the collected data from 23 school districts with varied sizes from small to large, Collier and Tomas found that the 90/10 and 50/50 programs were the most effective on closing up the academic gap.

Some of the few studies on dual language classrooms in regards to students coming from Mexico to attend classes in El Paso, Texas are the ones conducted by Araujo and de la Piedra (2012) and de la Piedra and Araujo (2013). These studies were not focused on the effectiveness of the program, but on the experiences of these students crossing the border constantly and bringing with them a plethora of experiences and literacy practices that students were allowed to use for navigating US schools. Additionally, Gort (2006) shows the positive writing advancement on students attending dual language classes.

Gort (2006) conducted a study with eight first-grade emergent bilingual students. The program implemented in this particular classroom was TWBE (Two Way Bilingual Education). Students were assigned to write in workshops, where the observations took place. The writing products were examined and used as data for the study. Data collection was gathered from observations and interviews during writing workshops where the first grade students attending two way bilingual class were interacting with each other while constructing their writing. From such data, the author was able to recognize the strategies students used when writing. Gort (2006) mentions that students transferred their writing strategies from the first to the second language. Students were also able to utilize their two languages as resources for literacy and academic development.

de la Piedra and Araujo (2012) show how transnational children who crossed back and forward the border to attend the dual language classes and visit their families in Ciudad Juárez got to negotiate their previous experiences living in Ciudad Juárez “known as the most dangerous city in the whole world” (de la Piedra, 2012, p. 267). Students in this study were able to narrate their experiences with violence in their home town, and use it as examples of survival. de la Piedra and Araujo (2013) use the same site and ethnographic study to analyze the literacy practices that “transfronterizo” students brought to their new school when attending dual language classes in El Paso Texas. For example, reading the Bible when going back to Juárez, reading comics, and the newspapers with their family. The authors suggest teachers to use these experiences as resources to help these students feel welcome in their struggle with discrimination and the misfortune of living under insecure circumstances when they go back to their country. de la Piedra and Araujo explain that in the dual language classrooms, students were able to use their previous experiences and literacy practices to make sense of new knowledge and new language.

In the addressed studies, the focus was in the academics of emergent bilinguals attending dual language classes (Gort, 2006), and the emergent bilinguals' transfronterizo language and literacy practices (de la Piedra & Araujo, 2012). The researchers address the separation of languages as an important characteristic of dual language instruction and both studies look at the use of the native language for academic development in this context. However, the authors do not address the students' feelings when attending dual language classes that segregate or include language for academic instruction.

2.11 Translanguaging

One of the optimal strategies to overcome monolingualistic ideas and policies, such as separation of languages, is translanguaging, an additive approach that embraces multilingualism through the application of writing as an academic expression that can take place in the classroom in any language dominated by multilingual students (Creese and Blackledge, 2010; Canagarajah, 2005, 2012; García & Sylvan, 2011; Joseph & Ramani, 2012; Kubota, 2008). Multilingual speakers have the ability to switch between languages as part of their communicative repertory (Canagarajah, 2011). Canagarajah (2011) refers to the mentioned language availability as “an integrated system labeled translanguaging” (p. 401). Translanguaging is also defined as a pedagogical resource that can be used by multilingual students for gaining scientific knowledge (Joseph & Ramani, 2008). Moreover, García and Sylvan (2011) point out that this pedagogical strategy challenges monolingualistic ideas by including the switching between two languages (codeswitching). The author adds that translanguaging also involves translation. However, García and Sylvan (2011) clarify that translanguaging differs from codeswitching and translating “in that it refers to the process in which bilingual students make sense and perform bilingually in

the myriad ways of classrooms – reading; writing, taking notes, discussing, signing, and so on” (p. 389).

2.11.1 Translanguaging: Research in education

Lopez-Gopar (2009), focusing on English-Spanish, conducted a critical ethnography and action research (CEAR) in two elementary schools located in Oaxaca, Mexico. The author collected and analyzed data from observations, interviews, and ethnographic narratives from students’ and student teachers’ writing samples. The participants were able to use translanguaging to communicate, orally and in writing. The participants were 50 students from 5th and three 6th grade levels, two principals, and 10 pre-service teachers that were assigned to observe, evaluate, and practice teaching in both schools/classrooms implementing translanguaging practices. The author uses Freire’s (1970) concept of praxis to introduce the term “praxicum” as the indicator of teaching practices where the pre-service teachers take action by learning and promoting multilingualism through translanguaging practices in the culturally diverse classrooms. Students and pre-service teachers were able to share their stories using their available languages, orally and through literacy. Lopez-Gopar advocates in favor of translanguaging to challenge the curriculum “on daily basis if we were truly to serve the ever-evolving diverse classrooms of today” (p iii).

Canagarajah (2011) addresses translanguaging in writing to adopt a rhetorical discourse. Canagrajah argues that translanguaging implemented in literacy is more challenging than when practicing it in speaking. Canagarajah adds that formal writing has serious assessment repercussions. According to Canagarajah, (2011); “formal writing is a high-stakes activity in schools” (p 402). Due to the fact that there are not many studies on translanguaging writing, the author applies this pedagogical strategy using translanguaging for communication and code-

meshing for practicing translanguaging in texts. The participant of the study was a graduate student, Buthanah, who was taking a class on second language writing. After analyzing the ethnographic data, Canagarajah was able to see that the participant was able to successfully communicate her ideas in writing by mixing Arabic and French with her first language, English. The participant also incorporated symbols and auditory effects as strategies to express her thoughts in print.

García and Sylvan (2011) and García, Flores & Chu (2011) highlight the importance of modifying bilingual models in this multilingual and pluralistic country in the 21st century. The authors advocate in favor of pluralism and multilingual approaches to bilingual education. García and Sylvan propose translanguaging practices as the pedagogic approaches to welcome and help new comers maintain their first language while acquiring the second. From exploring and analyzing the case of network of U.S. Secondary schools founded for new comer immigrants, the International High Schools, García and Sylvan (2011) reveal the plurilingual abilities among this population of students by addressing seven principles: heterogeneity, collaboration, learner-centeredness, language and content interaction, experiential learning, and local autonomy and responsibility (p 385). García and Sylvan conclude that, when taking into consideration previous principles as pedagogical approaches, students can become more academically successful, and more confident when speaking the second language. In addition, recent immigrants increase their translanguaging skills and become better proficient in a plurilingual environment.

Introducing recent immigrants as emergent bilinguals, like García and Sylvan (2011), García Flores, and Chu (2011) present translanguaging as the innovative bilingual program that allows creating a sense of learning community where students use the necessary resources to communicate and gain cognitive knowledge including their first language. García Flores and

Chu make a comparison of two high schools in New York, the Cooperation Academy, and the International High School that have a similar small population of students.

From the analysis of pedagogical practices and observations practiced in the addressed high schools, García mentions that while Cooperation Academy implemented ESL strategies with emergent bilingual students that were not recent immigrants, the International High School adopted translanguaging as the paradigm to help recent immigrants use their first language while acquiring the second through the practice of multilingual communication between the teacher and students. However, the authors point out that even though the Cooperation Academy implemented ESL strategies to teach emergent bilinguals by delivering academic instruction in English, students were allowed to write their assignments in Spanish. García Flores, and Chu (2011) concluded that even though the programs implemented in the two mentioned high schools do not fit the description of traditional ESL or bilingual education programs, it is necessary for schools to look for the diverse ways to help students practice bilingualism in times where globalization allows the use of languaging as the way to address multiculturalism around the world.

2.12. Conclusion

From the literature review presented in this chapter it was found that there is abundant research focused on the experiences of recent immigrants in monolingual classrooms where separation of languages is implemented, as well as studies focusing on the use of translanguaging to overcome the separation of languages among emergent bilinguals. However, there are very few studies conducted in dual language programs. Only a few studies are focused on the effectiveness of these programs. Other studies focus on the experiences and literacy practices among transfronterizo students who crossed the border of Ciudad Juárez -El Paso to attend

school on the American side of the border while moving back and forth to Mexico to visit their relatives. These students bring with them literacy practices and their experiences with violence that were able to use in a dual language class. However, I did not find studies that focus on recent immigrants' perception and feelings regarding their experiences attending dual language classes that separate or integrate their first and the second language.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Critical ethnography is not only “*qualitative, anthropological, participant, observer-based research undertaken, but its theoretical basis lies in Critical Theory*”

Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2006, p. 153

3.1. Introduction

This dissertation adopts a qualitative research methodology with the purpose to gain a better understanding of recent immigrants’ schooling experiences, particularly within dual immersion classes where the teacher integrates languages or where the separation of languages is strictly practiced, as mandated by the program. Merriam and Associates (2002) explain that qualitative research helps the researcher make sense of people’s perceptions of their world based on their experiences. For Denzin and Lincoln (2006), when doing qualitative research, the focus is on the “socially constructed nature of reality, the intimate relationship between the researcher and what is studied” (p. 10).

3.2. Research Design

Qualitative research is a paradigm that can help making sense of people’s experiences in a naturalistic environment where the researcher is closely attached to what is being studied (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Flick, 2009). For this dissertation, I did a qualitative investigation, conducting participant observation, students’ testimonios, and interviews. This study is designed to document and analyze emergent bilinguals’ schooling experiences in classes where the teacher separates languages as well as those experiences of recent immigrants attending classes where translanguaging is practiced. Qualitative research helped understanding the emotional impact of both approaches. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to investigate the schooling emotional experiences of recent immigrants placed in Two-Way 50/50 dual language classes where

students' first and second languages are separated for academic instruction; in contrast to those dual immersion classes where the teacher allows students to practice translanguaging during academic instruction.

I implemented Critical Ethnography (Carspecken, 1996; Ganagarajah, 1993; Valenzuela, 2005; Willis, 1978) and discourse analysis (Atkison 1996; Chase, 2006; Jaworski & Coupland, 2002&) to explore the al practices in the classrooms and to answer the research questions regarding recent immigrants' emotional experiences in their new school. Testimonios were used as the tool for facilitating students to share their schooling experiences in academic environments that separate or integrate languages. I did participant observation, focus group sessions, and interviews. Thick description (Carspecken, 1996; Geertz, 1973) was always part of what I did to analyze and to show the results of the critical ethnography regarding emergent bilinguals' schooling experiences in the abovementioned two diverse academic approaches where the teacher integrates or separates languages.

From the initial assumption of this work, this Critical Ethnography aimed to understand the possible relation that may exist between the separation and the integration of languages with negative or positive emotions fostered in dual immersion classes. This supposition led to the following main research question:

Main question:

1. How does the separation of languages and translanguaging practices influence the affective aspect of acquiring the second language among emergent bilinguals?

Sub-questions:

- 1 How is the separation of language policy implemented in the dual language classrooms?
- 2 How are the translanguaging practices implemented in dual immersion classes even when the separation of languages “must” be strictly practiced?
- 3 What are the feelings that children express when experiencing these two different academic situations?

3.2.1. Critical Ethnography

I conducted ethnography to explore the experiences of recent immigrants when facing a new culture and language. Participant observation, ethnographic field notes, and testimonios were the tools for gathering data. Ethnography, according to Emerson, Fretz, and Shaw (1995), involves entering into a certain social site with the primary intention of getting to know the people that are involved in this community. Emerson et al. (1995) claim that, “the ethnographer participates in the daily routines of this setting, develops ongoing relations with the people in it and observes” (p. 1). The researcher under this paradigm provides a thick description of the social events in writing (Carspecken, 1996; Merriam and Associates, 2002; Emerson et al, 1995; Wolcott, 2005).

Writing critical ethnography for Canagarajah (1993) enables researchers to question the cultural practices in classrooms that serve minoritized students, and to resist dominant ideologies that create conflict in the academic environment, such as when using a dominant language for academic instruction. Canagarajah (1993) reports on students attending college and taking TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of other Languages), as a mandatory course for all

students in education at Tamil Nadu in India. The purpose of Canagarajah was to analyze students' perceptions on English instruction as the dominant language. The author argues that it is necessary to allow students to express themselves on issues that are part of their culture in classrooms where students form a community. Within such communities, students can discuss "social conflict and political domination" (Canagarajah, 1993, p. 604). To accomplish his research, Canagarajah adopted a critical ethnography approach to address and interrogate classroom cultures experienced by minoritized students. The inquiry was regarding minority students' experiences learning English where teaching strategies were criticized from students' own points of view.

I used a critical ethnography approach for my dissertation, rather than just doing ethnography because my study was based on questioning the new experiences of recent immigrants in the classrooms where the students and teachers became a new community, a new culture (Canagarajah, 1993). Carspecken (1996) points out that critical ethnography is suitable for the researcher who is interested on critical issues that involve power relations. This dissertation does involve power relations between advanced students, and recent immigrant students where language was used as a tool for oppressing the recent immigrant students who were perceived as inferior based on their linguistic and academic proficiency in English. Carspecken (1996) explains that the purpose of doing a critical ethnography is to build a strong methodology when borrowing critical social theory aspects. According to Carspecken (2012), "critical ethnographers are in the position of wishing to claim that real social inequalities exist" (p. 84).

My study was based on a critical ethnography due to the fact that when doing critical ethnography, the researcher questions issues that arouse within the classrooms' culture

(Ganagarajah, 1993). Those inquiries are related to power relations in schools (Carspecken, 1996). In opposition when doing ethnography, the researcher observes, gets involve with participants, asks questions, and describes the settings and findings in writing (Merriam & Associates, 2002; Emerson et al, 1995; Wolcott, 2005), but does not question issues that may happen among participants in an educational setting. That being said, I needed to conduct a critical ethnography because from the beginning of my investigation, I started questioning critical issues that were happening in the classrooms with recent immigrants in the US. As in Canagarajah (1993), students in my study were able to express themselves through testimonios to discuss social conflicts that happened in their classroom; such as when some students treated recent immigrants differently, in particular students that were assigned to “help” the new students.

Canagarajah (1993), similar to Bourdieu & Passeron (1977), Carspecken (1996), Ogbu (1986), and Willis, (1977) refer to culture in the classrooms as in a community “in relation to social conflict and political domination” (Canagarajah, 1993, p. 605). Canagarajah uses Willis (1978) to highlight the idea in regards to how critical ethnography should be implemented when interrogating culture. This is when the researchers “ask what are the missing questions they answer, probe the invisible grid of context, inquire what unsaid propositions are assumed to the invisible and surprising external forms of cultural life” (Willis, 1978, p. 18). Canagarajah (1993), Foley (1994), and Willis (1978), among many others, implement critical ethnography to explore classroom communities and to allow minoritized students to express their points of view on political and critical issues that take place in their classrooms, such as in the case of social conflicts that involve language for keeping power over minorities.

The phenomenon under investigation calls for an in-depth understanding of students' affective states with regards to the stressors EBs face when immersed in a second language or when confronting separation of languages in the bilingual classrooms. Such stressors are not faced in isolation. Previous and prevalent emotional experiences become part of the schooling experience of recent immigrants which are closely related to their culture, language, and identity (Holland, Skinner, Lachicotte, & Cain, 1998). To make sense of students' schooling experiences in relation to the separation or integration of languages, it is necessary to listen to their discourse, their testimonios, based on their own experiences. Foley and Valenzuela (2005), mention that critical ethnography involves more than writing cultural aspects of certain population, but also involves "fighting for institutional reform" (p. 222).

In the case of language oppression to keep dominion over minorities in the education system (Apple, 2004; Galindo, 2011; Gramsci 1971), it is necessary to pay attention to students' voices to advocate in favor of educational reform, as argued by Delgado, (1989), and Solorzano and Yosso (2001) who address the issue referring to those unheard voices as the counter-stories that challenge dominant discourses (Ladson-Billings & Tate, 2006). According to Solorzano and Yosso (2006), counter storytelling is "a method of telling the stories of those people whose experiences are not often told" (p. 26).

Critical ethnography helped answering the research questions associated to the affective condition of recent immigrants, their schooling experiences, their feelings towards separation of languages and translanguaging practices within the same bilingual model. Through testimonios, I was able to understand the emergent bilinguals' position, and to listen to their voices in their academic struggle. According to Denzin and Lincoln (2005); "testimonio is the voice that speaks to the reader through the text in the form of "I" that demands to be recognized, that wants or

needs to stake a claim on our attention” (p. 548). Testimonios complemented my critical ethnography approach.

As part of my critical ethnography, I visited the participating classrooms in a daily basis for five months and I did participant observation, interviews and focus groups with the participating students at the school. I did participant observations for about 16 hours per week, about 320 hours in five months. I divided the participant observation time by the number of cases and according to the different academic schedules. The intention was to see the interactions of recent immigrants in the different academic subjects and diverse situations in school. The selected school was an elementary school that received recent immigrant students (Border PK-5 elementary school, pseudonym).

It is important to highlight that my goal for this research was to inform of educational programs serving recent immigrants with the aim to better serve their educational and affective needs. Recent immigrant students deserve entering new academic spaces that are welcoming and inviting for all students to learn. I used critical ethnography to uncover the systems of language oppression that still take place in school and to bring students’ voices to the discussion in academia. When listening to these voices, educators may be able to advocate for better and more comprehensible academic spaces for these students. These spaces may promote a sense of feeling welcome and safe for those emergent bilinguals that have to face many challenges in a new country, a new educational system, in a new language. This can be accomplished by welcoming the new cultures, the new languages, and innovative utterances through heteroglossia (Bakhtin, 1981) for learning and expressing the new academic knowledge (translanguaging).

The understanding of translanguaging practices as part of one’s language repertoire helps having a sound foundation for designing pedagogical strategies that promote multilingualism and

cultural diversity. This is with the purpose to overcome monolingualism (Bakhtin, 1981; Heller, 1995) and make of the separation of languages a flexible pedagogy to help recent immigrant students. This can be accomplished by allowing communication in any available language and utterance in an educational context. According to Bakhtin (1981), “there will be, ‘between languages,’ highly specific dialogic relations; no matter how these languages are conceived, they may all be taken as particular point of view on the world” (p. 293).

Documenting and analyzing the practices of translanguaging in the classrooms was a very important part when doing a critical ethnography. Observing and analyzing these translanguaging interactions in the participating classrooms helped me appreciate the importance of creating safe academic environments for recent immigrants where they can feel welcomed. Interviews with teachers, where they affirmed that they used recent immigrants’ first language as a pedagogical tool, complemented important information regarding the interaction between the teacher and students; interactions that I was able to observe during participant observation in the classrooms. I witnessed the collaborative environments in the new academic communities constructed through inclusive practices, such as translanguaging.

Observing the rigid separation of languages in the classrooms where teachers lectured recent immigrants, was very important when documenting and analyzing data. My findings suggest that this pedagogy of separation of languages created tension between the teacher and the recent immigrants who felt sad when not able to understand the academic instruction in their second language. Being able to address social conflict in the new academic communities (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1977; Ogbu, 1986; Willis, 1977) with recent immigrants helped me to decide to conduct a critical ethnography.

3.3. Positioning as a Researcher:

Firmly believing in cultural background as part of one's identity, I decided to share my previous experiences as a Mexican immigrant woman who once crossed the border illegally looking for family unity, as many others that have also crossed frontiers to pursue a dream. Sharing my experience (*mi testimonio*) strengthens my position as a researcher interested in similar cultures as my own.

Positionality is very important “because it forces us to acknowledge our own power, privilege, and biases just as we are denouncing the power structures that surround our subject” (Madison, 2012, p. 8). Villenas (1996) addresses the different positions researchers may adopt when doing ethnography. The author addresses insiders and outsiders as colonizers or colonized depending on the positions people may adopt when doing ethnography. Villenas (1996) reflects on her position of outsider when adopting the discourse of the mainstreamed institution she was working for, when working with a Latino community. The author explored research in favor of dominant culture discourse where Latinos were perceived as a problem. According to Villenas (1996), “the dominant discourse of difference was powerful, and my experiences again were nullified through my participation in detached and rational discussions of the problems of the “other” (p. 270). By labeling the Latino community as different, and referring to them as the “others,” Villenas (1996) distanced herself from the participating community and became an insider of the dominant community. In my case, having the privilege of being part of an educational institution allowed me to get into the official research world. Having this privilege made me somehow an outsider to my participants' community; regardless of the fact that I always will be a Mexican immigrant in the United States sharing similar culture as my recent immigrant participants.

Nonetheless, choosing to be on the “Others” side as an insider when sharing my experiences as a recent immigrant in this country with my participants, and when choosing to draw on critical perspectives from LatCrit and Bakhtin’s (1981) concepts of heteroglossia and dialogism, make me consider myself more of an insider that is in favor of people of color’s rights. I am in favor of allowing the oppressed (colonized) community showing their voice through their testimonios, and against hegemony practiced by the oppressor (colonizer) and their discourse based on supremacy, such as in the case of language control.

Carpescken (1996) highlights the fact that “insider familiarity with several cultures is the best way to assess universalizing claims and thus to stop the wordings of cultural power” (P. 145). Wolcott points out that the benefit of writing other people’s stories has to be focused on those involved in the research setting, not on the researcher. According to Wolcott (2008) “that is our calling and obligation to make sense of somebody else’s sense-making” (p. 146). The author urges ethnographers to present participants’ own words in excerpts. This practice is intended to make of the study a more accurate way to show someone else’s story; especially when one adopts the insider position. Carpescken (1996) suggest the use of thick description to develop solid claims that “are portions of the possible meanings one could read from a social act” (p. 113).

Acting as an insider when sharing similar cultural characteristics as the target population, helped me understand recent immigrants’ experiences, such as crossing borders and confronting a new culture and a new language in a new country. Furthermore, it is very important to mention that there are also some remarkable differences among my own people. For example, the fact that I was not closely related to violence the same way as the target population also made me somehow an outsider.

I was an insider for Irma, one of the recent immigrant students' (Julian) mother, and it was obvious that for Brianna's mother, Johanna, I was an outsider since she was Caucasian and I was a Mexican living in the US. I sensed some sort of mistrust towards me when talking to her the first time. On one side, I shared many similar life experiences with Julian's mother, a Mexican lady who was married with children, and experiencing the challenge of learning the second language, the same as I did when I just immigrated to this country. We got along with each other from the beginning. On the other hand, Johanna always kept her distance with me. Even though her family moved from the US to live in Mexico and learned Spanish, I did feel a sense of mistrust towards me during the parent-teacher conference when I met her, and during the interview at Johanna's home. However, I really appreciated the opportunity she gave me to work with her daughter who was always excited to share her testimonios through drawing and writing in the agendas, and to share her experiences through her conversation with Julian and I during the focus groups.

When I introduced myself to Johanna, I felt the distance between us. At the beginning she was reluctant to let Brianna participate in my study. I offered helping Brianna with her Spanish, after school at her home; the same as I did with Irma and Julian, but Joanna did not accept it. "I know how to speak and read in Spanish," Joanna explained. However, Brianna who knew what the study was about and that she would be drawing in her agenda about her experiences in the new school, kept insisting her mother to let her participate in the investigation (I had talk to the participants about my study, before the conferences during participant observation in class, and gave them the consent form for their parents).

Brianna's teacher, Mrs. Luna, also helped in the sense that she supported the idea of letting students show their feelings as recent immigrants in the new school. Joanna, after giving

me some reasons for not letting her daughter participate in my study, such as they would probably move back to Chihuahua, and that maybe she would not have the time to pick up Brianna for the after school group sessions, she let Brianna be one of my participants and signed the consent forms. This was after clarifying that the study was not extended to summer, and that the focus groups would be during the school hours.

Experiencing being an insider and an outsider in the same study made me aware of the privileges and the disadvantages of the two positionalities. Positionality is very important “because it forces us to acknowledge our own power, privilege, and biases just as we are denouncing the power structures that surround our subject” (Madison, 2012, p. 8). From my experience with my two positionalities in these cases, I learned to manage the adoption of the diverse lenses, and to adapt to the different situations when being an insider or an outsider.

As an insider it was easy to gain access to the recent immigrant family in their home, with Julian’s parents and brothers. As an outsider, it was very difficult to keep a good communication with Johanna since she had an attitude of mistrust towards me since the beginning of the investigation. I experienced a sort of stress when I felt the distance between Brianna’s mother, Johanna and I. However, I simply adapted to the situation and had to negotiate with Johanna who did not want to accept my help for Brianna at home. Finally, the disposition of Brianna for participating in my study and the support of the teacher helped in the decision for Johanna letting Brianna to be my participant.

3.3.1. My Testimonio, “la Pasada,” (the crossing experience): A Mexican immigrant in the US

Sharing my testimonio as an immigrant woman and as a bilingual teacher working with emergent bilinguals in the US is very important to this dissertation because it helped me understand the experiences recent immigrants may go through when entering a new country. My

experiences in U.S. schools and my previous experiences in Mexico helped me understand their home environments in the new country. For example, since I went through similar experiences as other recent immigrants, I was able to understand student's parents that may saw their children, emergent bilinguals, coming back from their new school struggling and frustrated because of the new challenges of learning a new language. In addition, sharing my teaching experience as a bilingual teacher of emergent bilinguals also helped me understand what teachers think or perceive of this population of students in their efforts when learning a second language in an environment that is shaped by politics based on monolingualism (Galindo, 2011; Jaret, 1999). When I was a bilingual teacher I experienced having the pressure of separating languages 70% of the time lecturing in English, the recent immigrants students' second language in an ESL math class. I also experienced breaking the rule and opted to explain students in their first language, Spanish, in order to help them understand academic instruction (explained later in this chapter).

I married a Mexican American man back in 1989 in Acámbaro, Guanajuato, México; a town located between Michoacán and México DF, with inhabitants of 109, 036 (INEGI, 2010). I met my husband when he was visiting relatives in Guanajuato, near my town. Once married, in order to move to the United States where my husband resided and worked, I had to wait for about a year for documents to process so that I could receive a legal permit to enter the United States. I decided not to wait and instead I decided to follow my husband and cross the "Rio Grande" that separates Mexico from the US. On that day, my husband and I traveled in "el autobus" (the bus) from Acámbaro, Guanajuato to Ciudad Juárez, Chihuahua, Mexico.

We arrived in Juárez the following night, and took a taxi from the "Central camionera" (bus station) to "El centro" (downtown) where we stayed in a hotel. My husband, who was working in El Paso, Texas for over 6 months, the following day, woke up early to look for the

person who would help me cross the river. This person was not a *Pollero* (a smuggler), but already knew the way to get to the other side since he would cross the river on daily basis to work, and go back to Juárez at the end of the working day to be with his family. At that time it was easier and safer to cross the river; people used to cross back and forth from El Paso to Juárez each day to work. The man was one of my husband's friends who lived in Ciudad Juárez, but constantly crossed the border to look for work.

The crossing had to take place early in the morning; they knew when "La Migra" (the Border Patrol) was not patrolling the area. The next day in the early morning, I woke up wondering what would happen on that day. My husband got his truck from El Paso and came back to Juárez to pick me up. The man who would help me with the crossing was outside our hotel; ready to lead me to my crossing experience. My husband made arrangements with the person. The men knew where to go; a place near downtown in El Paso where my husband would be waiting for me to take me home. He would be waiting there for me for five hours. If I was not able to cross the river within that period of time, he would go back to Juárez and look for me on the other side of the border where all the immigrants who were caught crossing the border without permits were taken back; at the time there were no penalties for getting caught crossing without visas into the United States.

It was around 5:30 in the morning when we walked from downtown to the Rio Grande. As we approached the river, I was able to see a group of men and women who were waiting for the right moment to cross. There was also another Mexican man, the *Pollero* (smuggler) of about 40 years old, wearing a blue jacket and jeans folded up to his knees, ready to get in the water to take us to the other side. The tool we used to cross was a giant tire with a big squared wooden board beneath it. The current was flowing down fast as I got on the tire and touched the

very cold and murky water. When everybody was on the tire, I noticed there were more women than men. The “*Pollero*” got two ropes that were attached to the board and tire, and started pulling the artifact against the current to get to the other side. The water was up to his waist and the weight on the tire was so heavy that we were getting “mojados” (literally wet). When we finally got to the other side, another man was waiting to take us out of the patrolled area. The “Polleros” knew when the border patrol wasn’t around that particular area; we were close to downtown El Paso. As soon as the man saw us crossing the river, he took us running into an enormous pipette that was probably used to canalize the rain. We crossed up and down little hills. After about one hour of running and waiting to keep going, we finally got to downtown El Paso, and I was able to see my husband in his truck waving at me and ready to go. I got in his truck and we went home together. At that moment, I became part of the statistics of Mexican immigrant women in the United States that crossed illegally, not looking for the American dream, but for family unity. According to Capps, Fix and Passel (2002), “The U.S. immigrant population grew rapidly during the 1990s, with growth rates especially high across a wide band of states in the Southwest, Midwest, and Rocky mountain regions.” I was part of the statistics of immigration; the same as all of the recent immigrants that become part of waves of immigration that contribute to demographic changes in the United States, and to the call for educational adaptation.

My experience crossing the border helped me understand recent immigrants; the struggles they may go through when entering to a new country, facing a new language and culture, and feeling unwelcomed when not able to communicate and to understood in English. In addition, being able to share my experience as an immigrant in this country served as a testimonio that was closely related to those of recent immigrants; especially when looking for

understanding the experiences of those who enter not only to a new country, but to a new schooling experience where their home language is not prioritized. In addition, my testimonio as a bilingual teacher (presented in the next section) of emergent bilinguals helped me understand these students' experiences through observations in the classrooms and through their testimonios regarding their new schooling experiences.

3.3.2. My first teaching experience with recent immigrants

I went back to school in El Paso in 2002, when three of my oldest children were going to school. I was expecting the younger one when I entered UTEP pursuing my certification as a middle school bilingual teacher. After five years of sacrifices and efforts, I obtained my certification in 2007. After applying several times in different elementary and middle schools, finally I received the call: "Is this Mrs. Talamantes?" – "Yes, she speaking." – "Congratulations! You are being granted with the position of ESL Math teacher at Rural Middle School." At this point, my family grew with four children; two girls and two boys.

On the first day of school at Rural Middle, I was taken to the classroom where I would be the new ESL teacher. A staff member provided me with the rosters of students. He told me they did not have the books for my class yet, but I could use some dittos to keep students busy. I knew that students, previous year of my arrival, were under the instruction of substitute teachers; they were used to dittos, and were academically behind. With exception of the 6th graders, the majority of students (7th and 8th graders) were retaking the class. Since all students were emergent bilinguals, they were struggling with the understanding of academic concepts. The class was mainly instructed in English, and had not received formal instruction from a bilingual teacher.

After a month without the texts, only using dittos for students to practice basic math skills, I started formally teaching my students. By that time they were hard to keep on task. Students were very behind in the content as it was, so then I decided to invest in my own projector to include visuals for them to keep the students focused and engaged on the abstract content; that was after requesting for one projector without success. The few projectors the school supplied were kept at the library for checkout, and we had to take turns and make a reservation to use it; we were not able to use it in daily basis. However, the teachers in charge of the “advanced” classes had all the technology necessary to teach mainstream students. Nonetheless, after getting my own projector, and including PowerPoints as part of the lesson plans, students were becoming more interested in the lessons. I was gaining trust from my students using my teaching strategies to make them engaged in the lectures, and they gave their undivided attention, at their own will, to the academic instruction.

On a regular day starting the lesson, an unexpected guest barged right into the classroom, walking in without asking for permission. “What are you doing?” – A woman stared at me with her blue, wide skeptical eyes in a challenging manner. The person, who had disrupted my class while I was introducing the concept of algebra to my 7th grade students, was a math trainer. I was presenting the new concept with vocabulary words projected on the screen from a PowerPoint presentation I had made on my own time. The PowerPoint presentation was intended to help students understand, and make sense of abstract algebraic terms when assigned to make up sentences using their new vocabulary words. I was applying what I had learned as a bilingual teacher, when trying to address my students’ needs when learning abstract concepts; especially when the academic instruction had to be presented in English. Research shows the importance of incorporating writing when working with numbers. It is argued that when students are able to

write what they are learning in math, they are able to analyze and make sense of the new knowledge.

My students noticed the sudden interruption and started to ask me questions in Spanish; they knew that the Caucasian lady in charge of math training did not know Spanish, their first language. – “*¿Que pues, Mrs. Talamantes? ¿Por qué se deja que le hablen así?* [What’s up, Mrs. Talamantes. ¿Why did you allow her to speak to you like that?]” “Okay guys,” I said, “copy the vocabulary words and start writing your sentences in your journals.” The math trainer had one more reason to tell me off. – “We already told you Mrs. Talamantes, students have to speak in English. You have to follow the curriculum the way it is. We do not have time for vocabulary words. Students have to work in groups, instruction in English, and Spanish only for translation, and no more than 20% of the academic time, if needed.”

It was an ESL class (6 through 8 grades). The majority of the students were recent immigrants and emergent bilinguals; all of them from Mexico. Some students were retaking the class since they were not able to pass the standardized test on the previous semester. Students’ attitudes towards education varied. Students struggling with the second language and math content in English tended to give up and disturb the class. That particular classroom was reserved for emergent bilinguals who had low English proficiency; they struggled when not able to understand math instruction in the second language. By perceiving such attitudes towards language, and seeing the different treatment towards students and teachers (“the new” or the “experienced;” “the proficient,” and “the non-proficient;” “the mainstream,” and the emergent bilingual) made me aware of the existence of oppression through language control in education. Experiences like this got my interest on cultural oppression through language control in education, and allowed me to adopt my positionality as an insider of the educational system.

3.4. The Context:

The context of this study is the Southwestern United States, along the Mexico-U.S border. It is very important to mention the definition of the border to situate the context where this study will take place. Staudt and Coronado (2002) define the border as “the territorial line that divides two nation-states: Mexico and the United States” (p. 5)... “the zone of residents who live within a radius, often drawn at 25 miles north or south of the borderline” (p 11). The United States – Mexico border is a 2,000 miles land that connects the two countries, and as described by Anderson and Gerber (2008) who added that this border “is a permeable barrier of dessert, rock and sand” (p 13). The border not only connects the two countries geographically, but the people living in both sides of the border, their culture, and language (Anzaldúa, 1987; Staudt, 1998).

This unique border region generates a hybrid environment where people constantly cross from Ciudad Juárez, Mexico to El Paso, Texas to work, visit relatives; go to school, or simply for shopping (de la Piedra & Guerra, 2013). This constant crossing brings to El Paso a special sense of multilingual and multicultural environment (Anzaldua, 1987; Mendez & Staudt, 2013) that helps on the creation of an English-Spanish community where both languages are part of the hybridity of culture in El Paso, Texas. de la Piedra & Araujo (2012) explain in detail the context of El Paso Texas. The authors highlight the fact that El Paso-Ciudad Juárez are two border regions where people who cross back and forward are called “transfronterizos.” de la Piedra & Araujo explain that transfronterizos bring with them their linguistic and cultural practices to El Paso, Texas where 80% of the population is Hispanic (Census, 2010). de la Piedra & Guerra (2012) use Jimenez, Smith and Teague (2009) to define the addressed crossing experiences as “transnationalism” and refer to it as, “the movement of people, media, language, and goods between distinct nation states, particularly that which flows in both directions and is sustained

over time” (Jimenez et al, 2009, p. 17). This information about the research setting is very important to mention since this study involves language, identity and culture in the Southwest border located between Ciudad Juárez – El Paso. In particular, this research takes place on the US side, El Paso Texas.

El Paso’s population is about 600,000 with over 80 % Hispanic or with Latino origin people (Census, 2011). The community selected for this study is a small rural community, “El Jaral” (pseudonym) located to the west of El Paso with 2.74 land area in square miles with a population of 6,321. This small community has a high concentration of Hispanics, 90.8% of the total population and the 80% of the total population speaks a language other than English, Spanish (Census, 2010). It is important to mention that, due to the fact that a high concentration of people speak Spanish, important characteristic of the Southwest Mexico-US border area, the mentioned district is one of the three local districts that implement dual language Immersion programs that intend to help students reach biliteracy. It is also significant to mention that in Texas only 7 districts practice dual language academic instruction; Bryan, TX; Canutillo, TX; El Paso, TX; Houston, TX; La Porte, TX; North side, TX, and Socorro, TX (TEA, 2011). However, although not included in the TEA website, Ysleta independent school is one of the districts in Texas that also implements dual language instruction (Ysleta ISD, 2013).

3.4.1. The research site

The chosen school district is BISD (Border Independent School District). This district is located near El Paso, Texas in a community that is predominantly of Mexican descent. According to TEA (2013), BISD has a total of 6042 students where 94% are Hispanic, and about 26% are considered ELLs. About 74% of students receive free or reduced school lunch. The school selected for this study is “Border Pk-5” Elementary School with an enrolment of 622

students that received free lunch given that, this school is under Title I. From those 622 students, about 60% are under economically disadvantaged status (TEA, 1013), and all 622 students are provided with free lunch. This particular school implements a dual language 50/50 approach from grades PK to 5th, where the strict separation of languages is a policy (BISD, 2014).

Knowing that in this particular school dual language instruction is provided and that recent immigrants are placed in these classes motivated me to select this school. I knew about the implementation of this dual immersion class because my son attended this particular school and was placed in a dual language classroom. I knew Mrs. Segovia, who was a third grade teacher at this school. Mrs. Segovia was my mentor when doing my student teaching in 2007. Moreover, I had some rapport with the principal of the school and with some teachers and students because I was a substitute teacher a few years before I started the investigation in this school. I decided to work with this school for my dissertation, because it fulfilled the requirements for the chosen target population, recent immigrants residing in El Paso for about to two years and attending dual immersion classes.

3.4.2. The classrooms

Dual language education is the bilingual model that allows academic instruction in two languages (first and second) with the purpose to help “English Language Learners” (ELLs) reach academic success and increase their literacy and academic skills in both languages (Adelman Reyes, 2007; Collier & Thomas, 2004; Cummins, 2005; Lee et al., 2008). According to Izquierdo (2011), dual language programs “have the same immediate goals” (p. 162) to help students become bilingual and biliterate. However, the author explains that these programs vary specifically in two ways that serve as a framework for constructing the curriculum for academic instruction. Such variations are, “(a) language distribution (50/50 or 90/10) and (b) language

assignment (one teacher one language; one teacher two languages)” (Izquierdo, 2011, p. 162).

Thomas and Collier (2012) also explain the variation of dual language programs, and points out that these additive programs can be two-way or one-way programs. The authors explain that the two-way programs require at least 1/3 of the students to be native English speakers. On the other hand, the one way programs integrate minority students with different proficiency level of English in the classroom. The goals of the two-way instruction are: dual literacy development (in the first and second language), high academic success, and appreciation of cultural diversity (Cummins, 2011; Izquierdo, 2011; Thomas & Collier, 2004, 2012).

This study took place in four two-way-dual language classrooms where it was expected that teachers instructed students half of the academic time in students’ first language, and the other half in their second language. In this particular school, dual-language instruction was the only one option for recent immigrants. Though, parents could deny the placement and request for the recent immigrants to be placed in monolingual classes. However, the recent immigrants’ parents (the participants), during the study, enrolled their children in dual-language instruction. Under this program, it was intended to place about the same number of students dominating English and Spanish. According to the description of the bilingual programs provided to the public by the district:

“Two Way Dual Language Program allows an equal number of English Learners and English speaking students to be taught together in an effort to develop full academic bi-literacy for both groups. All participating students receive instruction in language arts and content subjects in English and Spanish beginning in kindergarten.” (Border, ISD, 2013).

I gathered information about the dual language program, language use, and academic practices (i.e. separation of languages) when interviewing two participating bilingual teachers of

the school. One of these teachers was in charge of teaching the English classes (Mrs. Segovia), and the other teacher was in charge of teaching in Spanish (Mrs. Sambrano). In this elementary school, academic instruction was 50% in English, and 50% in Spanish from, 1st grade to 4th grade levels. From 1st to 2nd grades, the instruction was one day in Spanish one day in English. Only one teacher was in charge of teaching academic instruction in both languages in these grade levels. In the 3rd and the 4th grade levels, the instruction was one week in Spanish and one week in English; two teachers were in charge of individually teaching in Spanish or English. Students had to switch classes every week.

The students in this program should receive a minimum of six years of 50-50 dual language instruction; however, the 5th grade teachers explained that in the last year in the selected school, students only received 30% instruction in Spanish. The 70% of instruction had to be conducted in English. According to Mrs. Vidal (a 5th grade teacher); “one of our objectives is integrate more English than Spanish... so that students can be able to acquire enough English to move on to the middle school” (March, 7, 2014). In this particular school, the program became subtractive when students attended 5th grade. The implementation of the dual immersion model was adapted by the administrators of the school with the aim of transitioning students to English monolingual classes. In the first grade dual immersion classroom, I observed that when working in groups, about half of the students spoke English very well and did not have any trouble writing in that language. However, when the instruction was in Spanish (one day Spanish, one day in English), these students were asking for help to those students who seemed to speak very well in Spanish. Furthermore, even though the Spanish dominant group of students did not have strong oral skills in their second language, English, they seemed to understand and speak some words in the second language. On the other hand, the two recent immigrants in this classroom

(Briana and Julian) were only able to communicate within their groups and with the teacher only in their first language, since they were not exposed to the second language in their homes. I observed that the teacher in this classroom opted to follow the strict separation of languages in her teaching (chapter 4).

The 5th grade teachers, Mrs. Vidal and Mr. Godina, separated languages in a flexible manner, but privileged the use of English. During the interviews, the teachers explained that separation of languages was one of the policies of the program in this particular school. Mrs. Vidal added the policy had the purpose of English teaching and learning, since students would have to move to middle school and take standardized tests in English. However, the teacher recognized that it was necessary to use Spanish for helping recent immigrants, even though the program did not allow mixing languages in the classrooms (more information in chapter 6).

With the purpose to have a better understanding of emergent bilinguals' schooling experiences, I documented and analyzed students' perceptions and schooling experiences when receiving academic instruction under one of the learning environments that strictly separate languages; such as in the case of dual immersion academic instruction (Mrs. Luna's class). I also documented the perceptions and schooling experiences of recent immigrants with teachers who welcomed the first language through the practice of translanguaging within the same model, such as with Mr. Godina, and Mrs. Vidal. I selected the classrooms where I conducted the study according to these two different practices.

3.5. Procedures

3.5.1. Participants' selection:

The sample population was drawn from a purposeful sampling technique where the researcher looks for specific characteristics when selecting the participants of the study.

According to Gay, Mills, and Airasian (2009), “the researcher selects the sample using his experience and knowledge of the group” (p. 134). Krathwhol (2009) explains that this sampling technique is the most common in qualitative research and helps selecting “those individuals or behaviors that will better inform the researcher regarding the current focus of investigation” (p. 172). All the participating students met a one-to-two year criterion as recent immigrants in this country and were attending the selected school that implemented a 50/50 dual language program. The grade levels of the participants were 1st, 3rd, 4th and 5th grade. In order to select the classroom and the participants, I informally interviewed the potential dual language teachers. The purpose was to look for information about the number of emergent bilinguals recently immigrated into the United States in the teachers’ classrooms. Briefly, I asked about the language use for academic instruction. After the interviews, I identified potential teachers; one who reported strictly separated languages (Mrs. Luna), and the teachers who engaged in translanguaging practices as part of academic instruction to teach emergent bilinguals (Mr. Godina and Mrs. Vidal). The criterion for teacher inclusion was to be teaching recent immigrants in a dual immersion class.

With the help of teachers, I selected the possible participants who at the time had arrived to El Paso from Mexico within the last two school years. I requested the district for public information about the ethnic composition of the selected school so that I could make sure I had accurate information from the interviewed teachers. After identifying the teachers where recent immigrants were placed, I started doing observations in the identified classrooms. This was with the purpose of appreciating how the academic spaces where separation or integration of languages would impact recent immigrants’ attitudes towards second language acquisition. I did

field work in this school for about five months on a daily basis (February 10 2014 until June 6, 2014). ,

The total number of recent immigrants, attending dual immersion classes was 8 at the time of my fieldwork. One of those students, even though considered a recent immigrant, was attending his third year at the target school. Consequently he did not qualify to participate in my study. From the seven recent immigrants attending dual language classes in this particular school, only six students agreed to participate in my investigation. A recent immigrant girl did not want to participate in my study, even though the mother gave consent.

At the end of the first observations in the classrooms, I asked the participant teachers for the schedules for the parent – teacher conferences with the purpose to attend those meetings and to talk to the recent immigrants’ parents about the study and the possible participation of their children in my study. After having the opportunity to talk with the parents, I visited the recent immigrant students at their classrooms and talked to them about the research project.

Individually, I was able to talk to them, answer their questions and provide the consent forms for the parents to sign, if willing to let their children participate in my investigation. At the parent – teacher conferences, once I explained the parents about the study and its purpose, I also provided the consent and assent forms for parents and their children to sign. Six recent immigrant students had the permission from their parents to participate in my study, and signed the assent forms to participate.

3.5.2. The participants at the time of the investigation

Teachers	Grade levels	Students
Mrs. Luna English/Spanish	1 st grade	Brianna Julian
Mrs. Vidal Spanish	5 th grade	Manuel Malena
Mrs. Pichardo English	5 th grade	Manuel Malena
Mrs. Urías Spanish	4 th grade	Manuel Malena Patricia
Mr. Godina English	4 th grade	Patricia Manuel Malena
Mrs. Sambrano Spanish teacher	3 th grade	Manuel Alberto
Mrs. Segobia English	3 rd grade. No longer in the school	Manuel

From a total of six recent immigrant students, based from observations in the classroom, I selected the cases of first graders Brianna and Julian, to show how the separation of languages emotionally affected the two recent immigrants. I developed the case of Patricia who was attending classes with Mr. Godina, a teacher who used translanguaging as a tool for helping the recent immigrant to feel welcome in a classroom. I selected the two 5th grade students, Malena and Manuel, who attended dual immersion classes with Mrs. Vidal in order to show the emotional experience of recent immigrants when experiencing bullying in their new school. From observations, this teacher also applied translanguaging strategies, but focused more on the second language, English. Finally, the case of Alberto was chosen because he was the nuance of

the investigation. He explained that he did not experience discomfort when attending the new school.

3.5.3. Brianna and Julian: The beginning and their background



The first language for Julian was Spanish and for Brianna was English. The two students were Mexican and immigrated to this country recently. Julian and Brianna attended first grade with Ms. Luna (pseudonym), a young lady in her early thirties from Ciudad Juárez. The teacher worked in Dallas for three years teaching dual immersion classes to first graders. This was the first year teaching in El Paso area.

3.5.3.1. Julian

Julian was a seven year old student who emigrated with his family from Ciudad Juárez to El Paso one and a half years from the time I did the investigation in his new school. Julian was attending his first grade with Ms. Luna. He had attended kindergarten in the same participating school. The student lived with his parents and two brothers. His father was a man in his late 30s who at the time of the study worked as a truck driver nearby and used to travel different states delivering pecan. Julian's father is an American citizen, status that was granted because his father was a Mexican man that was born in the US, but resided in Mexico. This fact was reported

by Julian's mother, Irma (pseudonym) who graciously explained, "no' batallaron nada para agarrar su ciudadanía."

Julian's family immigrated from Ciudad Juárez to El Paso to have better opportunities for their children, and better job opportunities for Julian's father, according to Irma. Irma mentioned that it was very important for them that their children were able to go to school in El Paso to learn English. Both parents were born and raised in Ciudad Juárez. Julian's mother said they got married when they were 17 years old. Irma explained that when their children were attending school in Juárez, they were very respectful with their teachers and never got into problems with other children. Irma did not work outside the home. She took care of their children and the maintenance of the house. Irma was a very active woman. She attended English classes at one of the schools in the participating district, and Zumba dancing lessons in the community.

3.5.3.2. Irma (Julian's mother)

Irma was about the same age as her husband. Julian has two brothers, Mario and Alex (pseudonyms). Mario was 13 years old at the beginning of the investigation, but turned 14 just before this study ended. He was attending the last year of middle school. Alex was attending his first year in the middle school. He attended his last year in the elementary school at the same school as Julian. "Me dejó solito" [He left me by myself] said Julian who seemed sad when recalling they could not take the school bus together.

Irma explains how important is for the family to learn English. During the first interview, Julian's mother explained that each one of her three boys experienced differently when attending to a new school, in a new language and in a new country. According to Irma, "*Alex batalló más para agarrarle el hilito al Ingles*" [Alex struggled more understanding the English language]. On the contrary she said, "*Mario es tan paciente, y ni triste estaba. Al contrario, él quería ir a la*

escuela a aprender el inglés. Lo que pasa es que el ya no le toco ir a la primaria. El vino y entro' a la middle school" [Mario is so patient, and was not even sad. To the contrary, he wanted to learn English. What happened is that he was not able to attend the elementary school. He came and started attending to the middle school]. Julian was very excited to go to school, Irma added. She explained that it was different for Julian, because “*él ya no alcanzó a ir a la escuela allá en Juárez. Estaba muy chiquito y acá fue donde empezó a ir.*” [Julian did not attend school at Juárez. He was too little, and he started going to school when we move to El Paso]. I asked about the experiences of Julian and the second language. Irma answered that Julian struggled more with his reading; even though all of the homework was in Spanish. She mentioned that she worried about her son not being able to advance learning the second language; “*Es que... yo me pregunto que cuando va a empezar a hablar el inglés? Se supone que se deben de aprender los dos idiomas al mismo tiempo, pero yo no lo veo.*” [It is because I ask myself, when Julian is going to speak in English? They supposed to learn the two languages at the same time, but I just do not see this happening].

3.5.3.3. Brianna

Briana is a Mexican 8 year-old student who was born and raised in Mexico. The family emigrated from Chihuahua to the US in 2013. They moved first to Utah for a few months, and then they moved to El Paso, according to Joanna (pseudonym), Brianna's mother. Brianna's family is of German descent and they are American citizens that decided to live in Mexico. This is a family of nine children, and the parents. Uncles and aunts live with them occasionally. The day of the interview with Joanna, her brother, two aunts and an uncle were visiting; cooking in the kitchen, talking and laughing while getting breakfast ready since the interview was at 8:00 am. Even though the mother speaks Spanish, the first language of the family is English. The

family members and Brianna's little brothers were only communicating in English the day of the interview. Brianna was attending a dual immersion class where Spanish was her second language. The student was at the beginning stage of Spanish language development.

3.5.3.4. Joanna: Brianna's mother

Joanna is a woman in her 40s who has nine children. The day of the parent-teacher conference at the participating school, she took three of her children with her, besides Brianna. Joanna told Mrs. Luna that even though Brianna's first language was English (the family's language), she wanted her daughter to learn Spanish since she was Mexican and needed to communicate in Mexico with other people in the second language. This was the reason she did not place her daughter in a monolingual class. Johanna did not share more information about the migration history of the family. She limited the conversation to the basics.

3.5.4. Malena and Alberto

At the beginning I did not realize that Malena and Alberto were siblings. It was after I gave students the consent forms for their parents that Malena told me I gave the same form to her brother Alberto who was in 3rd grade. Malena was a 10-year-old student who recently immigrated to this country from Ciudad Juárez with her brother, Alberto (a 7-year-old boy). They both lived with their father, who worked in El Paso but was born and raised in Juárez. Malena had two years residing with her father near El Paso. Alberto moved with his father on January of 2014 and started school the second semester. Their mother was a Mexican lady who was a kinder garden teacher in Juárez. The students used to go to Juárez on the weekends, sometimes during the week to see their mother. Their father, Mr. Hernandez, was in charge of the two students and was the one attending the parent-teacher conferences. The mother would communicate with her children's teachers by e-mail or by phone to ask about their academic

advancement, or to notify when the students were missing school along with the reasons for the absence.

3.5.4.1. Mr. Hernandez: Malena's father

Mr. Hernandez was a man in his late 30s who was divorced and brought his children to study to El Paso, where he was working at the time of the study. During the interview, Mr. Hernandez said that he was an immigrant who moved to California from Ciudad Juárez when he was 12 year old. He said he understood how hard it was for recent immigrants to get to a new school and learn a second language. Mr. Hernandez mentioned that he knew how hard it was when he did not know English; however, he had graduated from the high school. According to Mr. Hernandez, “maybe I am not very good in speaking with big words, or write very sophisticated, but I always liked math, and that is what helped me to maintain a good job” (March 4, 2014).

Mr. Hernandez said he brought his children with him because he wanted them to have better opportunities. He said that his kids stayed with him during the school days, from Monday to Friday, but went back to Juárez on the weekends and holidays to spend time with their mother. The oldest daughter was attending the high school in the same district, while Malena and Alberto were attending the participating elementary school.

3.5.5. Manuel

Manuel was a recent immigrant who immigrated to this country in 2012 to live with his father in El Paso, Texas. According to his father, Mr. Mora (pseudonym), he went to Ciudad Juárez to make arrangements with his ex-wife so that his son could move with him to the US. Mr. Mora, who re-married and has children with his second wife in El Paso, explained that he wanted the best for his oldest son, “I wanted my son to have better opportunities and to learn

English like his little brothers.” Manuel at the time of the investigation attended his 5th grade with Mrs. Vidal.

3.5.5.1. Mr. Mora: Manuel’s father

Mr. Mora was a man in his early 40s who got divorced in Juárez and moved to El Paso, Texas, where he worked. He remarried and had two children. From the first marriage, Mr. Mora had one boy, Manuel. He explained that when he recently brought Manuel to live with him and started to go to school, his child was not happy and wanted to go back to Juárez with his family. However, after two and a half years, Manuel was not crying anymore and doing well in school.

3.5.6. Patricia

Patricia was a 9-year-old girl attending a 4th grade dual immersion class. The student lived in El Paso with her grandmother along with her older sister. Patricia’s grandmother, Margarita, had full custody of Patricia and her middle-school-aged sister. Margarita added that as part of their job, Patricia’s parents constantly traveled to different places, in and out the US. Patricia was born in Ciudad Juárez where she started 4th grade, but moved to El Paso with her grandmother in October of 2014. Her older sister moved to El Paso in 2013.

According to Margarita, Patricia and her sister moved to El Paso because their mother was attacked by some individuals who were trying to assault her in Juárez. Margarita explained that it was one day that her daughter went to the bank and took her two children with her. The delinquents were waiting in a car outside the bank; the children saw how their mother was attacked by the man. Even though they were not able to grab the lady’s purse because she defended herself (she has studied karate for self-defense) she decided to take her children to live with their grandparents in El Paso. She was afraid for her children’s safety.

3.5.6.1 Margarita: Patricia's grandmother

Margarita was a lady in her late fifties who was retired, but got her masters' degree in business in Juárez, Mexico. Margarita moved to El Paso, Texas with her husband after retiring. Patricia's grandmother sold her house in Mexico to have her own house in the El Paso region. She stayed home to take care of her grandchildren. Margarita had legal custody of the children, and was the one who convinced Patricia's mother to let the student participate in my study. Margarita explained that even though she had legal custody of her grandchildren, her daughter was the one that made decisions: "*Yo no hago nada acerca de mis nietos sin el consentimiento de mi hija, aunque tenga la tutela legal de ellos.* [I do not do anything concerning my grandchildren without my daughter's consent, even though I have the legal custody of them]."

3.5.7. The participating teachers

3.5.7.1. Ms. Luna

Ms. Luna was a lady in her early 30s. She was Brianna and Julian's first grade teacher who came from Ciudad Juárez to El Paso as an adult and graduated as a bilingual teacher. The teacher attended the local university but lived in Ciudad Juárez with her parents until she moved to Dallas, Texas, after getting her teaching certification. After working in Dallas for two years, the teacher moved back to El Paso to accept a bilingual position in the participating school. At the time of the investigation, it was Ms. Luna's first year teaching in the Border PK-5 elementary school as a bilingual teacher. From observations in the teacher's classroom, I was able to observe that Ms. Luna applied a strict separation of languages policy to teach in a dual immersion class. In the first grade level at this school, students had only one teacher who taught one day in Spanish, and one day in English. Mrs. Luna's first grade students did not have to switch classes with other teacher.

3.5.7.2. Mrs. Vidal

Mrs. Vidal was Manuel and Malena's 5th grade teacher. The teacher is a Mexican lady in her mid-40s who immigrated with her family to the US from Piedras Negras, Coahuila, Mexico when she was 5 years old. At the time of the investigation, Mrs. Vidal was teaching elementary education for 16 years. Mrs. Vidal applied translanguageing in her classroom when mixing languages during academic instruction, and encouraged and assigned students to work cooperatively. Even though Mrs. Vidal was the 5th grade Spanish teacher in the dual language program, I observed that the main medium for the academic instruction was in English. It is expected that under a dual immersion model, academic instruction must be in English half of the academic time, and half in Spanish. However, in the last grade of the elementary education (5th grade) in this particular school, students were receiving 70% instruction in English, and 30% in Spanish.

3.5.7.3. Mrs. Pichardo

Mrs. Pichardo was a Mexican-American teacher in charge of the English instruction in the 5th grade. Her parents were from Mexican descent too, but were born in the US. Mrs. Pichardo was only interviewed because at the beginning of the school year, students used to go to her class (including Manuel and Malena). However, when attending the second semester, the students did not switch classes anymore because the majority of the academic instruction was in English. Thus, I did not do participant observation in her classroom. By the second semester of 5th grade, teachers delivered academic instruction mostly in English and focused on the standardized state test, STAAR (State of Texas Assessment of Academic Readiness). Therefore, the participating recent immigrants only attended classes with Mrs. Vidal who taught in English. She often used translanguageing strategies, such as mixing languages throughout the different

subjects to help recent immigrants, but the teacher focused more in English. Mrs. Vidal, explained academic concepts in Spanish when the recent immigrants were having trouble understanding instruction, but the academic concepts were constantly repeated in English.

3.5.7.4. Mrs. Sambrano

Mrs. Sambrano was a 3rd grade teacher in charge of the Spanish instruction in a dual immersion class. Mrs. Sambrano is a lady in her late 40s who moved from Ciudad Juárez to El Paso as an adult 11 years ago, in order to get her certification as a bilingual teacher. At the time, it was her third year teaching in the participating school. The teacher, very fluent in her first language, Spanish, explained that she was also afraid of speaking in her second language (English). She clarified that it was not because she did not know the language, but because she felt intimidated because of her accent. She mentioned that for the same reason, she was able to understand her recent immigrants when going to the “English class.”

“En cierta forma yo pasé por eso, y todavía me siento muy incómoda con el inglés. Todavía hasta la fecha. Entonces yo me identifico mucho con ellos. Totalmente me identifico... A mí me da mucho temor hablar en inglés. Nunca se me quita ese temor. Todavía no lo venzo.” *[In certain way, I went through the same experience as the recent immigrants, and I still feel uncomfortable when I speak in English. I still do, to this date. So, I identify myself a lot with them. I totally identify myself with them... I feel fear to speak in English. That fear never goes away]* (4, 5th, 2014).

Mrs. Sambrano was also Alberto’s Spanish teacher. From observations in the classroom, I saw that the teacher did not usually mix languages. Her instruction was only in Spanish. However, the teacher repeated instruction in the target language when students did not understand, and used gestures and explained instruction again using more examples and speaking

in Spanish in a very clear manner for students to understand. The teacher was always monitoring work group and encouraging students to help those who needed assistance in Spanish. Mrs. Sambrano also had a student assigned to do translation from Spanish to English for the four students whom Spanish language was not the first language.

3.5.7.5. Mr. Godina

Mr. Godina was a 4th grade teacher in charge of English instruction in Border PK-5 elementary school. The teacher, at the time of the investigation was 60 years old. The teacher was a second-generation immigrant, born in El Paso after his parents came to the US from Mexico City. Mr. Godina was Manuel's (in 2013), Malena's (in 2013), and Patricia's 4th grade English teacher (in 2014). From the observations and interviews with the teacher, Mr. Godina applied translanguaging strategies to teach not only the recent immigrants, but to teach students who needed help with their English using Spanish as a tool to help them understanding unknown concepts in the second language.

3.5.7.6. Mrs. Segovia:

Mrs. Segovia was Manuel's English teacher when he was in third grade in the same participating school (in 2012). The teacher lived in Ciudad Juárez and moved to El Paso when she got married, before getting her certification as a bilingual teacher in 2005. The teacher got her master's degrees as an instructional specialist. After graduating, Mrs. Segovia was a 6th grade teacher in one of the middle school of Border Independent School District. I met her when I was doing my internship with a 6th grade class at that school.. I met Mrs. Segovia again when she was a third grade teacher at Border PK-5 elementary school. Although at the time of the investigation Mrs. Segovia was no longer teaching in the participating school, I invited the teacher to be a

participant of my study because of her experiences teaching recent immigrants, her knowledge of the school, and the dual immersion program.

3.5.7.7. Mrs. Urías:

Mrs. Urías was the 4th grade Spanish teacher for Manuel, Malena and Patricia. Mrs. Urías was a Mexican lady in her late twenties who moved from Ciudad Juárez to El Paso to get her teacher certification. This was the third year teaching in the selected school. This teacher supported the idea of mixing languages; especially for recent immigrants because they were afraid to go to the English class for a week, according to Mrs. Urías. I was not able to do participant observation in Mrs. Urías' classroom because by the time of the preparation for the STAAR test, students did not switch classes in order to concentrate on the standardized test. Therefore, Patricia had to attend classes with Mr. Godina the whole time during the investigation in the school.

3.6. Data Collection

According to LeCompte and Schensul (2010), “essential ethnographic methods, especially participatory observation, and face to face interviews, are those without which no researcher can conduct ethnography” (p 173). Therefore, for this study, the tools for gathering data consisted of qualitative ethnographic methods that involved: participant observation, one to one and focus group in-depth interviews, field notes, and testimonios. I used these tools to gather rich data so that I could develop thick descriptions of the collected accounts (Geertz, 1973; Charmaz, 2009). Charmaz (2009) explains that those tools for gathering ethnographic data can be “writing extensive fieldnotes of observations, collecting respondents’ written personal accounts, and or compiling detail narratives (such as from transcribed tapes of interviews)” (p. 14). I also used testimonios as a methodological tool to elicit the voice of the recent immigrants

participating in my study. The unheard voices represent people who reclaim the right to narrate and disentangle questions from the truth of those who have been silenced and oppressed, as posited by Delgado-Bernal, Burciaga, and Flores Carmona (2012).

3.6.1. Individual interviews

Polkinghorne (2005) explains that qualitative research is focused on experiences, in order to have a better understanding of a particular phenomenon. The author explains that the interview is one of the most common instruments that a qualitative researcher uses to gather information. Shopes (2011) and Seidman (2006), talk about interviewing as the tool for gathering data when conducting qualitative research. In addition, Shopes (2011) argues that oral history is the instrument for collecting people's memories which includes the interpretation of its content which has to foster "knowledge and human dignity" (p. 451).

Drawing from the use of interviews as implemented by Emerson et al. (1995), Oakley (1981), Seidman (2006), Shopes (2011), and Zentella (1997), I conducted audio recorded interviews with parents (5) and teachers (7). I conducted these interviews at their homes or at school once or twice during the time of the investigation with each of the participants. Interviews took about an hour and were conducted in the language the participant felt more comfortable with. I did one to two interviews with parents and teachers, for a total of 12 interviews. I was able to take field notes while conducting the interviews and included the map and description of the field, as well as the impressions when starting the interviews and observations. The purpose for interviewing teachers and participant students' parents was to gather additional data, and to obtain recent immigrants' schooling experiences from different perspectives.

I spoke with each of the participants about the days, times and places to conduct the interviews and offered choices. Teachers preferred having the interview in their classroom; either

in the morning or at the end of the school day. Mrs. Segovia decided to meet with me out of campus since; she was no longer working in the same school. On the other hand, Irma (Julian's mother), and Joanna (Brianna's mother) decided having the interviews at their home. Lastly, Malena and Alberto's father asked to have the interview at a McDonalds close to where he was working at, during his lunch time. I did from one to two interviews per participant depending on the need for more data or when more time was needed to conclude the interviews.

3.6.2. Participant observation

The researcher is the primary instrument for doing ethnographic research (Emerson, Fretz & Shaw, 1995, & LeCompte & Schensul, 2010; Wolcott, 2009). According to Wolcott (2009), "for many researchers attracted to an approach in which the self is instrument, ethnography is simply a preferred label for an activity that goes by many names: participant observation research, descriptive research..." (p. 45-46). Wolcott (2009) points out that, the experience over participant observation is both, the basis and the filter by which everything else is "screened as we make sense of all what we have observed" (p. 53).

For this investigation, I did participant observation with the purpose to obtain information in a natural manner. I would take turns between participating with students, helping the teacher, and doing field notes. This was with the purpose of describing important events that may take place while observing and participating. Emerson, Fretz, and Shaw (1995) argue that, "participation in naturally occurring events may come to be explicitly oriented towards writing field notes" (p. 18). Emerson et al. (1995) also explain that when participating in research events, it is very important to start writing notes while the "researcher is still in the field, perhaps the immediate presence of talk and action that will be inscribed" (p. 18). The frequency of participant observations was four to five days a week for five months, depending on the

arrangements made with the participating teachers. I planned to take two days for observing and helping students attend a class where separation of language is implemented, and two days for observing the participant students attend classes where the teacher engaged in translanguaging as part of the academic instruction. The observations took place in different times and different days for each classroom. The dates and times were set up weekly depending on the times for each subject, and the need for data.

3.6.3. Field notes

Participant observation requires writing field notes to record important events and impressions when doing ethnography. Emerson et al. (2009) suggests jotting down field notes, and defines it as the research practice where the researcher uses “abbreviated words and phrases to use later to construct full field notes” (p. 19). I conducted participant observation while jotting down field notes in the participating classrooms. I jotted down important phrases and key words with the purpose to remember the important captured events and perceptions from observing while participating. I used small notepads and had them at hand in my pocket, so that I could write my field notes as soon as an important event or perception may occur. For each participant observation in the different classrooms I used different notepads to keep a control of data. Each day I wrote the field notes, I expanded the notes to remember those necessary details to make the description of interactions and the setting of the classroom more complete and richer.

3.6.4. Tape recordings

I used tape recordings as important tools for gathering data. I used a HD Sony and Olympus voice recorders to capture the participants’ tone of voice during the focus groups with students and during the individual interviews with teachers and parents. The emphasis of the focus groups was to let students give testimonio of their feelings towards the immersion of the

second language, or towards the inclusion of the first and second language as academic tools. Erickson (1992), Hall (2002), and Ochs, (2006), address the importance of analyzing data from audio and videotapes, as a tool for understanding situated interactions. The authors agree with the idea that technology is an important instrument for gathering research data, and that it is important to analyze it properly in order to capture the most detailed verbal and nonverbal interaction between participants.

3.6.5. Testimonios:

As defined by Saavedra (2011), Testimonio is a “Latin American literary genre that has been used by individuals to tell a collective story and history of oppression through the narrative of an individual” (p 261). In this study, testimonio genre is used to share my own experiences as an immigrant woman and as a bilingual teacher, as well as to invite the participants to share their experiences as recent immigrants in this country.

Drawing from the use of testimonios as a genre for free expression used by the Critical Latina/o Race Theory, this study adopted testimonios as one of the methods to collect data. According to Huber (2009) “testimonio can contribute to the growing scholarship on critical race methodologies which seeks to disrupt the apartheid of knowledge in academia, moving toward educational research guided by racial and social justice for Communities of Color” (p 640). Saavedra (2010) explains how she has used testimonios as part of her pedagogy; with the purpose to allow them to share their experiences and identities through the curriculum. The author highlights the fact that the use of testimonio “continues the projects of critical pedagogies that stem young children in the classrooms” (Saavedra, 2009, p. 261). Beverly (2005) agrees with Saavedra (2009) and claims that testimonio is an “affirmation of authority of personal experience” (p. 548).

Through testimonios, the students participants of this study were able to express themselves; their experiences when immersed in a new language in an environment that separates their language to acquire the new, or when language is included for academic instruction. Calderon et al. (2012) use Elenes (2011) to talk about decolonization as a research process for teachers and activist scholars. According to Calderon, Delgado, Perez, Malagon and Veléz (2012), the process of decolonization as a research method “is not to recover the silenced voices by using hegemonic categories of analysis, but to change the methodological tools and categories to reclaim those neglected voices” (p. 514).

In this study, my testimonios acted as open loops to invite and motivate the participants to share their own testimonios, and build up a sense of trust and rapport when able to identify, directly or indirectly, with myself as the researcher and with other participants of this study. Through focus groups, the sessions started with my testimonio, then, the participants would be provided with agendas to write their own. Students will be invited to make a drawing in their agendas that represent their experiences from testimonios. After writing or drawing their testimonios in their agendas, the participants were invited to verbally share their experiences and drawings with the group.

Lopez-Gopar (2009) uses testimonios to capture students’ perceptions while receiving academic instruction in classes that applied translanguaging as a paradigm. Lopez-Gopar shows the analysis of the discourse collected from students and pre-service teachers showing excerpts from the testimonios. Saavedra (2012) uses testimonios as a way to make students feel welcome in an academic environment where teacher and students share their testimonios as pedagogy. According to Saavedra (2012), “I urge teachers que empiecen con su historia/begin with your own story. Learning our own positionality, excavate our privilege and cultural borderlands, and

how we can connect with our students in authentic ways” (p. 265). This academic advice can also be applied when conducting ethnographic research where positionality can definitely help the researcher gain trust among his/her participants. Furthermore, Lopez-Gopar (2009) and Saavedra (2012) agree with the idea of using testimonios to give voice to those minority students that have being oppressed through education. The authors use CRT (Critical Race Theory) for doing their research.

3.6.6. Focus groups

Kamberelis and Dimitriadis, (2006), suggest the use of focus groups and broadly define it as “collective conversations or group interviews” (p 887). Using Bakhtin (1986) the authors explain that this qualitative research method allows participants to share their own experiences in a natural environment that form part of their social life through “conversations, group discussions, negotiations, and the like” (p. 887). The authors point out that the implementation of focus groups can challenge hegemonies. They use Freire’s Pedagogy of the Oppressed to explain that the oppressed needs to reach critical consciousness and express it in order to reach “praxis or critical reflection inextricably linked to political action in the real world” (p. 980). From this point of view, focus groups as research instruments allow the participants to share their own experiences and to the researcher to analyze discourse to uncover inequalities.

Similarly, Kozol (1991) reveals inequalities existent within the educational system in the United States. By applying focus groups, Kozol was able to capture disadvantaged minority students’ experiences with unequal treatment in their classrooms in comparison with those academic spaces that favor the privileged mainstream students that are provided with the necessary academic tools for an effective learning including better classroom conditions. Referring to focus groups as the research tool for his research, Kozol (1991) explains that “some

of the best ideas that I have heard come out of discussions held within the neighborhood themselves” (p 106). In addition, Kemberelis and Dimitriadis (2006) explain that focus groups are been used by feminist movements that allow them uncovering women’s experiences with oppression by collecting their stories in a collective manner. For Kemberelis et al. (2006) “these groups constitute spaces for generating collective testimonies and these testimonies help both individual woman and groups of women to find and produce their own unique and powerful “voices” (p. 983).

I conducted focus groups with all students, up to four times per student. I audio-recorded the focus group interviews during school hours with students. I divided the focus groups in two. One group for these sessions was integrated by three students; Malena, Manuel, and Alberto. The focus group sessions with these students took place in the mornings; from 7:45am to 8:40 am. This time was granted by Mrs. Vidal since each morning from 8:00 am to 8:45 am, it was the time for reading. I did the focus groups one per month up to four times. Patricia joined these sessions when the participating students already had attended to the first two meetings. This was because her grandmother, Margarita, at the beginning of the investigation was not sure if Patricia’s mother would give the permission for her granddaughter to participate in the study.

The second group of students who participated in the focus groups was for the first graders, Julian and Brianna. I conducted only two focus group meetings with them because the first grade students engaged in more drawing rather than getting into a broad conversation like the 3rd and 5th grade students. Two sessions provided enough information about their testimonios. The first session took place also at the library at the beginning of the investigation. The second

and last session took place at the end of the research in the participating school, at the beginning of June.

I started the focus group sessions by sharing my own testimonio as an emergent bilingual who took English as a Second Language classes; I focused on my feelings. Then, I asked students to write and/or draw their testimonios about their academic experiences at their new school in the agendas I provided. The questions for the focus group sessions were based on these students' academic experiences when confronting separation or integration of languages in their classrooms; their feelings and their perceptions when receiving academic instruction in either language or when their first language is separated from the new. I invited those students to draw something that resembled their academic experiences along with their testimonios. Students were welcome to share their experiences and drawings with the group. If any student was not willing to share his/her writings, they were not forced to do so. However, they would be more than welcome to stay and listen to the testimonios shared by the other participants as well as to see the drawings.

I used pseudonyms to list students with their assigned agendas. Agendas were analyzed after each focus group session, and locked into a safety box. A new agenda was provided to students during each focus group session. Only I had access to the agendas with individual students' writings based on questions related to their previous and recent academic experiences.

3.7. Data Management and Analysis of Data

3.7.1. Individual interviews, participant observation, and audio recordings

Seidman (2006) focuses on how to analyze, interpret, and share interview data. The author mentions the importance of keeping the interviewee's confidentiality, and suggests the use of codes or pseudonyms for writing down participants' names. Any document that may

show the narrator's information should be locked in a safe place. Seidman (2006) also suggests accurately labeling audio types of interview, so that the interviewer can have easy access to such information. Following Seidman's ideas, I labeled audio data in e-files in my personal computer. Each interview, for instance, was numbered by the voice recorder. When downloaded to the computer and in a memory stick, I wrote last four digits of each interview on a separate document with the first initial of the participants. I divided the interviews into two sections; parents and teachers. I did the same thing with the focus group sessions. I downloaded the voice recordings into the computer and wrote fsession1, 2, 3, or 4, followed by the two letters of the name of one of the members of each group; I divided the focus groups in two, the first graders (Julian and Brianna), and the 5th graders with Patricia and Alberto; Malena's brother. For example, fsession1ma (focus group session 1malenas' group), or fsession2Br (focus group2Brianna's group).

I used grounded theory for analyzing the interviews, the same as with the field notes, and audio recordings. Using grounded theory, I started analyzing early data to be able to identify patterns, and look for more relevant information to my research interest. For example, when I saw that Brianna was not participating during the Spanish instruction day, I went back to do more observations looking for participation and gestures on the participating students (Brianna and Julian) that could give me more information about the engagement or lack of participation when the instruction was in Spanish or English. Each day I went to do observation, I would analyze data at home so that I could be able to keep looking for more specific data. I did participant observation for over 4 months; from February to June, 2014.

According to Emerson, Fritz and Shaw (1995), "producing full field notes from jotting is not a mechanical process. The fieldworker must construct something out of these bits and pieces

of information together with the recollection of events, incidents, and experiences they inspire” (p. 49). In this study, I analyzed data from field notes on a daily or weekly basis. By doing this I was able to remember the important events and perceptions experienced on each day going to the field. Early analysis of data is appropriate when using grounded theory since with this research approach, data is analyzed constantly at an early stage (Charmaz, 2009).

I started writing and extending the observations made each day. I connected information accumulated to make sense of the whole experience. This was possible by analyzing what is more important to include in the writing and what to leave out of it. I looked for patterns throughout the collection of field notes to come out with the development of full fieldnotes. According to Emerson et al. (1995), “in turning jottings and head notes into full notes, the fieldworker is already engaged in a sort of preliminary analysis whereby the others experience, both creating and discovering patterns of interaction” (p. 51).

The following is an example of data analysis when looking for patterns throughout the field notes from participant observation: The highlighted words are examples of copying as a translanguaging practice that students in their cooperative groups used to help one another.

Translanguaging: Copying

2/12/14

Patricia: ¿Cómo se escribe “águila” en inglés? [¿How do you write “águila” in English?]

On a paper, one of her classmates wrote: “eagle”

Patricia lo copia en su diagrama. (Patricia copied the word on her diagram)

Translanguaging: Copying with the teacher

Mr. G to me: ¿Cómo se dice medusa en inglés? [How did you say “medusa” in English?]

Researcher to Patricia: ¿Qué es una medusa? [What is a medusa?]

Ella lo explica en español. “Que parecen gelatina... redondas.” [She explained in Spanish... The ones that are like gelatin... rounded]

Mr. Godina: jelly fish!

Then she asks how to write it in English.

The teacher writes it on a sheet of paper.

Patricia lo copia [Patricia copied the word]

I coded the extended notes, so that I could come up with fragments of data that could be included into “chunks of varying size – words, phrases, sentences or whole paragraphs connected or unconnected to a specific setting” (Milles and Huberman, 1994, p. 56). Since I was able to analyze early data and coming up with codes from the beginning of the investigation, I implemented Grounded Theory, as presented by Charmaz (2006). Separating, sorting and synthesizing data through the process of coding. According to Charmaz (2006); “coding means that we attach labels to segments of data that depict what the segment is about” (p. 3). By using this method of Grounded Theory for analysis of data, I was able to constantly compare gathered data with initial data. Charmaz explains that grounded theory is based on a comparative method that guides the ethnographer to: “1) compare data with data from the beginning of the research, 2) to compare the data with emergent categories, and 3) to demonstrate relations between concepts and categories” (Charmaz, 2006, p. 23). For example, when analyzing the field notes and able to see the patterns, I connected them to the interviews and testimonios from focus groups. Analysis of testimonios and drawings were crucial tools to extend the results and connect all sources of data beginning with field notes, participant observation, then with focus group sessions and interviews.

The following is an example of coding:

Translanguaging in the classroom - students	Strategies (within all participant students)
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Copying from partners • Writing in a paper unknown words • Asking group members • Discussions in both languages • Mixing languages • Translating • Drawing

The following are the categories after looking for patterns and coding from participant observation:

Table 5.1 Translanguaging categories for academic instruction and for cooperative work

Translanguaging Strategies

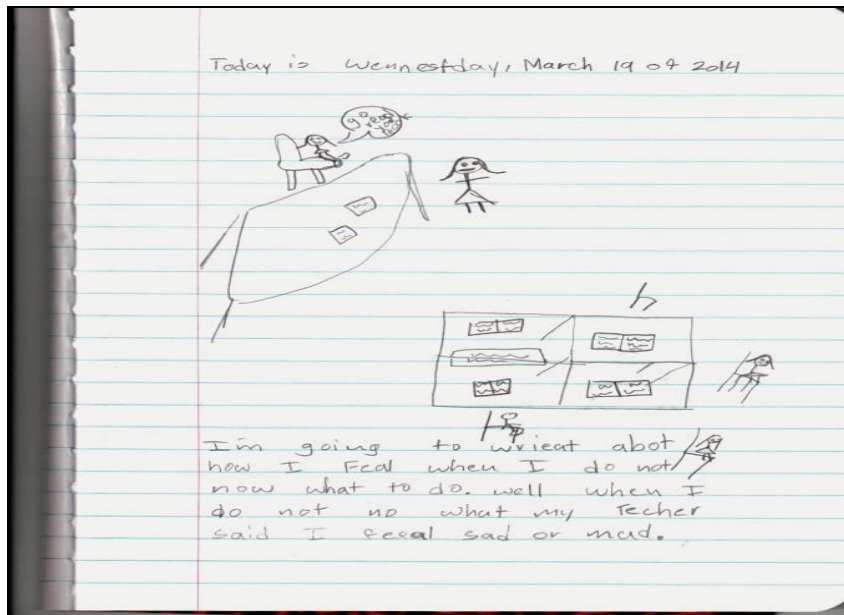
<i>Mr. Godina's academic instruction in the English class</i>	<i>Students in their group</i>
Mixing languages for read-alouds	Discussion about the text and assignments in both languages
Mixing languages to explain academic concepts	Writing and copying words in English
Individual instruction in Spanish	Translation
	Drawing and taking notes about a book in both languages

3.7.2. Testimonios: Data analysis

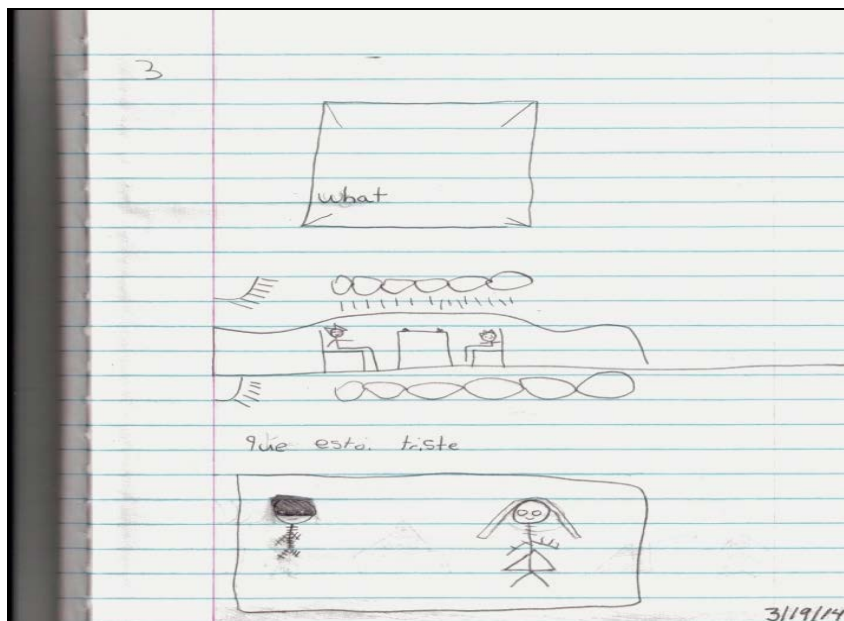
Data obtained from testimonios was analyzed using grounded theory at the beginning of the investigation looking for frequencies of statements among the participants. By doing early analysis using grounded theory, I was able to go back and ask more questions to the participants until reaching saturation of data (Charmaz, 2006). One can reach saturation of data when the created categories of data are “saturated when gathering fresh data no longer sparks new theoretical insights, nor reveals new properties of these core theoretical categories” (Charmaz, 2006, p. 113). The findings from testimonios were presented using excerpts from students’ testimonios along with the connection of parents and teacher’s responses to questions. Such questions were relevant to students’ answers in their testimonios; this connection was used as a method to triangulate data.

The following is an example of patterns encountered throughout the focus groups. This was the first analysis stage. However, the focus of the analysis was on the students’ testimonios, from their own voice, but making connections with their experiences when attending the new school and language use by the teacher. In addition, an emphasis was given to their responses

(testimonios) of the recent immigrants about their feelings in academic environments where the teacher separated or included languages for academic instruction.



Brianna's response to the question about how do they feel when going to the class given in their second language I am going to write about how I feel when I do not know what to do. Well, when I do not know what my teacher said, **I feel sad** or mad.



Julian's response to the question about how do they feel when going to the class given in their second language.

"Que esta triste." - Que estoy triste
[That **I feel sad**]

When I saw the frequency on the students' responses, by the next focus groups I restated their answers and asked additional information about significant topics I found in their responses. For example, I asked Brianna and Julian to explain more about their experiences when they felt

sad. Since Julian used the word “ástima” (feeling sorry for himself) to describe how he felt when he was not able to understand the teacher. In the next session, I asked Julian what other word he would use instead of “laástima,” and he agreed that lástima was similar to being sad (triste); responses presented in chapter 5. I followed the same procedure for analyzing the agendas after the course of all the focus groups with the different participants, and the questions were the same for all of the students.

A discourse analysis in this dissertation is the process in which the researcher obtains and analyzes narratives in the form of testimonios for listening to the voices of those whose voices have not being heard. Stating the context of this particular discourse in this particular study, it is very important to mention that, as Coffey and Atkinson (1996) points out, “there are not formulae or recipes for the “best” way to analyze the stories we elicit and collect” (p. 80). The authors suggest researchers in the analytical process of discourse to be open to the “possibilities for a variety of analytic strategies” (p. 80).

As mentioned previously, the intention of analyzing testimonios was to elicit students’ voices and possible counter-stories, taking in consideration that when a voice is not heard is because a dominant voice is taking place over the unheard voice, as argued by Coffey and Atkinson. Using Goodson (1995), Coffey and Atkinson (1996) highlight that “stories can be used to rely dominant voices or can be appropriated to “give voices” to otherwise silenced groups and individuals” (p. 78). In this case, the voice of the silenced group corresponded to recent immigrants in the US regarding their schooling experiences and the affective impact on separation or integration of language in the classrooms.

Jaworski and Coupland (2001) explain that narrative analysis is an important tradition within discourse analysis. The authors highlight the fact that it’s, “through narrative discourse

that we comprehend the world and present our understanding of it to others” (Jaworski & Coupland, 2002, p. 34). It is important to mention that I used an analytical lens that was mainly focus on the narrators’ own voice. This helped keep the authentic message the participants provide through their narratives. However, I was able to alternate my voice and the narrator’s when interpreting excerpts that are connected to the observations made in the classrooms. This strategy to analyze narratives is drawn from the idea in favor of a “flexible typology” where the researcher overcomes a rigid way to present narrative where the researcher uses only one voice to interpret narrative and alternate showing the participants’ voice with the voice of the researcher (Chase, 2006).

Jaworski and Coupland (2001) explain that this discourse analysis is a critical perspective “oriented to social change in the ideological use of language” (p. 34). This notion of critical discourse analysis is consistent with the notion of the chosen theoretical frame this proposal is based on. LatCrit gives voice to the oppressed and heteroglossia and dialogism addressed the need for allowing individuals to use any language or utterance to dialogue about their own point of view of the world, as addressed by Bakhtin (1981), within their testimony. The analysis of testimonios in this sense was based on using the participants’ own voice, and presenting those excerpts that capture the participants’ feelings and perceptions when confronting the separation or the integration of languages in the new classrooms. At the same time, using Grounded Theory presented by Charmaz (2006) in specific applying coding of data (categorizing segments of data) the narratives were analyzed from the beginning of the investigation conducting both, open and focused coding which according to Charmaz (2006) “means using the most significant and/or frequent early codes to sift through large amount of data” (p. 57).

3.8 Trustworthiness

Mishler (1990) and Mathison (1998) address important aspects of qualitative research. Mathison (1998) talks about the importance of applying triangulation of data as the tool for increasing validity of research interpretation. The author mentions that through triangulation, the researcher is able to apply diverse methods for gathering data. According to Mathison (1988), “triangulation is typically perceived to be a strategy for improving the validity of research” (p 13). Mishler (1990) also argues that the researcher can evaluate trustworthiness when reporting observations and interpretations. The author introduces the study of narratives as a broad area of inquiry and mentions that this study emerges “representing the individuals’ general solution of the task of making sense of his or her life” (p 426). Mishler mentions that for his analysis of tests samples, from narratives, he implemented grounded theory which “involves a continual dialect between data analysis and theory” (p 427). I was able to accomplish triangulation of data for this dissertation through the application of diverse qualitative methods for gathering data, such as doing participant observation in classrooms, testimonios with recent immigrants, and interviews with their parents and their teachers concerning these students’ schooling experiences in the new country. Triangulation gave more trustworthiness to my research since I was able to get additional information about students’ experiences from different perspectives. This research approach is perceived as the strategy to improve validity in research (Mathison, 1988; Mishler, 1990).

Chapter 4

Emotional Impact of Translanguaging: Strategies, Interactions, and Outcomes

4.1 Introduction:

This chapter presents Patricia's case, a 4th grade recent immigrant student who at the time of the investigation was attending a dual language immersion class where separation of languages was applied in a flexible manner and where translanguaging took place. This case helped answer the question about how the translanguaging practices are implemented in dual language immersion classes where the separation of languages is a policy of the dual language program. This study also helped answering the question about the emotions recent immigrants experienced when attending classes where the teacher used translanguaging strategies to teach recent immigrants. Through the analysis of focus groups with students, interviews with the teacher and one parent along with participant observation in the classroom, I was able to address these questions that involve translanguaging practices and the emotional aspects of second language learning among recent immigrants.

Translanguaging practices in my study represent a heteroglossic environment where students' languages and voices are part of one community. Dialogism is the representation of the multiple voices (polyphony) —as in a novel; one of the main foci of Bakhtin (1981). The concept of polyphony in Bakhtin (1981) signifies multiple voices. This term is borrowed from musical terminology (Bakhtin, 1981; Robinson, 2011) and represents Bakhtin's ideas of dialogism where polyphony takes place, and where all of the voices are heard and complement each other. A novel is a literary genre known as the utterance that represents language in written words. According to Bakhtin (1981), "the novel can be defined as a diversity of social speech types (sometimes even diversity of languages) and a diversity of individual voices artistically

organized” (p. 262). In other words, a novel is a whole. It is the literary genre where the diverse characters’ voices are represented in a narrative, and interact with one another to give meaning to the story. That said, I applied the idea of multiple voices to analyze teachers’ and students’ utterances in dual language classrooms. These utterances are the translanguaging practices used to perform bilingually in these academic spaces. One example in this particular study is the case of Mr. Godina’s class, wherein during instruction the teacher, as well as students involved in group work, practiced translanguaging strategies to help each other. The whole classroom as a community integrated the different voices and utterances, and I was able to observe an academic environment that welcomed the recent immigrant, Patricia.

In addition to the idea of multiple voices, testimonios as used by LatCrit, were a component of this study. As a methodology, testimonios facilitated gathering students’ stories which showcase the unheard voices in focus groups during dialog. Ladson-Billings and Tate (2006) point out that the voices of people of color are often silenced by the dominant voices. The voices of recent immigrants are revealed in this dissertation. These voices disclose their schooling experiences and feelings towards the strict or flexible separation of languages in the dual language classrooms. In this particular case, the voice of Patricia is presented in regards to her schooling experiences in a class where translanguaging was part of the academic instruction, and when cooperative learning occurred. The participants’ voices are the counterstories that challenge the dominant stories, and can be the tool to advocate for educational reform (Delgado, R; 1989; Solorzano & Yosso, 2001). The counter-stories recent immigrant children share with me challenge the dominant stories about the need to apply a strict separation of languages policy in order to help students become bilingual and biliterate.

In this chapter, the case of Patricia is presented as a set of vignettes where the teacher, Mr. Godina, implemented translanguaging strategies to teach students and to help recent immigrants understanding the lessons in English. Patricia's voice regarding translanguaging practices implemented by Mr. Godina is also highlighted. At the time of the fieldwork, this new immigrant student had recently started attending classes with this teacher (for about five months) in her new school.

This case is presented to disclose how the translanguaging practices impacted the student, Patricia. I conducted 140 hours of participant observation in this particular classroom throughout the duration of the fieldwork (five months). I interviewed Mr. Godina in order to get to know his perception of translanguaging and the impact of this pedagogy on recent immigrants. I also present Margarita's (Patricia's grandmother) point of view and her knowledge about Mr. Godina's academic practices, in addition to Patricia's attitudes towards her new schooling experiences (from her testimonios) in her first year attending the US school. These sources of data allow triangulation to promote trustworthiness and improve the validity of this investigation as posited by Mathison (1988) and Mishler (1990).

I observed that Mr. Godina practiced translanguaging with recent immigrants in the following ways: By mixing languages when explaining academic concepts in Spanish, when supporting the development of students' grammatical skills, and for read-alouds where students were allowed to follow the teacher's reading in English in their native language, Spanish. Examples of these are presented throughout the chapter. In spite of translanguaging practices, Mr. Godina still conducted academic instruction mainly in the language of the curriculum, English. The teacher implemented these strategies of translanguaging despite the fact that the program model mandates that Spanish should be separated from the target language, English.

4.2. English and Spanish: Teachers' Perceptions of the Flexible Separation of Languages

The first day I met Mr. Godina, I asked if he used Spanish with recent immigrant students during his English class. The teacher explained, "I just have to... It is unfortunate that we only have the dual language classes [referring here not to the program itself but to the strict separation of language policy] for recent immigrants... Recent immigrants do not know English... How are they supposed to learn if they do not understand?" (March 5, 2014). The teacher explained that recent immigrants needed to receive all of the help in their first language. The following are Mrs. Urías and Mr. Godina's (Patricia's 4th grade teachers) responses when I asked them regarding their perception about including Spanish during academic instruction in English.

During the interview with Mr. Godina, the teacher openly stated that even though he was not allowed to help recent immigrants with translation in their first language, as a policy of the dual language program, he still did so, in order to help them to understand academic instruction delivered in English:

Here at this school, recent immigrants are immediately placed into a dual language classroom. It is the only place they can go. Do I translate? Yes. Am I supposed to translate? No. I am not supposed to. Dual Language says no... We keep the two languages separated because we have two teachers. But we are compelled to do so in order to support and aid the child in the transitioning to the American school. So, we do it. And I am not going to let the students fall through the cracks just based on the rigidity of the model (March 5, 2014).

Mr. Godina's teacher partner, Mrs. Urías was in charge of Spanish instruction under the dual language program in this particular school. She also agreed with the idea of using translanguaging as a pedagogical strategy to support recent immigrants. She explained that in

order to help recent immigrants, teachers need to break the rules. The teacher referred to the strict separation of languages that was a policy for the dual immersion classes. Mrs. Urías was aware of the fact that Mr. Godina did not follow this policy and mixed languages to help recent immigrants understand academic instruction delivered in English. The teacher explained that when students had to switch classes from Spanish to English, recent immigrants did not want to do so. In Mrs. Urías Spanish class, students were able to understand everything in their native language. They were in their comfort zone. She added that recent immigrants seemed afraid when going to the English class. According to Mrs. Urías:

Cuando están en español ellos están muy contentos porque es algo que ellos están comprendiendo, y cuando van a la clase de inglés si hay mucho miedo. Si nos han tocado estudiantes, inmigrantes recientes que si han llorado, que ya no quieren venir a la escuela las primeras semanas, y es un trabajo muy difícil, especialmente para el maestro de inglés [Mr. Godina] porque aunque él es un maestro excelente y trata de incluirlos, y de traducirles, lamentablemente el programa no es así. Entonces él está allí quebrando un poco las reglas por el bien del estudiante, para tratar de motivarlos porque si se sienten muy tristes cuando van a la clase de inglés. [When the students are in the Spanish class, they are very happy because they understand. When they go to the English class they are afraid. We have had students, recent immigrants that have cried, that do not want to come to the school the first weeks, it is a very hard work, especially for Mr. Godina because, even though he is a very excellent teacher, and tries to include the students, and tries to translate for them, unfortunately the program is not like that. Therefore, he is breaking the rules for students' own good to keep them motivated because they do feel sad when they go to the English class] (March 24, 2014).

Both teachers agreed with the idea of not implementing a rigid separation of languages policy when having recent immigrants in their classrooms. This form of resistance towards separation of language policy among teachers was observed several times and confirmed by the three teachers using translanguaging strategies throughout their academic instruction: Mr. Godina, Mrs. Urías, and Mrs. Vidal (this last case is presented in chapter 6). In all these cases, the teachers explained that it is necessary to use Spanish to aid recent immigrants understanding the lectures that had to be delivered in English, as well as to support and motivate them.

Separation of languages, a policy for dual language instruction, is the practice where the teachers should deliver their academic instruction in the language of the curriculum without mixing another language. Even though separation of languages is a key component to help students to become bilingual and biliterate (Adelman Reyes, 2007; Collier & Thomas, 2004; Cummins, 2005; Lee et al., 2008), it should not be implemented in an exclusionary manner, as Cummins (2005) argues. For some researchers, this policy favors those students that are placed in these classrooms to compete in a multilingual world, English speakers (Cummins 2000; Valdés, 1997).

Valdés (1997) agrees with the idea about separation of languages as the strategy that favors English speakers in dual language classes. Valdés explains that mainstream parents are taking advantage of Spanish, the first language of recent immigrant students, to immerse those in privileged social status to gain more prestigious opportunities when reaching bilingualism. Similar to Valdés, Cummins (2000) and Palmer (2009) argue that separating languages during academic instruction in a dual language classroom favors non-minorities, English dominant population. In the program I studied, academic instruction was to be delivered exclusively in each of the languages for a week. Thus, the use of the translanguaging strategy of mixing

languages by teachers to assist recent immigrants is a form of resistance towards the separation of languages policy where the two languages are included, not separated.

4.3. Mr. Godina and Patricia in the Classroom: The Context

Mr. Godina was the 4th grade English teacher in the dual language immersion program. Mr. Godina had to use English to teach students. Students attended this class for one week, alternating with the Spanish teacher, Mrs. Urias, where students received Spanish instruction for a week. In this classroom students were assigned to help each other, and the teacher served as a facilitator when students needed academic help. Students worked cooperatively in groups of three or four. The classroom walls and part of the board were adorned with signs and visuals, such as drawings and pictures with descriptions written in English. The schedule and learning objectives were written on the board also in English. The teacher's desk was located at the front of the classroom; to the side against the door. On the front side of the classroom, there was a round table where the teacher occasionally helped students who needed of his assistance. In the back, against the wall, were five computers for students to take reading tests (See figure 4.1 presented next).

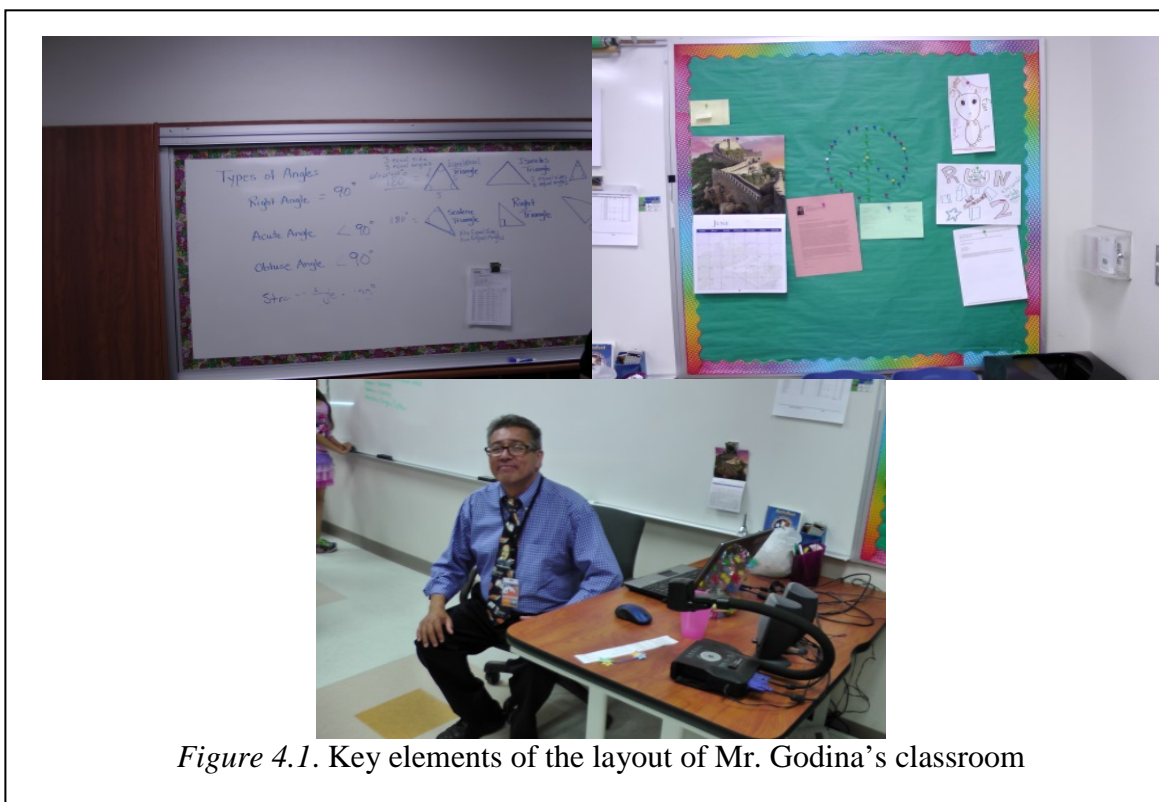


Figure 4.1. Key elements of the layout of Mr. Godina's classroom

As I entered the classroom, students were working in their groups helping each other while Mr. Godina monitored group work, and guided students when needed support. Mr. Godina explained that students' language development in English varied in his classroom. According to the teacher, the majority of students interacted mostly in English due to the fact that most of them started attending the dual immersion program in kindergarten. There were also a few students who preferred speaking in Spanish while completing their English assignments. Other students, who had entered the program recently, such as the recent immigrants, used only Spanish. When I was able to observe these interactions and language usage among students, I corroborated Mr. Godina's statement about the diverse levels of English proficiency among students.

Thus, a few students seemed to struggle with the English assignments. Their second language was not at the 4th-grade level thus far, as explained by Mr. Godina. I observed that

sometimes when these students were not able to finish their assignment, they stopped working and asked for assistance to students whose English language skills were more developed. Mr. Godina organized the cooperative groups as heterogeneous where students with strong English skills would be assigned to a group with students who needed more help in English. In this student-centered academic environment, the teacher taught students at the beginning of each academic subject time, and helped them by applying translanguaging strategies such as mixing languages throughout the lessons (examples presented throughout this chapter). However, students most of the time were working and helping each other, continually discussing academic assignments in group; with exception of the times when they had to take tests. At all times, Mr. Godina would walk around the classroom monitoring group work; an important characteristic of cooperative work where students help each other, and the teacher monitors and guides group work to ensure cooperative learning (Johnson and Johnson, 1999; Kagan, 1995).

Throughout the time of my participant observation in Patricia's classroom (140 hrs.), I observed that students were very engaged in their activities and discussing about their assignment in both languages. From my observations, I perceived a safe academic environment when students were working cooperatively, and Mr. Godina would assist them on understanding academic instruction in Spanish, when needed. The teacher guided students and kept control of the classroom which contributed to maintaining a safe academic environment. Due to the purposeful interactions the groups needed to complete their task, students would occasionally socialize about topics other than their assignment, but the teacher redirected students' focus on the learning. Mr. Godina would remind students to be on track with the work. "Excuse me ladies and gentleman! I think you are getting a little too loud," (March 4, 2014) the teacher used to say with a soft tone of voice. The students would follow through by continuing their group work,

making sure their noise levels were kept low. Mr. Godina monitored addressing students' behaviors, and avidly made sure they were on task. The teacher, Mr. Godina, constantly monitored the functionality of the groups. For example, during one focus group, Patricia revealed that at the beginning of the school year she did not feel comfortable with her group members because their refusal to assist her. . Patricia's grandmother corroborated this information. Margarita explained that when Mr. Godina noticed that Patricia was not getting academic assistance from the group she was placed with, he moved her to a new group where Patricia felt better support. Thus, the teacher not only applied translanguaging strategies to aid the recent immigrant, but also he would make sure the student was getting along with her team members. It is important to mention that this practice was not applied by the teachers of Manuel and Malena (the 5th graders), who experienced bullying in their classrooms (presented in chapter 6).

In the following section, I will present the diverse categories of translanguaging among the teacher and the students (see summary in table 4.1). After each of the categories of translanguaging are briefly presented, I elaborate on a few events that involve these translanguaging practices.

4.4. Translanguaging Strategies

Table 4.1 Translanguaging categories for academic instruction and cooperative work

<i>Mr. Godina's academic instruction</i>	<i>Cooperative group</i>
Mixing languages for read-alouds: whole group	Discussion about the text and assignments in both languages
Mixing languages to explain academic concepts: whole group	Writing and copying words in English
Individual instruction in Spanish	Translation
	Drawing and taking notes about a book in both languages

In the following sections, I present the translanguaging categories that Mr. Godina used when teaching and the translanguaging strategies students used when working cooperatively in groups. Data presented here was gathered by conducting participant observation in the classroom, and an interview with Mr. Godina.

4.4.1. Read alouds: Reading time

One of the translanguaging strategies that Mr. Godina implemented was using both, English and Spanish, when doing read-alouds (where the teacher reads the book aloud while students follow the reading silently). Read-alouds is an effective reading strategy that motivates students to read while extending their vocabulary and increasing their liking for reading (Fisher, Flood, & Lapp, 2004; Hoffman, Roser, & Batle, 1993; Richardson, 2000). According to Richardson (2000), “read-alouds model expressive, enthusiastic reading, transmit the pleasure of reading, and invite listeners to read” (p. 3). This reading strategy became a translanguaging practice when the teacher allowed students to read the books in English or Spanish, according to their reading skills in each language. In this case, the read-alouds were in English; however, he allowed some students to follow the reading with the Spanish version of the book. The following is the event where the teacher used this strategy during reading time.

When I entered the classroom on that day, Mr. Godina was getting ready for reading the book *Because of Winn-Dixie* by Kate DiCamillo aloud. The teacher gave each of the students a copy of the book to read. The teacher explained that whenever they were reading a book aloud from the library together, he would allow recent immigrants or other students who were not ready for reading the book in English to read the Spanish version. The teacher explained, “I regularly do this to help students who do not know how to read in English very well. At the same

time they can hear the reading in English and make connections between languages” (April 29, 14).

I observed the teacher applying this strategy only once during reading time; however, Mr. Godina reported that he used this strategy several times throughout the academic year. The teacher explained that it takes at least two weeks to finish reading the book with students as they have to read a chapter per day, and leave the time for discussions and assessments for reading comprehension. Thus, the translanguaging strategy during read alouds occurred throughout the school year. The teacher explained that he also applied this translanguaging reading strategy during practice for the STAAR test. These test practices were in English for all students with the exception of Patricia who would take the test in Spanish. According to Mr. Godina; “all recent immigrants are allowed to take the standardized reading test in their native language on the first or second year until they were ready for the standardized testing in their second language” (March 4, 2014). More details of this strategy will be presented and analyzed in section 4.5.1. It is important to mention that I did the participant observations in different times of the school day with the aim to see interactions and academic instruction throughout all of the subjects as presented in the next sections.

4.4.2 Mixing languages (Spanish and English) to explain academic concepts: Language Arts

In this section I present Mr. Godina’s academic instruction during Language Arts. I show how the teacher used the translanguaging practice of “mixing languages to explain academic concepts” (see table 4.1). Mr. Godina used such practice as a pedagogical strategy to help students who needed assistance in their first language, including Patricia. I also present Mr. Godina and his partner teacher Mrs. Urias’ (the teacher in charge of Spanish instruction) perceptions of the separation of languages policy.

Mr. Godina applied the translanguaging strategy of mixing languages to help Patricia understand academic concepts taught in English during whole-group instruction. The teacher taught the lessons mainly in English. He would take pauses to briefly summarize what the lesson was about in Spanish in his attempt to aid Patricia. Sometimes, he would translate only a few words in Spanish. Mr. Godina explained that it was very important to scaffold the learning of recent immigrants when they struggle understanding the lectures in the unknown language. Throughout the participant observation time in this classroom, I was able to see Mr. Godina applying this strategy many times. The following event occurred during Language Arts. The teacher was conducting a lesson about narrative writing. He explained the academic concepts of “main idea,” and “supportive details” in both languages. As usual, the teacher would walk around the class holding a book while lecturing, and going back and forward to the blackboard, or to the projector to take notes of main ideas for students to copy in their notebooks. The teacher sometimes would stop next to Patricia and translate part of the lecture in Spanish for her. Patricia sometimes would raise her hand to ask a question in Spanish. The following example is an interaction of Mr. Godina with the class:

Mr. Godina: *Necesitamos hacer oraciones que apoyen nuestra idea principal.* [We need to make sentences that can support our main idea]. Sentences that support our main idea!

The teacher presented a lecture about narrative writing using the projector. Mr. Godina pointed out the main components of a narrative composition posted on the blackboard, and presented models for students to follow when doing their own writing. The teacher, on occasion, turned to Patricia, and explained in Spanish:

Mr. Godina: *Dentro de la conclusión, tenemos que reafirmar las tres razones que usamos para apoyar nuestra idea principal.* [In the conclusion, we have to reaffirm the three reasons we use to support the main idea].

Mr. Godina to the class: In the conclusion, we have to elaborate the three main points that support our main idea (March 4, 2014).

As shown in this excerpt, Mr. Godina constantly would mix languages to teach students. The teacher sometimes would ask me to translate words in Spanish for him and the students. For example, during Language Arts when the teacher and the students were reading a poem about animals in English, Mr. Godina turned to me and asked me; “Mrs. Talamantes: How do you say vulture in Spanish?” I answered, “*Buitre.*” Mr. Godina added: *Si, es cierto... no me podía acordar. Muchas gracias Mrs. Talamantes.* [Yes, that’s true... I could not remember. Thank you, very much Mrs. Talamantes]. Then, he continued reading the poem in English allowing students to take turns for reading. This translanguaging practice of mixing both languages, English and Spanish, was used throughout the time I did participant observation.

4.4.3. Individual Instruction in Spanish: Social Studies

When Mr. Godina finished teaching the lesson in English, he would ask Patricia in Spanish if she understood the lecture. Sometimes Patricia did not understand what the lecture was about, or did not know how to complete the assignment. Frequently, I observed the student not focused on her work, or even not completing it. Then, the student would raise her hand, and Mr. Godina would call the student to work with him at his desk or at the round table where he supported students with one-to-one instruction. In other occasions, the teacher approached the student when she was not focused or when she was not working. Mr. Godina would help Patricia speaking in her first language, Spanish. This translanguaging practice was very common in Mr.

Godina's class. The class that I observed on this day was Social Studies. Students had to write a narrative in English, except from Patricia who was allowed to do it in Spanish. Students were assigned to explaining of the chosen hero, and the teacher took the written assignment as a Language Arts assignment.

During social studies, Mr. Godina assigned students to write about a person who students considered their hero. The objective of the assignment was teaching how to develop expository writing using social studies content. Mr. Godina explained that a perfect theme for an expository writing assignment was to describe someone's favorite hero. The teacher asked students to think about a person that could be a hero for them. Students raised their hands, and shared their responses. Mr. Godina wrote their answers on the board. The first student chose Jackie Robinson (An African-American baseball player from the mid-60s) as his favorite hero. The teacher wrote on the board and commented on this choice: "Jackie Robinson is my favorite hero!"

Addressing the whole class, Mr. Godina explained "you guys should be talking about somebody that is your hero, and the reasons why that person is your hero. Then he turned to Patricia and said in Spanish "*una persona que tú crees que es tu héroe* (" [somebody that you think is your hero]. Then, later the teacher addressed the whole group again and said in English "when writing expository... we explain!" The teacher wrote on the board a list of heroes that students chose to talk about when developing their expository writing.

Heroes:

Bruce Lee
Jackie Robinson
Abraham Lincoln
Martin Luther King
Harriet Tubman
Barack Obama
Rosa Parks
Michael Jackson
Jackie Chan

George Washington
Cesar Chavez

While the teacher explained about the writing assignment, a child passed out papers for students to elaborate their writing assignment. Occasionally, the teacher got closer to Patricia to explain in Spanish. In this occasion, while all students were working on their writing assignment Mr. Godina approached Patricia and conducted individual instruction in Spanish:

Mr. Godina: *¿Quién es tu héroe?* [Who is your hero?]

Patricia - *“Es Michael Jackson”* [It’s Michael Jackson].

Mr. Godina: *Muy bien, entonces recuerda que tienes que explicarlo brevemente en tu introducción, y mencionar las tres razones que te ayuden a explicar porque escogiste a Michael Jackson.* [Very good, then remember that you have to explain why did you chose Michael Jackson] (March 4, 2014)

This is an example of how Mr. Godina applied translanguaging strategies by using Spanish throughout the different subjects. Using Patricia’s native language was very important for the student to understand the assignment and key concepts presented in English. The teacher explained academic instruction in Spanish to Patricia, after explaining the lesson in English to the whole class. In the examples presented here, I show that translanguaging is, in fact, one of the optimal strategies to overcome monolingualistic ideas and policies, such as separation of languages. We see that Patricia, the recent immigrant bilingual student benefitted from the teacher’s ability to switch between languages as part of his communicative repertory (Canagarajah, 2011). In Canagarajah’s (2011) words, language ability is “an integrated system labeled translanguaging” (p. 401). Examples, such as the one presented, question the usefulness of the strict separation of language policy, in particular when recent immigrants are part of the community of learners.

4.5. Translanguaging Strategies among Students: Cooperative Work

Translanguaging is an additive approach that embraces multilingualism through the application of writing as an academic expression that can take place in the classroom in any language dominated by multilingual students (Creese and Blackledge, 2010; Canagarajah, 2005, 2012; García & Sylvan, 2011; Joseph & Ramani, 2012; Kubota, 2008). For García and Sylvan (2011), translanguaging is “the process in which bilingual students make sense and perform bilingually in the myriad ways of classrooms – reading; writing, taking notes, discussing, signing, and so on” (p. 38). This section shows the interactions of students working in cooperative groups when using translanguaging strategies to perform bilingually to accomplish a variety of classroom tasks. The translanguaging strategies that I saw students using in their groups were several. Examples of these strategies are presented throughout this chapter, as observed during students’ interactions in their groups. The translanguaging strategies were:

Table 4.2 Translanguaging practices in cooperative groups

Discussion about the text in both languages
Writing and copying words in English
Translation
Drawing and taking notes about a book in both languages

Students in general used the translanguaging practice of “discussing the text in both languages” especially during Language Arts, Social Studies, and Reading. In the particular case of recent immigrants, when working in their groups, this strategy was the most frequently used given group members were frequently trying to aid others that did not know English. In the case of Patricia, the group members were always trying to help the student by explaining and talking

to her in Spanish, while completing their assignment in English, as presented in sections 4.5.1., and 4.5.3.

It is important to remind the reader that Patricia's group was the second group she was placed in. The student and her grandmother explained that group members of her first assigned team refused to collaborate with Patricia. When Mr. Godina noticed that this was happening in Patricia's group, he changed the student to a new group where her classmates, all-girls, would help the new student by explaining academic assignments or discussing about the read-alouds books in Spanish. The teacher did not usually arrange the cooperative groups by gender; however, this second group worked better for Patricia. Students in Patricia's group translated (from English to Spanish) unknown words for her. It is important to state that this translanguaging practice was observed in other classrooms where recent immigrants were working in groups (as shown in the next two chapters). Cooperative work allowed students to interact and help each other. In this classroom, cooperative groups became a context for translanguaging, given that all students who were working cooperatively with recent immigrants used translation as a tool for helping these new students.

Writing and copying words in English while asking questions and discussing in Spanish was also very common during cooperative work. When recent immigrants used Spanish to ask their group members about spelling words in English, these students would write the word down on a piece of paper for students to copy. Sometimes this strategy was also observed when students were assigned to write a text in English. When not knowing what to write, recent immigrants ended up copying other students' writing, answers or summaries. I observed these practices in all the participants' classrooms when working in groups. For example, the two first-grade participants when working in groups, during the times they needed assistance on writing

words in their second language would ask their classmates for assistance. I observed that the first grade students in the groups in response to whenever some of the students asked for assistance regarding words in English or Spanish, would get a notebook and write the word down for them. The students who asked for aid would rapidly copy the word onto their own notebook. The two fifth-grade recent immigrant (Malena and Manuel) also helped each other by translating, and copying the words their classmates wrote on their notebooks. Even a 5th grade teacher explained that some of the translanguaging strategies she observed in the classroom with recent immigrants was copying a word in English, but written with the sounds of the alphabet in Spanish.

Students in Patricia's group would also discuss the read-alouds in English and Spanish. Sometimes Patricia's team members would discuss in English something that happened in the book while answering some comprehension questions. After discussing the material in English, they would summarize what they were talking about in Spanish to include Patricia, or sometimes they would mix languages when working. The students also used this strategy when the teacher assigned other work in English. Patricia would ask for help the most when the assignment was in English. Students discussed the answers in Spanish, after reading the questions or assignments in English.

These translanguaging practices did not happen in isolation. There were times when many or all strategies occurred at the same time. For example, when the teacher did the read-alouds in English, Patricia and two other students were following the reading in Spanish. Students in the group were orally discussing about the book in both languages while answering questions written in English. Patricia had the questions in English, but was allowed to answer the questions in written Spanish. Patricia's partner would write her answers in English, and then verbally share them with Patricia in Spanish.

During cooperative work, drawing was another translanguaging strategy these students used when translating to Patricia, so that she could understand the word they were spelling or writing down on a piece of paper. For example, on a particular day when students were resuming the read-aloud of the book *Because of Winn-Dixie* by Kate DiCamillo during Language Arts, students at the end had to answer some reading comprehension questions in English after the reading. Patricia did not know how to explain that the dog in the story was fluffy. Then she asked one of her group members in Spanish, “¿cómo se dice cuando quieres decir que tu perro es esponjado, y que su pelo se ve muy esponjado?” [How did you say that your dog is fluffy and that he looks spongy? Her classmate got a sheet of paper and drew a fluffy hat, then she said, “esponjado, como los de las brujitas de Halloween!” [Fluffy, like those of the little witches of Halloween!] The student misspelled the word and wrote “floppy” (See figure 4.2).



Figure 4.2: Translanguaging by copying, and drawing.

The translanguaging strategies presented in this section show how heteroglossia was at work in Mr. Godina's classroom. As I was able to observe these practices, I was also able to appreciate a community where all voices, languages and utterances formed part of a community, such as in the case of dialogism (Bakhtin 1981). This school community helped Patricia feeling welcome; according to Patricia's testimonios about her new schooling experiences, as will be presented in section 4.6.

Translanguaging is also defined as a pedagogical resource that can be used by multilingual students for gaining scientific knowledge (Joseph & Ramani, 2008). Moreover, García and Sylvan (2011) point out that this pedagogical strategy challenges monolingualistic ideas by including the switching between two languages (codeswitching); as showed in the upcoming results from participant observation with the students and the teacher in the classroom. García and Sylvan (2011) adds that translanguaging also involves translation. However, the author clarifies that translanguaging differs from codeswitching and translating "in that it refers to the process in which bilingual students make sense and perform bilingually in the myriad ways of classrooms – reading; writing, taking notes, discussing, signing, and so on" (p. 389) as presented next in this chapter.

4.5.1. Cooperative work and translanguaging during read-aloud

As the English component of the dual language program, this class was taught mainly in English. However, Spanish was used as a tool to help students understand the lessons in English. As mentioned before, Mr. Godina allowed students to read the books in Spanish, while he read aloud the same book in English. Patricia was one of them; she read the Spanish version of *Because of Winn Dixie*, while Mr. Godina read aloud in English for students to follow. Only Patricia and two more students that were not recent immigrants were reading the Spanish version

of the book, while the rest of the class read the book in English. The following is Patricia's perceptions of reading-alouds with the Spanish version of the book: "*a veces me siento confundida cuando tengo que seguir la lectura en español escuchando al maestro leer el libro en inglés*" (3/28/14). [Sometimes I feel confused when I have to follow the reading in Spanish while listening to the teacher reading the book in English]. However, she also reported that, so far, she liked the book. She explained to me (Researcher, R) that it was hard for her to follow the reading, but reported that she understood what the reading was about because she had access to the book in Spanish:

Patricia: *Estamos dibujando nuestro folder para este libro* [We are drawing our reading folders for this book].

She showed it to me and I saw that it was in Spanish.

R: *¿Es en Español!* [It is in Spanish!]

Patricia: *Sí...* [Yes...]

R: *¿No te pierdes en la lectura?* [Don't you get lost in the reading?]

Patricia: *A veces, porque no sé dónde va el maestro* [Sometimes because I don't know where the teacher is reading].

R: *¿Se te hace difícil seguir la lectura en español y escucharla en inglés?* [Is it difficult to follow the reading in Spanish and listening at it in English?]

P: *Poquito, pero si le entiendo* [A Little, but I do understand it].

Even though the teacher allowed the student to follow the reading in the Spanish version of the text, the assessment at the end of the chapters was in English, which facilitated translanguaging when answering comprehension questions. Sometimes assessments consisted of answering questions or writing down a summary. In these situations, I saw the student

approaching the teacher when having trouble understanding the assessment questions. I never saw Patricia hesitating when she needed Mr. Godina's attention. The expression of her face was calm, and she smiled when asking for help. When the teacher asked me to help Patricia translating from English to Spanish, he did not leave. He waited with the student for the answer, and I saw Patricia having more "*confianza*" (trust) with me also.

Patricia's group members would also assist the student when she needed help by translating, drawing, or explaining the assignments in Spanish when the assignment was in English, as will be shown next in this section. Mr. Godina would walk around the classroom making sure students were doing their assignments correctly and constantly got close to Patricia to make sure she knew what to do. On this particular day the teacher assigned students to make their own reading folder about the book they were reading. They included the drawing of the book's cover page (*Because of Winn Dixie*). The students were in groups and drawing their pictures in their folder's front page (see figure 4.3). While they were drawing, they talked about the story in both languages, Spanish and English. They also asked each other for help with the drawing, spelling, translation, or asking for colors to borrow.



Figure 4.3. Winn-Dixie: The Spanish version book, and Patricia's drawing on her folder

I have called the translanguaging strategy that Mr. Godina used for this read aloud and reading comprehension event “mixing languages for read-alouds”. García and Sylvan (2011) explain that translanguaging practices not only take place when translating languages, but it can take place when allowing students to perform bilingually in the many ways of classrooms practices. This idea is also supported by Canagarajah (2011), García and Sylvan (2011), and García Flores and Chu (2011). In this case, I observed these translanguaging practices when the teacher read a book in English, and allowed Patricia to follow the guided reading with a book written in Spanish. The discussions in the group were in both languages, English and Spanish, and the teacher would take pauses between the readings to ask questions, or to make comments of the reading mainly in English. In addition, he used translation from English to Spanish, to help Patricia understanding the discussions.

Translanguaging was applied as an integrated system in Mr. Godina's class where the teacher not only did translation, but also mixed two languages for read-alouds in English while students were following the reading in English or in Spanish, as mentioned before. García (2009) and Honberger (2003) address the strategies of translanguaging and posit that students may switch between languages. The researchers also address these myriads of classroom practices as the modalities students may use in their learning, as in the case of Mr. Godina's classroom.

During the following excerpt of the same translanguaging event, Patricia and her classmates included me in the discussion and asked for my help. The teacher Mr. Godina encouraged me to get involved with students and at this time, students asked me in Spanish for assistance on their drawings:

A student in Patricia's group: *¿Me puedes dibujar las palmas? No sé cómo hacerlas.*

[Can you draw the palms for me? I don't know how to do it]

R: Okay... *déjame ver.* [Let me see].

I also drew the palms for Patricia, and other students asked for my help too.

While drawing, I asked students what the story was about. Using only Spanish, Patricia explained that it was about a little girl who found a dog. She washed him and fixed his hair. The name of the dog was Winn Dixie. A student in Patricia's group explained, *Sí...! y le lavó los dientes con su cepillo de dientes!!!* Patricia: *¡Qué cochino!* [Yes, and she washed the dog's teeth with her tooth brush. Gross!] (April, 29, 2014)

In this example, drawing and code-switching are part of the repertoire students used to make sense of the book they had read. Notice that towards the end of the previous interaction, students were summarizing what happened in the story in Spanish. However, most of these students had read the book in English. That in itself is an example of translanguaging. In

addition, during this same event, Patricia used written Spanish in order to answer the reading comprehension questions provided by the teacher in English, while the group members wrote their answers in English (see figure 4.4). This figure represents the translanguaging practices organized by Mr. Godina. Patricia followed the read-alouds with a book in Spanish while the teacher read the English version of the chosen book. Mr. Godina assigned the class to answer comprehension questions developed in English; while Patricia was allowed to answer the questions in Spanish. The use of drawing while discussing the reading in both languages was also a translanguaging strategy that helped students to show their reading comprehension, as seen in the example above. From the examples presented, it is very clear that students used any resource they had available (figure 4.4) to perform bilingually in this multicultural and multilingual academic environment (García and Sylvan, 2011).

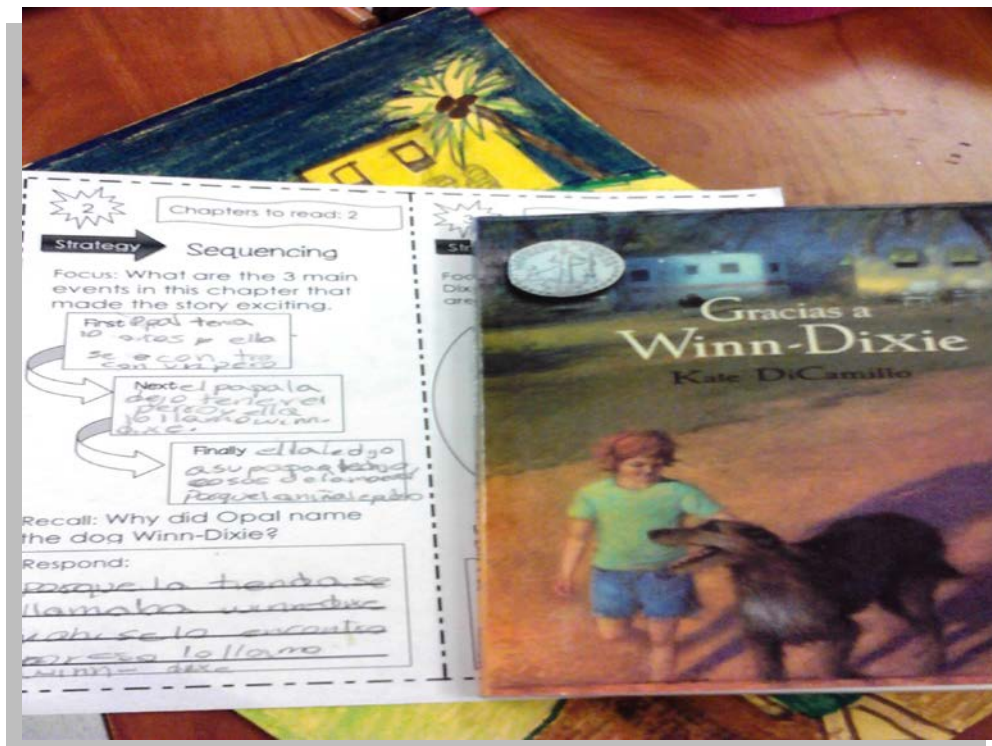


Figure 4.4. Translanguaging practices: Patricia's assignment written in two languages, Spanish book, and drawing on the reading folder

The following excerpt occurred when students in Patricia's group were answering the question provided in English while translating to Patricia in Spanish:

Student in the group: What are the three main events?

Patricia: ¿*Qué es eso?* [What is that?]

Student in the group: *Lo más importante que pasó.* [The most important things that happened in the story]

Patricia: ¿*Qué pasó primero?* ¿*Se encontró un perro!* (writing it down on her assignment in Spanish) [What happened first? She found a dog!]

Student in the group: Yes. She found a dog, Winn-Dixie! (April 2, 2014).

When Mr. Godina noticed the conversation in Spanish, he went to Patricia's group and explained to me that he allowed students who struggled with their second language, English, to read materials in Spanish while following guided reading by the teacher. Mr. Godina knew that in his English instruction class, according to school practice, he should not use Spanish. However, the teacher realizes the need to use both languages despite of the strict separation of language policy:

Hoy les asigné decorar sus portafolios de lectura para éste libro. Ya lo empezamos a leer. Se ve que sí les está gustando...Sí claro porque aparte de Patricia hay otros estudiantes que dominan más el español, y necesitan el apoyo del primer lenguaje aunque yo se los leo en inglés para que ellos lo escuchen en el segundo idioma. [Today I assigned students to decorate their reading folders for this book. We have been reading it. It seems like if they like it...Of course because besides Patricia there are other students that dominate more Spanish than English, and they need the support of the first

Language; although I read it to them in English, so that they can listen to the second language too].

These words, as well as the previous analyzed examples show the practice of translanguaging in Mr. Godina's classroom and his perception of the integration of Spanish during reading time in English. For the teacher the integration of languages during reading time was very important, not only for the recent immigrants, but also for other students who needed to reinforce their reading skills in their first language while acquiring the second. Examples included in this section also show how the teacher applied different modalities as part of his translanguaging practices for students to get engaged in discussions, such as drawing the scenarios that represented the main idea of the book, and promoting cooperative work where students communicated with one another in both languages. I also acted as a resource for the teacher and students when translation from English to Spanish and other kind of assistance was needed.

4.5.2. Translanguaging in science: Mixing languages and copying

In this section, I mainly focus on the interaction of students during science time when working cooperatively using the translanguaging strategies of copying and mixing languages for helping one another. During this particular science lesson, students were working in groups constructing a visual about ecosystems. The assignment was to draw a food web where students made a chain of animals in different environments. The teacher provided students with construction paper for the projects. Students worked in their groups, but their work had to be turned in independently. However, they helped each other and made comments about each other's work.

The environment was safe when Mr. Godina attended to students' academic needs, and monitored the cooperative work. The majority of students communicated mainly in English. I observed students working cooperatively, sometimes laughing and distracted, and sometimes really paying attention to the assignments. When students saw Mr. Godina walking around the classroom, students would pay closer attention to their work. The teacher knew that students have a tendency to be off task, and he would walk by reminding students that they should be working on their assignment. Mr. Godina sometimes would change students to new groups when he saw that they were distracting the group when working too often in order to build the "best learning environment" (March 25, 2015). Students called Mr. Godina Mr. G., and whenever they needed help, they raised their hand and waited for the teacher's assistance. I observed that when students needed help, Mr. Godina, without delay, would attend the students with questions, or to assist when he noticed the students struggling on a problem. On one particular day, I saw Patricia struggled when doing her assignment. I saw the student erasing her work and starting all over again. However, she seemed calmer when the teacher went back and forth giving instructions in English to the whole class, and then explained key concepts to Patricia in Spanish: "Remember, adaptation is how animals use their body to adapt to the environment in order to survive" (addressing Patricia) "*Los animales usan sus cuerpos para adaptarse al medio ambiente*" [Animals use their body to adapt to the environment] (March 25, 14).

I also observed that when Patricia needed help, the group members would stop their work to assist her. Sometimes it would be all members of the group explaining to Patricia what to do in Spanish. During one of the focus groups, Patricia told me that all group members would assist her when struggling; specially a classmate that was always sitting down besides the student. However, Patricia explained that sometimes not even her friend knew how to translate some

words, and that was when Patricia would ask Mr. Godina for help. For example, in figure 4.2 the student helping Patricia misspelled the word fluffy, which shows that Patricia needed the teacher's help too.

This same day at the laboratory, the science facilitator had everything ready for students. On each table each student had a paper plate, some seeds, some spoons, popsicle sticks, and tooth picks. Also, there were some sheets of paper with the pictures of different birds. The science teacher then provided students with some corn chips, and licorice candies. Students had to use the spoons, popsicle sticks, and toothpicks attached to their thumb and the index to experience how difficult would be for the birds to use their beak to survive when choosing the food they would eat without struggle. The students used licorices as if were worms.

In English, Mr. Godina started by reviewing what students had learned in the morning, the traits and adaptation for survival skills. They also talked about prey and predators. The teacher started by reviewing the concept of adaptation. After Mr. Godina gave the instruction in English, the laboratory assistant explained what the experiment was about, also in English. Students changed their pretend beaks from spoons and popsicles to toothpicks, and tried to get the food with it again. In their journals and using English, they recorded data regarding what type of food they were able to hold with their beaks, and what type of food they were not able to hold. After the experiment and recording the data on tables, the students had to make their own beak and name their new bird.

As I observed Patricia and her group working, I noticed that they were speaking in Spanish with Patricia, who would occasionally ask me if I could help her translate words she gave me in Spanish to English as showing next.

Patricia: *¿Cómo se escribe arena?* [How did you write sand?]

R: sand (writing in my notebook. Patricia copied the word.)

Patricia: ¿Y *sombra*? [And shade?]

R: shade (writing in my notebook. Patricia copied the word).

Using the same method I observed students used for helping the recent immigrants throughout the different grade levels, I wrote the word on a piece of paper for students to copy while completing the assignment. Some of the words were: *Arena*- [sand]; *sombra*- [shade]. Students in Patricia's group also helped the student, and sometimes they would ask me for my assistance when not knowing how to write some words.

In another occasion (February 12, 2014), during science time in the classroom, the teacher Mr. Godina gave instructions to make a plan for students to do their own food web. Mr. Godina gave instructions in English, but occasionally would assist Patricia in Spanish. In their groups, students were helping each other.

Patricia: ¿Cómo se escribe “águila” en inglés? [How did you write “águila” (Eagle) in English?]

On a paper one of her classmates wrote: “eagle”

Patricia copied the word on her food web diagram while the teacher continued giving the lecture in English.

Mr. Godina approached Patricia and repeated the most important points of the lesson in Spanish and added: “*Tu diagrama tiene que representar la cadena alimenticia empezando por el animal que tú escojas.* [Your diagram has to represent the food web starting by an animal of your choice].” Then, he asked Patricia; “¿Vas a hacer uno (un diagrama) del mar? [¿Are you going to do one diagram about the sea?]

P: Sí. [Yes].

Mr. G: *Me parece muy bien.* [I think that is very good]

The teacher kept communicating with the class in English. At times, Mr. Godina would go back to help Patricia and spoke to her in Spanish, as shown in the previous example. Mr. Godina also went around the classroom to help other students. He communicated with them sometimes in English, sometimes in Spanish. When he addressed the class, he used English, and when addressing Patricia, he used Spanish in order to explain concepts or academic assignments. The previous excerpt of data shows how Mr. Godina mixed languages to help students while students would use translanguaging practices to help each other in their groups, such as when writing, copying and using speech while mixing languages to help the recent immigrant, Patricia.

I observed that some of the students were more comfortable expressing themselves in Spanish, and were struggling with some academic vocabulary in English. I also saw that cooperative learning was very effective for these students since they were assisting each other. However, the teacher aided them too, when they needed and mixed languages when explaining. Students seemed very comfortable when asking Mr. Godina for assistance. The teacher not only helped all students by translanguaging in the English class, but he also included me for scaffolding in the academic instruction when assisting Patricia.

In her group, Patricia was trying to finish her food chain diagram. Sometimes she erased part of it and started again. Each time she was not able to write a word in English, she would either ask the team members or the teacher. At times, when the teacher did not know a specific word in Spanish, he would ask me for help to assist Patricia on translating words from English to Spanish. The following example shows how students in the cooperative group served as a resource for Patricia by translating to her. In addition, Patricia used her Spanish to actively

participate in the discussion, providing important information for the teacher about the meaning of *medusa* (jelly fish):

Mr. Godina to me: ¿*Cómo se dice medusa en inglés?* [How did you say “medusa” in English?]

R to Patricia: ¿*Qué es una medusa?* [What is medusa, Patricia?]

Patricia explains in Spanish. *Que parecen gelatina... redondas.* [Those that look like rounded gelatin].

Mr. Godina: jelly fish!

Then she asks how to write it in English.

The teacher writes it on a paper.

Patricia copied the word.

Patricia: ¿*Cómo se dice caballito de mar?* [How did you say “caballito de mar”?]

Student: sea horse

Patricia: ¿*Qué comen?* [What did they eat?]

Student: grass?

In this event, I observed Patricia was very confident. I saw the student sometimes struggling with the academic tasks in English, but the student either asked her classmates for help, or would raise her hand to receive the teacher’s assistance. It was evident that she trusted both the teacher and her group members. She actively participated in the activity by using her native language. Whenever she was not able to understand something, the teacher would scaffold the student’s learning by explaining in her first language, Spanish. The student did not hesitate to ask for support.

From my observations in this classroom, I propose that the translanguaging practices Mr. Godina adopted facilitated the student to trust the teacher. Margarita, Patricia's grandmother, during the interview expressed that her granddaughter was very happy with the teacher. She also said that Mr. Godina was always in communication with Margarita to explain about Patricia's academic achievement. The teacher organized instruction in a way that contributed to Patricia's optimistic attitude in the classroom, and also gained Margarita's trust.

4.5.3 Translanguaging in Language Arts in the cooperative groups

During a class about narrative composition, the students were working on a narrative about an experience that really surprised them. The teacher drew on the board a diagram to teach the parts of a narrative composition (figure 4.6). Mr. Godina wrote on the blackboard the parts of a narrative composition while giving explanations to students in English. At times, the teacher would translate to Patricia in Spanish.

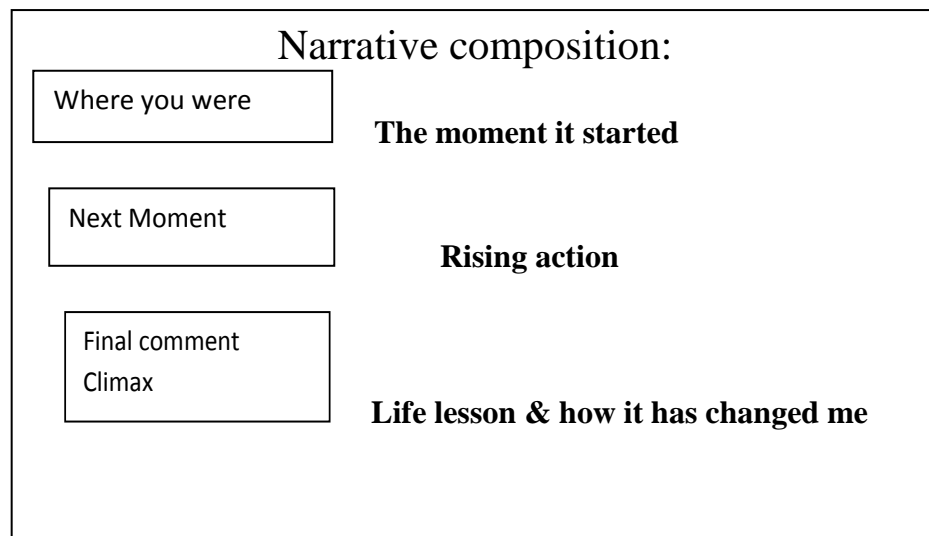


Figure 4.6. Illustration on the board: Narrative composition

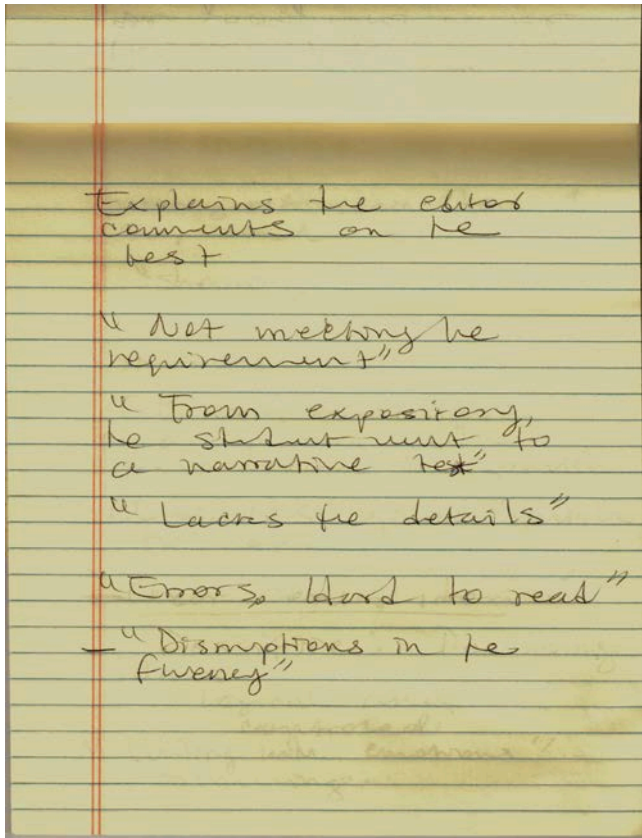
After Mr. Godina presented the main components of a narrative composition, the teacher assigned students to brainstorm their ideas in their group. As in other situations, Mr. Godina monitored students' work and assisted them.

When Patricia was not receiving the assistance she needed in her group due to the fact that the students were working on their own assignment, the student would go to look for the teacher's help at his desk. Mr. Godina helped the student understand how to write a narrative explaining in Spanish. "*Tienes que explicar cómo empezaste a confiar en esa persona que impactó tu vida. ¿Qué fue lo que pasó? ¿Dónde pasó?*" [You have to explain how you begin trusting the person who impacted your life. What happened? Where did that happen?] After Mr. Godina finished lecturing about the academic term of raising action in Spanish to Patricia, the student went back with her group and kept working on her writing. The student's writing was about a special person who impacted her life as part of the preparation for the standard test, writing section.

In their group, students discussed about their writing, and about the special person who impacted their lives. Students communicated with each other mostly in English. However, on occasion, the students used both languages, English and Spanish; especially when Patricia asked for assistance. During the times when Patricia was the only student writing her response in Spanish, students did not help as much in comparison to other occasions when Patricia needed to turn in her written assignment in English. When this happened, Patricia would ask for Mr. Godina's help, as presented previously.

Another example of group collaboration during language arts is when students were assigned to analyze writing samples from the standardized test from the previous year. On March, 27, 2014, Mr. Godina, using the projector, presented to students various writing samples projected on the board. Each sample had to be rated from 1 to 4, according to a rubric the teacher presented to the students. The teacher would let the groups discuss the possible rating of each writing sample. Each group of students had to come to a consensus on the rates given to the

writings, and present their final choice on a sticky paper. Then, the teacher would stick the papers on the board. Finally, the teacher would show the rate given to that particular writing with comments from the editor (figure 4.7). Students who had the right answer would get points for a reward.



Explains the editor comments on the best

"Not meeting the requirements"

"From expository, he should write to a narrative text"

"Lacks the details"

"Errors, hard to read"

"Disruptions in the fluency"

Editor comments about the text presented by Mr. Godina

Rate: 1, Not meeting the requirements

- From expository, the student went to narrative
- Lacks of details
- Errors. Hard to read
- Disruption in the fluency

March/ 27/ 2014

Figure 4.7. Example of rating a writing sample: comments from editor

During this activity, the interaction in Patricia's group was very engaged. Each time a writing sample was presented; the students would discuss the composition, going back and forth from the sample projected on the board to the rubric. The students in this group would discuss in English, and translated to Patricia to Spanish. Patricia also made comments on the writing in Spanish, as shown below. The following is an interaction in this group, after Mr. Godina presented one of the samples:

Student: I think this one is rated with a 2, because it doesn't show enough details.

Patricia: *¿Y en español?* [And in Spanish?]

Student: *Creemos que es un 2, porque no explica mucho.* [We think this is a 2 because he/she does not explain that much]

Patricia: *Pero se ve largo.* [But it seems a long writing]

Student: *Sí. Pero no dice cómo pasó.* [Yes, but does not show what happened]

Another student: Yes. I think it is a 2. Let me write it down.

Student to Patricia: *Lo vamos a escribir para dárselo a Mr. G.* [We are going to write it down to give it to Mr. G.].

When all the groups turned in their rating, the teacher showed the editor's rating. It was a 3.

Some students got happy and stood up from their desks congratulating each member of the group who got it right.

Student in Patricia's group: I thought it was a 2

Patricia: *Yo dije que se veía largo.* [I said it was a long writing]

Student: *Si, pero yo sí creo que le faltaba más.* [Yes, but I thought it needed more]

Other student: That's okay. *Vamos a ver el que sigue.* [Let's see the next one].

The previous event is an example of group interaction where the students in Patricia's group would interact with one another using Spanish and English while discussing the right answer to the writing samples. Even though most of the time students interacted in English, they translated and code-switched when Patricia asked for help or intervened in the conversation. Sometimes, Patricia would be the one asking for translations, as shown in the presented event. This interaction shows how students were able to work cooperatively to assist the student who needed linguistic support in her native language. The strategy of self-regulated learning, a

characteristic of a dual language program (Angelova, 2008; Windstead, 2013), was at work and was effectively practiced in Patricia's group where language was used as a resource (Gomez, Freeman & Freeman, 2005; Ruiz, 1984, Tarim, 2009) for Patricia to academically perform in a bilingual environment.

4.6. Translanguaging and the Class Environment: Patricia's Feelings

Patricia was a witness of violence against her mother in Ciudad Juárez, Mexico before moving to El Paso. This situation was a previous stressor the student experienced before moving to the US. This possibly made it more difficult for the recent immigrant adapting to the new school at the beginning (Suarez-Orozco, Pimentel, and Martin, 2009; Portes and Rumbaut, 2001; Zhou and Bankston, 1998). Patricia explained during the course of the focus groups that she felt nervous when she started attending the new school. In her agenda (figure 4.8), the student drew herself on the first day of classes, and explained that "*me sentía nerviosa*" [I felt nervous].

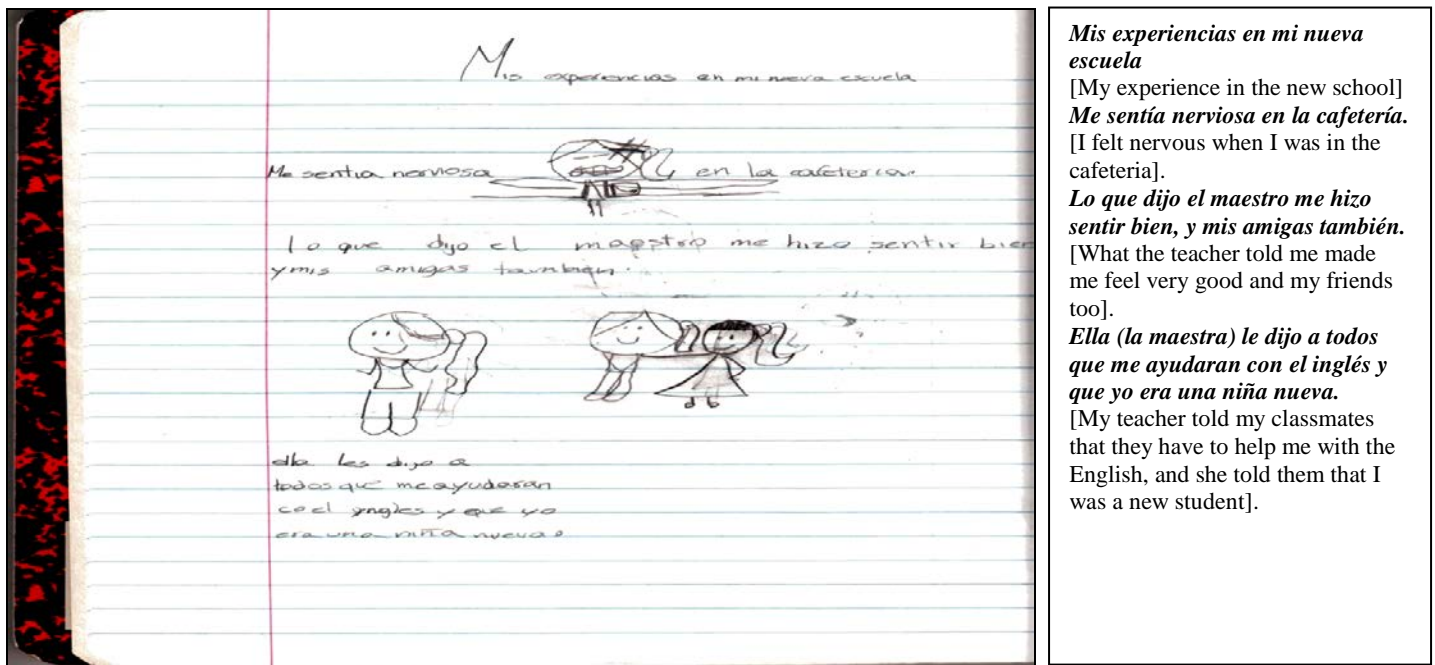


Figure 4.8. Patricia was nervous the first day in the cafeteria

The illustration on the top of the page shows an expression of discomfort on Patricia's face representing that she felt "nerviosa" [nervous]. Patricia's text complemented her drawings and she drew herself when she was at the cafeteria. In the course of the focus groups, Patricia verbally explained that at the beginning of her new schooling experience, she felt nervous in the cafeteria because she did not know who to sit down with or who to talk to (as shown in figure 4.8). Everything felt very unfamiliar, even though her grandmother showed her around the campus before she started school.

On the middle of the page (figure 4.8), she drew herself smiling with her friends, also smiling. Next to this drawing, Patricia wrote that the teachers, Mr. Godina and Ms. Urias, helped her to feel better. She wrote that Ms. Urias "told my classmates that they have to help me with the English, and she told them that I was a new student." During the focus group, Patricia added that Mr. Godina facilitated that she felt comfortable at school when he assisted the student. Furthermore, she emphasized that other students were also ready to help her with the academic tasks. For Patricia, it was crucial that the teachers not only welcomed her into the classroom, but directly intervened to promote the students' understanding of the recent immigrant situation, explaining to the students that she was new to the school and needed their support. Through her drawings and written text, Patricia shows that currently she felt happy in her new classroom with her classmates and teachers.

During the focus group, she shared some more information that what she shared through her illustrations and written words. She explained that for some days, she was uncomfortable because nobody wanted to assist her. Mr. Godina asked Patricia if she was okay with her group, and she told the teacher that nobody wanted to aid her when she had trouble understanding the lectures in English. Mr. Godina was able to detect the problem because he was

always monitoring group work, and was always in communication with Margarita (Patricia's grandmother), who informed the teacher of this situation. The teacher then changed the student to a new group whose members assisted Patricia. She explained, "*al principio no me ayudaban, pero Mr. Godina me puso en otro grupo que se me ayudó*". [At the beginning my group members did not want to help me, but Mr. Godina changed me to a new group that did help me] (May/ 6/ 2014) According to Margarita:

Le paso' a Patricia con alguien al principio. Que ella tenía alguna duda... que si es cierto que sí ponen a otra persona que está más avanzada para que les ayude... Le paso', y luego... No me acuerdo quién sería porque era al principio, pero la cambiaron con otra niña, porque esta niña no quería ayudar, que le preguntaba y la niña le contestaba, "no sé." Tiene mucho que ver el maestro que está enfrente, que el profesor esté detectando todas esas situaciones y que las corrija a tiempo. [It happens to Patricia with some student when she started attending to the new school. She could not understand instruction in English... though it is true that they assign an advanced student to help them... Well, it happened, then... I do not remember who this student was because it was just the beginning, but the teacher changed Patricia to a new group with a new classmate, because the first students did not want to help... that Patricia used to ask this student and she answered, "I do not know." The teacher has a lot to do with this that is at the front of the classroom. The teacher has to be able to detect these situations and correct them on time.] (June 5, 2014).

Margarita believed that Mr. Godina was supportive with Patricia from the beginning when she just begun attending classes at the new school, and added that "he was just a very good teacher." Margarita recognized that the teacher can make the difference for the new students. She

pointed out that because of the teachers' support, Patricia was able to get familiar with her new classmates and develop trust with both, the students and the teachers.

Patricia continued sharing her story in multiple modes. She expressed her experiences through drawing, text, and verbally. On this focus group session, she explained that she felt nervous when she went to the “English class.” However, Patricia expressed that she felt better when she went to the class in Spanish. Furthermore, the recent immigrant mentioned that she felt comforted when her teacher, Mr. Godina, because he explained academic concepts and instruction in Spanish (see figure 4.9 shown below).

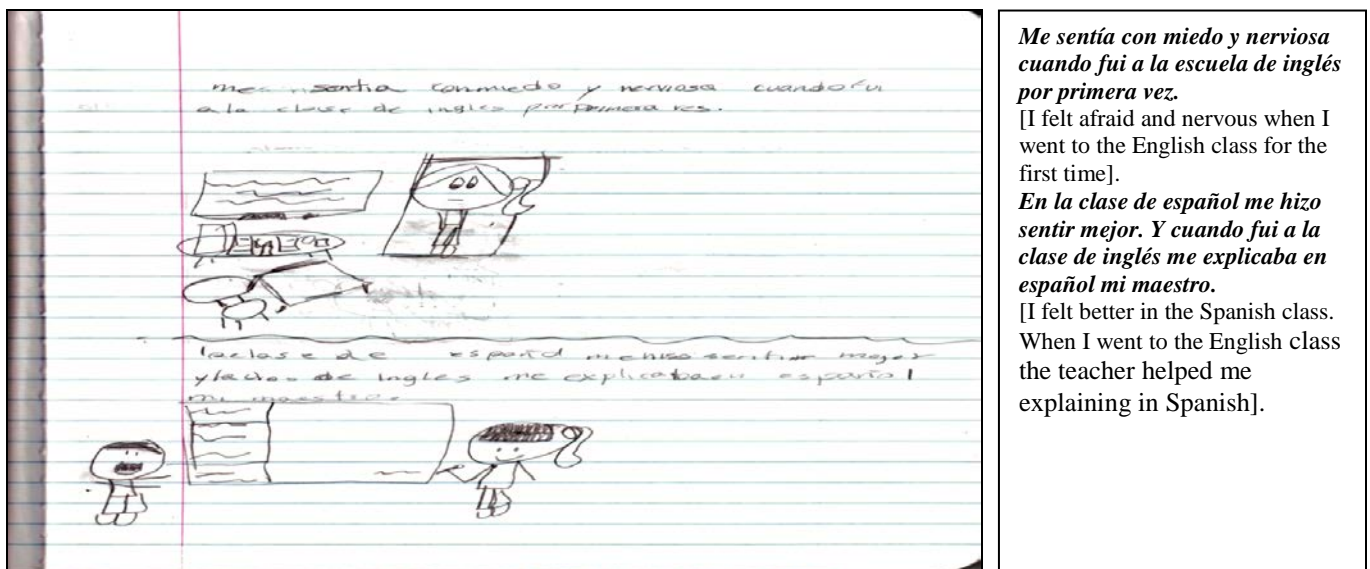
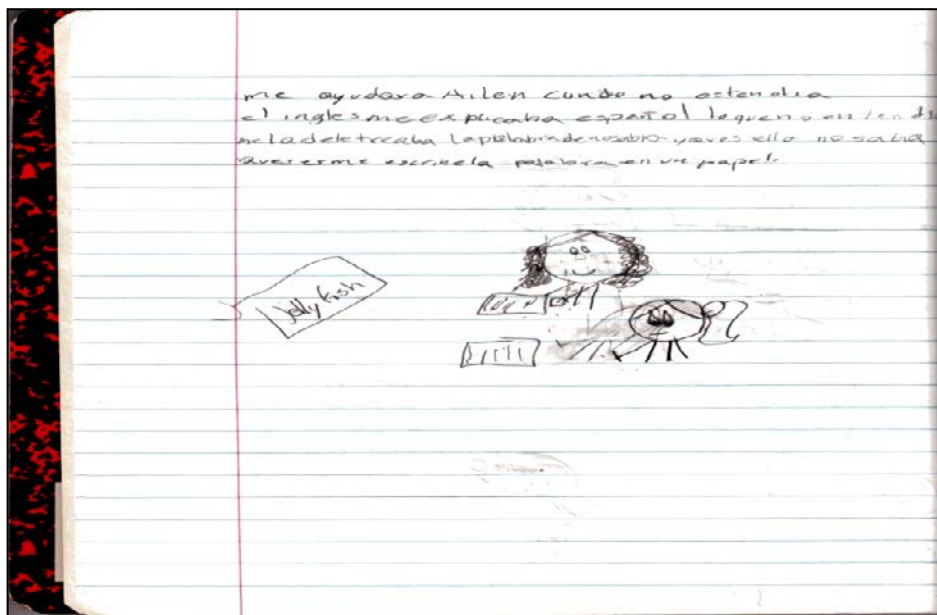


Figure 4.9. Patricia was nervous when she went to her new English class

Patricia’s testimonio (figure 4.9) reveals that at the beginning it was very difficult for the student to adapt to a classroom where she did not know anybody. In her drawing, the student drew herself being nervous when she started attending her new English class. She was at the door, and looked puzzled and uncertain, staring at the setup of the classroom. However, she drew, wrote, and orally explained that her attitude towards her new schooling experience changed when the teachers offered the student their support. In the same page of her journal (figure 4.9), Patricia drew Mr. Godina and Mrs. Urias smiling while teaching the lesson in the

classroom. According to Patricia's testimonio presented in a multimodal manner where she drew, wrote and orally shared with the group, both teachers made the difference in her adaptation to her new schooling experience, as has been previously discussed in relevant literature (Suarez-Orozco, Pimentel, and Martin, 2009; Portes and Rumbaut, 2001; and Zhou and Bankston 1998).

During my interview with him, Mr. Godina explained that the recent immigrant students deserved to receive the help they need from their peers or the teacher so that they may be able to work in their comfort zone. The teacher also expressed that he needed to translate for students when they "look puzzled by it. It just may take one word in their native language for the concept to be known" (March 5, 2014). As shown in Patricia's testimonio, from her perspective the practice of translanguaging helped the recent immigrant to feel welcome and comfortable.



Mi amiga me ayudaba cuando no entendía el inglés. Ella me explicaba en español. Lo que no entendía me lo deletreaba, y a veces ni ella sabía cómo deletrear. A veces me escribía la palabra en un papel. [My friend used to help me when I did not understand English. She used to spell the words I did not know how to write. Sometimes not even she knew how to spell some words. Sometimes she wrote the words on a sheet of paper].

4.10. Work group: Patricia's classmates helped her

In figure 4.10, Patricia also explained that in the members of her group helped her writing down the unknown words in English. In her text, she also explained that sometimes her partner student did not know how to spell some words in English as shown in figure 4.2 when the student misspelled the word "fluffy," and instead wrote "floppy." Through Patricia's drawing, I

interpret that the collaboration with the team members made Patricia feel welcome. Figure 4.10 shows how Patricia is ready to copy down the word that her classmate wrote for her. Her friend is smiling at Patricia. The student is pointing out the written word on her notebook. Patricia seems much focused on copying the word she needed, “jelly fish”.

In contrast with participants of this study, Patricia communicated through her drawing and in writing that Mr. Godina never told her to go back to her seat when the student stood up looking for assistance (figure 4.11). Through her drawing and writing, Patricia explained that the teacher never denied his help to the student and this attitude “me hacía sentir bien” [made me feel comfortable]. Both, teacher and student were smiling in this drawing. During the focus group session, Patricia was surprised when she found out that Malena and Manuel would not receive help from the classmates at times, and were being bullied in the classroom (topic elaborated in chapter 6).

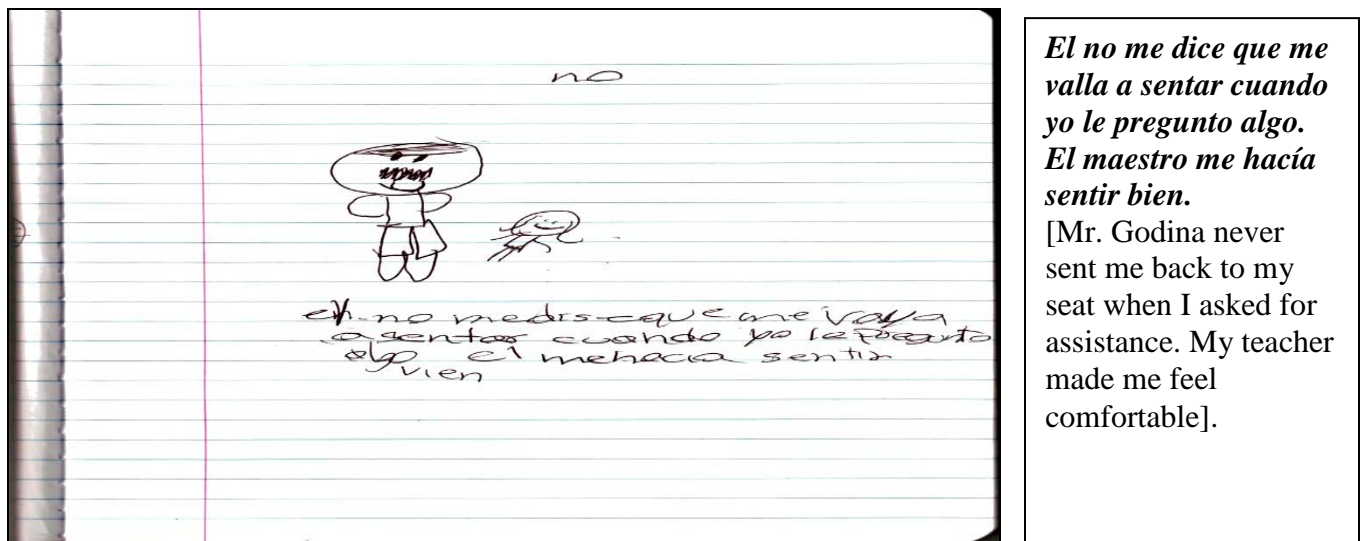


Figure 4.11. Mr. Godina helped Patricia.

During the focus group, I captured an interesting dialogue between Patricia, Malena, and Manuela. Malena and Manuel have Mr. Godina in 4th grade, and the focus group discussion

reminded them what they went through when they were his students. Malena and Manuel, now in 5th grade, reported that Mr. Godina also translated for them, and used Spanish to explain the assignments to them. The students explained:

Malena: *El primer día no entendía nada. No tenía amigos que me lo explicaran. O sea que yo nada más levanté la mano, porque nos dijeron: Any questions? Y yo no más la levanté (riéndose). Y mi maestro me dijo: “¿Si Chiquita?” Y yo le dije, “¿qué es eso?... ¿qué dijo?” Me lo explico’ en español* (May 22, 2014).

[The first day I did not understand anything. I did not have any friends that could help me understand what the lecture was about. On that day I just raised my hand, because the teacher asked, “any questions?” Mr. Godina saw me raising my hand and asked me. Yes little one? And I asked, what is that? What did you say? Then he explained to me in Spanish] (May 22, 2014).

Manuel also added “*Mr. Godina me ayudó mucho; me traducía los problemas y me decía las cosas que yo no sabía en inglés en español.*” [Mr. Godina helped me a lot. He used to translate the math problems, and he would translate words from English to Spanish.] (May 22, 2014)

Even though this was the English component of the dual language program and academic instruction was supposed to be done solely in English, the teacher decided to help recent immigrants in their first language, Spanish. The participant students who attended the 4th grade level with this particular teacher gave him credit for using their first language during instruction. Students seemed very comfortable with the teacher, like Manuel who expressed that Mr. Godina was the best, “*era el mayor maestro yo creo.*” [I think he was the best teacher] (May 22, 2014). Malena added that the teacher was her only friend since nobody wanted to help her: “*Mr. G. era*

mi único amigo porque nadie me quería ayudar y él si me ayudaba.” [Mr. G. was my only friend because nobody wanted to help me, but he always helped me.] (May 22, 2014)

4.7 Discussion

Literature on recent immigrants shows that teachers in schools can make a difference in “mitigating the effects of grouping up under difficult circumstances” (Errante, p. 355). Errante supports the idea that teachers can make a difference for recent Mexican immigrant students who are grouped under circumstances not planned, such as in the case of Patricia whose parents sent her to live in El Paso when Patricia’s mother was attacked by delinquents. This happened in Ciudad Juárez when the thieves tried to steal her purse when getting out of the bank with her children. Even though Patricia attended the new school where she did not know anybody and was not able to understand academic instruction in English, she was able to feel welcome and smile in her new school, with the support of her teachers and classmates.

There has been research regarding the feelings of minority students when being discriminated, in and out of high school context (Rosenbloom & Way, 2004). Colosimo & Xu, (2006) present work on the feelings of shame in ESL nursing education when students enter to this country and do not ask for assistance when not understanding key concepts in English. Research also reveals how the perceived poor literacy and speech skills caused feelings of shame on economically disadvantaged students attending literacy classes in Brazil (Barlett, 2007). Research also reveals that the stressors recent immigrants confront can make their new experience in the new country unpleasant, and can interfere in their adaptation to the new academic environment such as learning a new language and confronting a new culture (Suarez-Orozco, Pimentel, and Martin, 2009; Portes and Rumbaut, 2001; and Zhou and Bankston 1998). García and Sylvan (2011) posit translanguaging practices as one of the academic approaches to

welcome and help newcomers. Data presented in this chapter suggests that translanguaging practices indeed help recent immigrants feel welcome. This term of translanguaging, as defined by García and Sylvan (2011), is the process by which bilingual students and teachers engage in complex discursive practices in order to, “make sense of, and communicate in multicultural classrooms” (p. 389).

In the case of Patricia, as well as in the cases of Manuel, and Malena who also attended classes with Mr. Godina, students continually repeated that their teacher Mr. Godina made them feel comfortable when explaining English lessons in Spanish. In addition, Patricia’s grandmother recognized that the teacher made a difference in her granddaughter’s adaptation to the new school by looking for the best way to assist the student: making sure she was receiving the assistance in her group, and explaining academic concepts in Spanish as well as using other translanguaging practices described in this chapter. Students in their cooperative groups also used translanguaging strategies to help one another, creating a safe environment for recent immigrants. Translanguaging, according to García and Wei (2014), is referred as the ability of emergent bilinguals to use the diverse utterances from their linguistic repertoire “to engage diverse students’ multiple meaning-making systems” (p. 3) in communicative and educational social contexts. Translanguaging is an additive approach that embraces multilingualism through the application of communicating, and writing as an academic expression that can take place in the classroom in any language dominated by multilingual students (Canagarajah, 2012; Creese & Blackledge, 2010; García & Sylvan, 2011; Joseph & Ramani, 2012; Kubota, 2008).

Chapter 5

The Strict Separation of Languages in Mrs. Luna's Class: The Cases of Brianna and Julian

5.1. Introduction: Mrs. Luna's First Grade Dual Immersion Classroom and Language Policy

Mrs. Luna was the first grade teacher of Brianna and Julian, two recent immigrants who attended dual language immersion classes in the participating school for two years. There were a total of 20 students in this class. The first-grade classroom had written signs and academic instruction in both, Spanish and English. The names of the colors and the days of the week were on the board, as well as vocabulary words presented in both languages. Students' projects were published on the walls. One side of the classroom was assigned for students to work on the computers. There were 4 computers for students to read, practice math, or to take tests. In the front of the classroom was the board where the teacher would deliver lessons to the students. The classroom had student-centers where students worked cooperatively in groups of 5 to help each other.

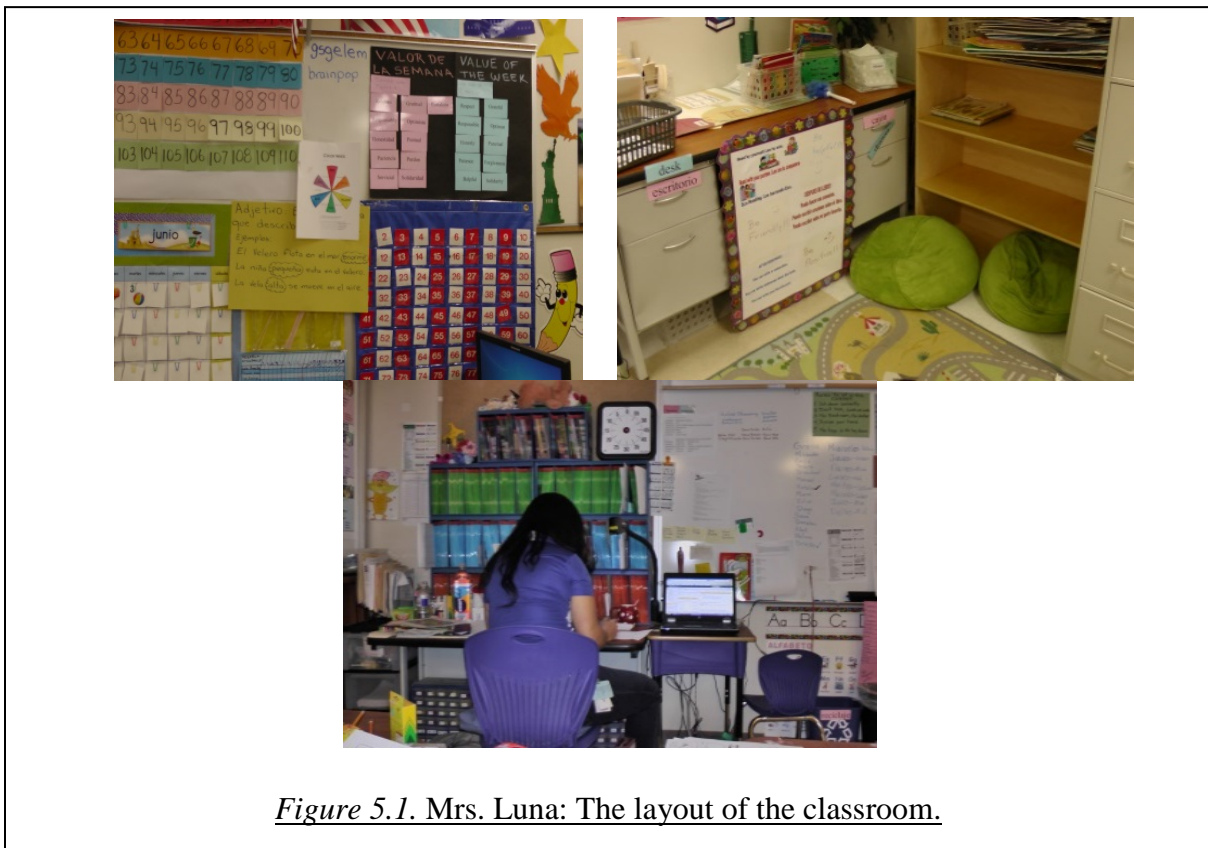


Figure 5.1. Mrs. Luna: The layout of the classroom.

The cases of Brianna and Julian are presented to show the outcome of the rigid implementation of the separation of language policy among these two recent immigrants. Julian's first language was Spanish and immigrated to El Paso, Texas with his family from Ciudad Juárez a year before this investigation. Brianna was from German descent. Her parents were US citizens, but decided to move to Mexico where they had their home and 9 children. Brianna was born and raised in Chihuahua, Mexico. However, her first language was English, and she was at the beginning stage of learning a second language, Spanish. This was the second year Brianna attended the new school given that her parents decided to come back to the US. Mrs. Luna separated languages in a very exclusionary manner in this particular dual language immersion class, when focusing academic instruction on the target language without mixing any other language. Observations in the classroom and interviews with Mrs. Luna are analyzed in this chapter, as well as data gathered from the testimonios of recent immigrants and focus groups. The teacher shared her perspective about language policy, and explained its application in her classroom. The following is Mrs. Luna's perception of the separation of language policy:

I do help them. If I see that they are struggling in completing an assignment; I would do one-on-one instruction so that they can finish the project or the work. That is pretty much what I would do, but continue talking in the opposite language, and they will eventually follow me. Such as: "okay, we are starting to do this... write the date," and then I would write it too. For example, I would start doing the assignment with them.... I would try to keep with the language of the day. It's our... you know... sometimes it's restraining, and I do it since we are in a rush, but the main objective is just to keep the language that you are supposed to (March 21, 2014).

Mrs. Luna explains that she separates languages in a strict manner, and adds that sometimes she translates to recent immigrants “since we are in a rush” (March/ 21/ 2014). This statement is consistent with the participant observations I did in the classroom. In the 4 months doing participant observation in this classroom, I saw Mrs. Luna translating to Julian from English to Spanish only twice (examples presented later in the chapter). I also observed this strategy of strict separation of languages with Brianna during Spanish instruction, the second language of the student. Mrs. Luna truly believed that the recent immigrants “eventually would get it” (March 21, 2014). However, the teacher did not mention anything about the affective state of recent immigrants not being able to understand instruction in their second language. From observations in the classroom and recent immigrants’ testimonios, I found that these students were uncomfortable and stressed out because the teacher resisted using their native language during academic instruction when strictly focusing on the target language of the day (examples presented in section 5.5).

Mrs. Luna affirmed that she used the target language to teach recent immigrants, and would translate only a few times. The teacher did use strategies to engage all students. For example, she explained that she used modeling as a strategy for teaching students. During participant observation in Mrs. Luna’s classroom, I was able to see the teacher using this strategy throughout the subjects. Mrs. Luna would speak loud and clear to students while reading, and explaining books during language arts. She also applied this strategy when writing a summary of the readings on a projector. The teacher would ask questions about the events that happened in the reading. Afterward, she would type the students’ responses on her laptop while the projector reflected the writing on the board. Besides asking questions and taking notes using the projector, the teacher would ask the students to write individual summaries. These activities were applied

during language arts and social studies, or when completing group activities during math and science. However, the teacher did not mix languages when applying these strategies as shown throughout the chapter.

When it was English instruction for Julian whose first language was Spanish, the student was not able to write the summary in the second language on his own. On the other hand, the other team members would write more than half of a page. I did not see Mrs. Luna helping Julian in Spanish. Very few times during the four months of the investigation (two times) I saw the teacher translating words from English to Spanish to assist Julian. These observations reflect Mrs. Luna's beliefs about the need to implement the separation of language policy, reflected on her words during the interview cited above.

During the interview, Mrs. Luna explained that from her experiences teaching recent immigrants, she was able to observe a sort of shock when these students were unable to comprehend the meaning of the lectures in their second language. The teacher explained about these behaviors as if it only happened with previous recent immigrants attending her class in the new school. However, even though it was the second year Julian and Brianna were attending this school, I observed these behaviors occurring to them as well. I noticed that when these students received instruction in their second language, they seemed distracted looking at other classmates who were participating, or just looking around the classroom. At times, I observed the participants confused and other times sad, as shown in the analysis of the data in the next sections. Students' testimonios about their new schooling experiences corroborated what I saw in the classroom. Mrs. Luna also explained that she was able to observe this happening to recent immigrants in previous years. However, she did not mention Brianna or Julian.

According to Mrs. Luna:

They would shut down. They would just copy their partner, and you know, just wait until I taught in the language they understood. So, I saw a lot of that... That was just their reaction, just shutting down, not participating or just looking at the carpet, or entertaining themselves with their fingers... They were bored. Yea... just, waiting for the day to get over” (March 21, 2014).

I saw these behaviors happening when observing Brianna and Julian in their classroom when the academic instruction was in their second language. However, the teacher still practiced the separation of languages in a very exclusionary manner, as shown in the following section.

5.2. Separation of Languages: Copying Without Understanding

For Julian and Brianna, the rigid implementation of the separation of language policy caused them frustration, sadness, and to some degree, embarrassment. In this classroom, the teacher would ask other students to aid the recent immigrants. The teacher reported that students in their groups had to help each other orally and academically as part of the dual language immersion program. From this teacher’s perspective, the program’s policy mandated that nobody, not even her, was supposed to assist students when working in groups. According to Mrs. Luna, “they have to help each other in their groups. Not even I supposed to help them (to recent immigrants) when working cooperatively” (April 10, 2014). These words, very different from the 4th grade teachers, reflect that teachers made sense of the separation of language policy in different ways.

The analyzed data in this chapter helped answer the following questions: How is the separation of language policy implemented in the dual language classrooms? And what are the feelings children when experiencing academic environments where the teacher implements a

strict separation of languages? In this chapter, I address the implementation of language policy, and the emotional experiences observed in this first grade classroom where recent immigrant students were confronted with this pedagogical practice.

During the interview, Mrs. Luna, stated: “I usually pair them up with another student that will provide assistance. If they keep insisting, I do accommodate. Like, I sit them close to me, and I make sure they are following the instruction, and if they do, then that means they do understand” (March 21, 14). However, during the time I observed I did not see this happening in this classroom. Even when students insisted that they needed support in their first language, the teacher continued instruction in the target language.

From my observations in the classroom, when recent immigrant students asked the teacher for assistance, Mrs. Luna sent these students to ask their classmates for help. I never observed Mrs. Luna give instruction or train students on how to aid recent immigrants who were struggling with assignments in their second language. The teacher would constantly remind students to help each other in their groups; she would give stickers to students as an incentive when she saw them supporting each other. Despite the fact that the recent immigrants were receiving some assistance from their peers, students would often limit themselves to just copy from the other students.

For example, on this particular day (March 18, 2014), students were sitting on the carpet and the teacher was holding a book that happens to be in English: *“Frog and Toad Are Friends”* By Arnold Nobel. After making connections with students’ experiences with animals, like their pets, the teacher read the book out loud to them. Then, the teacher asked students to practice the new vocabulary words in sentences she provided. Julian was sitting down with his partner in his group. The student in charge of assisting Julian wrote her sentences, and then allowed Julian to

copy them. I observed this strategy also used with Brianna –another first grader participant in this study. The partners in their groups would assist them by explaining what to do in their first language; they would also write the words for the participants to copy them. As mentioned in the previous chapter, this translanguaging practice of copying was used by all the participants of this study in their different classrooms when working in their groups. Contrary to the setting analyzed in chapter 4 where a flexible approach to the separation of language was implemented, in Mrs. Luna’s classroom, copying was used merely to complete the assignment. Students were not aware of what they were writing. I saw Julian and Brianna in a hurry to finish their work. When I asked these students what the writing was about, they were unable to answer, or read the sentences. When they had difficulty writing in their second language, and after asking the teacher for help without success, students would just end up copying from their classmates in order to complete their assignment. On the contrary, in the cases presented in chapter 4, students were not in a hurry when applying this strategy of copying and did not show any frustration.

The following is an interaction between Julian and his partner that shows how Julian used the strategy of copying in a rush to complete the assignment on time.

Julian: *Nada más nos queda esta y ya acabamos.* – [Just one more and we’ll finish.]

¿*Qué es esto?* (Pointing at the book) [What is this?]

Classmate: Sound.

Julian: In Spanish!

Clasmate: *Sonido* – [Sound]

Julian: ¿*En dónde vamos?* – [Where are we at?]

Classmate: *En la tercera, y ya casi vamos a acabar.* – [In the third one. We are almost done.]

Classmate: *Es lo mismo. Nada más copia.*- [The same thing. You just copy it.]

On a page from a notebook, a classmate writes a word for Julian to copy (the word “forest”):

Classmate: Pretty! (Referring to her own writing) *Y luego copea esta igualita.* – [Then, just copy this exactly the same] (March 18, 2014).

The students in Julian’s group offered the student to copy words from their notebooks, with no conversation about the meaning of the word or much interaction. One classmate even said “just copy this exactly the same”. It is not surprising that Julian was not able to read what he wrote when I asked him to do so. I was able to observe that Julian was frustrated when he could not understand what he copied. According to Julian, “*Yo no sabo como leer en ingles*” [I don’t know how to read in English] (March 18, 2014).

Students seemed nervous when taking long to complete the assignment in their second language, especially during language arts when students had to read and write intensively. I saw these two students looking at the classmates turning in assignments, and they would stare at their uncompleted work, such as summaries or close activities. The recent immigrants would continuously ask their group members for assistance. The classmates would let these students copy their work, but not necessarily explain what to do or collaborate with them.

Sometimes, when I saw confusion and frustration, I tried to help. I asked the recent immigrant students to ask the teacher to let them borrow the book they just read so that we could re-read, and look for answers to their questions. Students liked this strategy. Brianna and Julian seemed very engaged when reading the book for the second time. They paid attention to the reading and to the pictures in the book. They also asked questions in their first language about the reading. I responded in their native language, while reading in their second language. At

times, I saw that the students would not understand the reading in their second language, and they seemed puzzled. In this case, other students in their group or I would translate the passage being read in the first language of the recent immigrant students so that they were able to understand the reading.

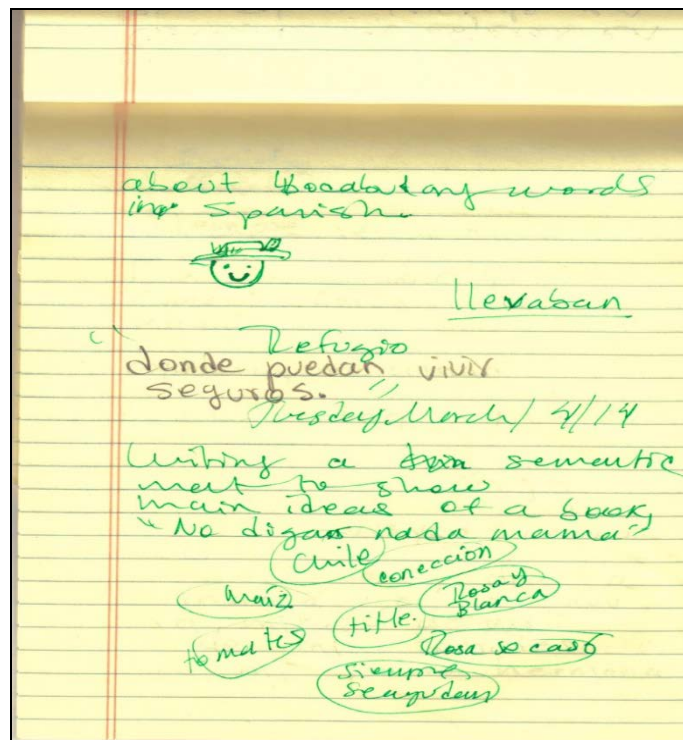


Figure 5.2. The translanguageing strategies I used to assist students during Language Arts:
A copy of Mrs. Luna's thinking map (bottom)

Even though the teacher implemented effective strategies, recent immigrant students in their cooperative groups ended up just copying words with no understanding. With the purpose of engaging all students, Mrs. Luna used visuals, showed pictures from the books she read, and utilized thinking maps. For example, in Figure 5.2, on the middle-down of the page presents a copy of the thinking map developed by the teacher. She would also pause and ask questions about the reading to make sure students were engaged. The use of thinking maps, and posted questions as visuals are teaching strategies that helps keep students focused while organizing

new knowledge. Davila (2005) and Ping et al. (2005) argue that these activities help students organize and remember new information. Davila (2005) explains that in order to increase both understanding and academic achievement, it is important to provide organizational representations as a regular component of instruction. According to Davila (2005), “employing visual tools assist students in developing academic language, and increases brain activity and retention of information” (p. 4). Ping et al. (2005) also suggests the usage of visuals such as mapping and charts for better reading comprehension. Posted questions like who, where, how, what and why, should be implemented for students to use as a guide when reading. According to Ping et al. (2008), “story grammar aims to improve students’ reading comprehension by giving them a framework they can use when reading stories” (p. 164).

Mrs. Luna applied these strategies to teach students on English and Spanish instruction days (one day instruction in Spanish, and one day instruction in English). What is important to highlight, however, is that regardless of these interactive activities, recent immigrants not necessarily could engage, as will be shown in the next example. For example, on March 04, 2014, Spanish was the assigned language of instruction. The teacher was reading aloud while pointing to the words and pictures in the book *Don’t say a word, mama/No digas nada mama* by Joe Hayes. The teacher paused to ask students questions about the reading while pointing at pictures in the book. For example, *Cómo era Rosa con su mamá?* Students saw the picture on the book and answered, some of them in Spanish, some of them in English, “*le ayudaba* [she helped her], she was nice...” The teacher, Mrs. Luna, did not mix languages, but allowed students to answer the questions in both languages. This translanguaging practice used by students when communicating in the classroom promoted the participation of most students. However, Brianna (the recent immigrant) got distracted. Whenever the teacher asked questions in Spanish, which is

Brianna's second language, the student did not participate. At times, she seemed confused while other students actively participated answering the teacher's questions about the book they had just read.

When going to their desks formed in groups, Brianna did not seem comfortable when assigned to write her summary in Spanish. I went to her group and asked if she needed any help. She said "I don't know what happened in the story." The group members were trying to help her, but she did not know how to write her summary down. I asked if she needed the bilingual book so that she can re-read with me, and be able to finish the assignment. She brought the book, and we started to read the book again. Other students frequently would ask the teacher for the book to re-read and complete the assignment.

During other lessons, where the teacher had organized group work time dedicated to writing, I repeated this practice of re-reading the book of the day with Brianna and Julian. To do this, we would sometimes get together with other students, usually Julian and Brianna's team members who wanted to re-read the book as well so that they could also be able to write the summaries in their notebooks, and answer the questions asked by the teacher. This was done with the purpose of helping Brianna and Julian understand the readings in their second language, and to help them when writing the summaries in their second language. Team members would also by translating and explaining concepts in the participants' first language. Brianna and Julian seemed very comfortable with re-reading the book, and discussing with their group.

On this particular day, after the teacher read the book, and students wrote their summaries in their group, I advised Brianna to ask the teacher for the book so that we could go over the pictures and write the summary in Spanish. Mrs. Luna, in a loud upset voice with a tone of disgust, told Brianna: "*Ya leímos este libro Briana. Lo leímos juntos ayer. Ya te lo sabes!*" [We

just read the book together yesterday, Brianna. You already know it!]"'. Brianna turned red; I could tell she was embarrassed and uncomfortable. She seemed puzzled, as if she was not able to understand what the teacher was talking about, and she just looked at me. The teacher, referring to me, asked: "Usted necesita el libro? Allí esta." (Do you need the book? There it is.) (4/10/14). The teacher pointed to one of the students' desk. Her tone of voice was the same she used to reprimand Brianna. The teacher seemed uncomfortable with this action, which she considered a distraction.

After writing their summaries, students had to go to recess. When I was going out of the classroom the teacher held me back, and asked me how much longer I was planning to conduct observations in the classroom. Mrs. Luna told me that it was a distraction for students when I was helping in the native language. Furthermore, she said that helping students was disrupting the rule of self-regulated learning of the dual language program. The purpose of the dual immersion model was for students to help each other. Under the dual immersion program, "not even the teacher (according to Mrs. Luna) was allowed to help students in languages other than the target language." Students should receive help from their classmates when working in cooperative groups. When I realized that my presence might have been a distraction influencing the everyday practices of the classroom, I decided not to do participant observation in this classroom anymore, following this teacher's request. What was important to analyze here was Mrs. Luna's conception of the separation of languages. According to her perception, the children were allowed to use either language to collaborate when completing an academic task; however, the teacher should solely use the language of the day. Thus, I interpret her upset tone on that day as a response to my use of the native language when the second language was the target for academic instruction.

Mrs. Luna resisted using recent immigrant students' native language to teach recent immigrants, which contributed to their frustration. For example, I have provided examples of student quickly copying text from their classmates in order to complete assignments without really understanding what they were writing. Brianna's and Julian's words show this confusion and frustration: "I don't know what happened in the story," (Brianna) and "yo no sabo Inges" [I do not know Ingles] (Julian). This type of response from these two recent immigrants made me question the rigid separation of languages. It seems that a more flexible approach to the separation of languages would better support recent immigrant students' learning.

In contrast to Mrs. Luna's adoption of a rigid separation of languages, the 4th grade participant teachers (presented in chapter 4) not only applied a more flexible separation of languages when teaching recent immigrants, but he used any resource available for these students to understand the lessons, including the allotment for me to do participant observation, and to serve as a scaffold for students' learning when using their first language to assist them.

5.3. Brianna's Responses to the Separation of Languages: "*Briana was quiet, and seemed distracted*"

On this particular day, the students were sitting on the carpet. The science lesson was about the scientific method and the instruction was in Spanish. . Mrs. Luna wrote on the board in Spanish "hipótesis," while students were looking at her. Mrs. Luna explained that hypothesis is like guessing what is going to happen when planning to make an experiment. The teacher used me as an example of doing research using the scientific method, and explained that when doing an experiment students and scientists should take lots of notes, like I was doing. She used my research practice as an example to explain the stages of the scientific method. The following data shows Mrs. Luna teaching in Spanish during science and constantly using examples to teach

students. This excerpt of data is one of many examples I have on how Mrs. Luna used only Spanish without mixing languages. According to Mrs. Luna:

La hipótesis es cuando predecimos lo que va a pasar, antes de hacer un experimento. Pero primero el científico tiene que observar, y tomar muchas notas, como Mrs. Talamantes (todos los niños voltean a verme). Ella está haciendo un estudio y necesita tomar muchas notas. Así nosotros tenemos que tomar notas cuando estamos haciendo un experimento. [The hypothesis is when we predict what is going to happen before doing an experiment. First, the scientist has to observe and take lots of notes, like Mrs. Talamantes (all the kids looked at me). She is doing a study and she needs to take notes. Just like we have to take notes when we are doing an experiment] (February 13, 14)

Most recent immigrants, like Julian, understood the lesson and were engaged in it. However, Brianna was not. While the teacher was delivering the lesson in Spanish, Brianna was quiet, and seemed distracted looking at other students participating. Mrs. Luna asked: “¿*Qué es la hipótesis?*” [¿What is the hypothesis?] I could tell Brianna wanted to participate. She raised her hand and quickly put it down. She looked indecisive and confused. The teacher chose Julian, “*A ver... ¿Julian?*” [Let me see... Julian?]. The student expressing himself with ease in Spanish said, “*es cuando decimos lo que va a pasar*” [It is when we say what is going to happen]. Another student added, “*y tenemos que tomar muchas notas, como ella*” [and we have to take lots of notes, like her]. The teacher very enthusiastic said: “*Muy bien! Vamos a ver un video*” [Very good; let’s watch a video] (February 19, 2014).” Notice that Julian is very engaged when the lesson is given in Spanish, his native language. I observed that this student was very focused on the academic instruction, in comparison to English class, when Julian was distracted and did not participating (as addressed in the following section).

The teacher showed a video about the topic. At times, she paused the video to ask questions or to make comments. Throughout this interaction, teacher spoke in Spanish only. It was a cartoon about some kids planting flowers. The first flower was watered five days a week, the second three days a week, and the last one, one day a week. The teacher paused the video, and asked the following question: *¿Cuál de las plantas creen ustedes que va a crecer mejor?* [Which of the plants do you think is going to grow better?] The majority of the students answered in Spanish. Some of them predicted that the first flower was going to grow more. Other students predicted the second flower would be the one growing more. Brianna was quiet, and only looked at the classmates who were participating. She seemed confused and uncomfortable, looking around or even distracted. However, I saw that Brianna paid really good attention to the video. Julian was very engaged in the discussion. The following is an interaction with Julian and some classmates:

Student: *¡Yo creo que la planta que va a crecer más es a la que le echaron más agua!*

[I think that the plant that got more water will grow more than the other ones!]

Student girl: *A la que le dieron agua todos los días.* [The one that was watered every day]

Julián: *Sí. Creo que sí, a la que le dieron más agua.* [Yes. I think so, the one that got more water]

Student girl: *No. Creo que a la que le pusieron menos.* [No, I think that the one that got less water]

Brianna only listened to her classmates discussing in Spanish. She did not participate in the discussion. The student listened to the interaction, but would often get distracted looking at other classmates sitting down nears her. The students were surprised when the teacher told them that the flower that grew more was the one that was watered every other day.

The students, in their groups, copied the words Mrs. Luna wrote on the board while discussing the video. Some of the students asked questions in English, but the teacher answered them in Spanish, a translanguaging practice. However, Mrs. Luna did not integrate both languages in the discussion. Briana copied the notes from the blackboard, and asked the teacher a question in English. Mrs. Luna, addressing the whole group, answered in Spanish:

Brianna: Teacher! What happened when the flowers got more water?

Maestra: *Acuérdense del video. Vean las notas.* [Remember about the video. Go over your notes].

Brianna in her group: What flower was the one that grew more?

Classmate: The one that got water one day but not the other day.

Brianna: How did you spell “the flower” in Spanish?

Classmate: *la flor* [the flower] (The student wrote it on a paper for Brianna, and Brianna copied).

Similar to other examples in chapter 4, the students in Briana’s group tried to help her understand the Spanish assignments by explaining in English. The classmate explained the content of the video and provided language support. This is an example of group collaboration, and shows how the recent immigrant relied on her classmates to understand instructions. She also ended up copying her classmate’s summary written in Spanish. Because of her strict separation of language policy, the teacher did not use English during this lesson. The translanguaging strategy of copying, in the case with Brianna and Julian, was different from the strategy of copying by the rest of the participants in other classrooms. These two recent immigrant students were frustrated when not able to finish their assignments when the rest of students were just about to finish. These students were not engaged in practices for

understanding academic concepts in the second language when in a rush copying from other students. On the contrary, other recent immigrant students did not use this practice just to complete assignments. These students used this translanguaging strategy as a resource to learn, and perform bilingually in their cooperative group when helping each other while the teacher provided assistance in their native language when needed (as presented in chapters 4 and 6).

5.4. Julian's Response to Separation of Languages: *No entendí que paso* [I did not understand what happened]

On this day of English Instruction, the teacher was ready to read a book in English. She was sitting down on a small chair in front of the class while the students were paying attention to the teacher who was showing the front page of the book. While reading, Mrs. Luna paused to show the pictures throughout the book. She was teaching students the concept of “background knowledge.” Mrs. Luna read the book while pausing to ask students if they were able to see any connection between the book and their background knowledge. “Do you remember how it looks like when it rains a lot?” Mrs. Luna asked. Brianna answered, “Yes. At my house in Mexico, sometimes the water would get in the house. We used to live by the river” (February 19, 2014). The students were very engaged in the reading. They responded to the reading questions in both languages, Spanish and English (a translanguaging practice addressed in chapter 4). However, the teacher did not mix languages. She kept the instructions in English.

A student: Teacher... *¿qué dice aquí?* [What does it say here?]

Teacher: Let me see... How many pages does the book have?

Student: Oh... twenty?

Teacher: No... eleven. Write it down.

Julián: *¿Qué número es ese?* [¿What is that number?]

Teacher: Go and look for it (February 19, 2014).

A classmate went to the multiplication table that was attached to the black board, and helped Julian counting the numbers in English and then in Spanish.

Julían: *Oh... es el once.* [Oh... It is the eleven]

This event shows how the students used translanguaging strategies to communicate and assist each other. Students were using their entire linguistic repertoire in order to participate and understand the lectures. In this particular case, Julian used different modes to perform bilingually in the classroom (García and Sylvan, 2011). The student asked the teacher in Spanish, and although Mrs. Luna answered in English (translanguaging) and did not implement a flexible separation of language policy, the student communicated in Spanish with a classmate who helped Julian identifying the number he was looking for; given in English (translating). Subsequently, Julian copied the word in his assignment (translanguaging practice of copying).

As with the previous example of Brianna, this event shows how Mrs. Luna did not assist Julian in his native language when he needed academic help in Spanish (his first language). I was able to observe this pattern throughout the English and Spanish instruction. At times, I observed a sense of resistance on the part of the teacher when students whose second language was Spanish or English like Brianna and Julian, asked for assistance. A few times she translated to Julian, as mentioned before, but the teacher predominantly kept using the assigned language of instruction, as she reported. As seen in the example above, Mrs. Luna, answered the questions students asked using their first language, but she answered in English, the language assigned for that day.. In that sense, Mrs. Luna used an approach to communicate with students bilingually (considered a translanguaging practice). However, recent immigrants would still not understand what the teacher said when she explained concepts in their second language, and the communication among the teacher and these students was not fluid, as presented in the example

above. In the period of the participant observation in this classroom (about 100 hrs), the teacher only translated two times to Julian from English to Spanish. As shown in section 5.5., Brianna did not understand what the teacher said when talking to her in her second language, Spanish. The examples presented in section 5.5. And this current section shows that the communication was not effective when the teacher answered the recent immigrants' questions in their second language. These students would not understand the teacher's explanation to their questions. I observed that the majority of the time, when students used their native language to communicate with the teacher, she would pretend she was not listening, and kept speaking in the target language.

Julian told me he missed content during the class in his less-dominant language, English. For example, one day after Mrs. Luna had finished reading a book in English, Julian turned and told me "*No entendí que pasó*" [I did not know understand what happened]. The teacher continued with the reading in English. At the end of the reading, Mrs. Luna told students to pair up with their assigned partners to talk about the story they had just read with the teacher. The students discussed the reading for about five minutes. They spoke sometimes in English, sometimes in Spanish. When students worked in pairs or in groups, the teacher promoted discussions in which the students were able to use the language of their choice to do so. However, when going back to the whole group discussion, Mrs. Luna resumed the discussion solely in English, the target language of the day.

During English instruction, I saw Julian struggling when unable to understand what to do during the activities in the groups. Moreover, Julian seemed very frustrated when trying to remember what the teacher wrote on the board, which was a summary of the book she read out loud. Because the students in Julian's group were more advanced in their English academic and

oral skills, they completed their work while Julian was still working on his second sentence. The students' summaries in Julian's group were more than half of the page long. However, Julian's attitude was very positive in the sense that even though he struggled writing his summary and erased the two simple sentences he wrote, he asked classmates for help when the teacher ignored him. At the end of each writing activity in English, Julian was only able to write one or two sentences for the English assignment.

After reading the book in English, the students had to discuss their thoughts on the reading for about five minutes with a partner. I observed the majority of students using English, the target language of the day to discuss the reading with their partner. However, I also observed that the students who were paired up with the recent immigrants would discuss the reading in Spanish. After the five minute discussion with a partner, the teacher called students to face the front where she was sitting down and conducted a final whole-group discussion in English. After the discussion, students were assigned to go to their desks in their groups of four to write about the story they read with the teacher. Before writing, the teacher on the board wrote in English the points discussed by the students with their partners who communicated in both languages, English and Spanish (example presented next). After writing the answers on the board with a final summary, Mrs. Luna covered the writing she made on the board, and asked students to write their own summary.

The following is a discussion between the teacher and students while the teacher writes the important points on the board. This was the pre-writing activity, before students wrote their own summary:

The teacher asks questions in English. Who are the characters of the story?

Student: About the frog and the toad.

Teacher: What are the settings of the story?

Student: *Puede ser el forest* [It can be the forest].

The teacher continues with the summary in English.

Julian: Teacher... *¿Qué dice aquí?* [What does it say here?]

Teacher: Author.

Julian: *¿Qué es eso?* [What is that?]

Teacher: *¿Quién escribió el libro?* [Who wrote the book?]

Julian: *Oh, gracias.* [Ok. Thank you].

Teacher: Guys, remember here is the title of the book and the name of the author (February 19, 2014).

This scenario shows one of the two times I observed Mrs. Luna translated to Julian from English to Spanish when the instruction was in English. Notice that when the teacher answered in Spanish, Julian was able to understand what the word “author” meant. This example shows how when the teacher included recent immigrant’s native language within academic instruction, it facilitated recent immigrants understanding of unknown academic words written in English. However, as soon as Mrs. Luna did the translation during class, she promptly went back to give her lesson in English, following the strict separation of languages throughout the rest of the lesson. This is consistent with what Mrs. Luna told me during the interview when I asked her if she supported explaining academic instruction in students’ first language. The teacher explained that she would do it sometimes when she was in a rush to finish the assignment, then she would continue the lesson on the target language.

After the discussion of the book, students were talking in English and Spanish about the sequence of the story. Julian was not elaborating the activity the way the teacher assigned which

was to write down their own summary of the book she just had read. He seemed nervous holding the pencil, looking at other students completing the assignment. Julian was not completing his summary. Even though he tried to finish the work in English, he was not advancing like his group members. He was stuck with one sentence. The teacher had covered up the notes about the reading on the blackboard with the purpose of having students develop their own writing skills. However, Julian, as other recent immigrants, relied on environmental print and visuals as part of their repertoire of resources, especially when they had to write in their second language. Julian seemed stressed out when unable to remember the words in English:

Julian's partner: *No lo estás haciendo bien.* [You are not doing it right].

Julian: *¡Haste tú tu trabajo! Si me lo saco mal, ¡es mío!* (Do your work! If I get it wrong it is my work!)

Partner: Yo nada más te estoy diciendo. (I am just telling you)

A few seconds later:

Julian to the partner: *¿Cómo se escribe te?* [How did you write tea?]

The partner: Let me see (she writes "TE" down on a piece of paper).

Julian: *Oh... ¿así de fácil?* (Is it that easy?)

Partner: Yes (February 19, 2014).

This scenario shows how Julian felt frustrated when not able to finish his work in English. He snapped at his classmate when the other student criticized his work: "*No lo estás haciendo bien*". [You are not doing it right]. Also, this interaction shows that sometimes the students in their attempt to help recent immigrants; they misspelled the words they did not know. For example, instead of writing "tea," Julian's partner wrote "TE," the Spanish word for tea. Before the class ended, the student, just like Brianna, ended up copying from his classmates in

order to finish the assignment. However, when I asked what he wrote, he was not able to read his writing.

5.5. Brianna's Emotional Impact of Separation of Languages during Spanish Class: "But I don't know." "Yes you do!"

Throughout the days of participant observation, I was able to observe the same attitude of the teacher towards mixing languages. The teacher focused on the target language and did not mix languages. Mrs. Luna would sometimes be disappointed with Brianna, as shown in the following incident. She frequently argued that the student knew how to read in Spanish, and that she did not need any assistance. At times, I was able to observe some sort of disgust when I was trying to aid the students using their native language. From the observations, the teacher was resistant to use the students' first language when teaching in their second language. In addition during the interview, Mrs. Luna firmly stated that the students were able to understand academic instruction in their second language, while my observations told a different story.

On March, 21, 2014, the students were sitting down on the carpet ready to start the lesson. They usually started the day with guided reading, and had to discuss the book with partners. On this day it was different. The teacher talked to the students in front of the classroom. The theme was about the new learning centers she had organized for students to practice their reading, writing, and mathematical skills. The previous day, Mrs. Luna pulled out new activities for students to have in the new learning centers.

Each day, Mrs. Luna assigned 20 minutes for students to spend on two of the 5 centers. The teacher kept track of the centers students visited to keep control of students working on each of these academic spaces. That morning, the teacher decided to start the day by showing the new centers, the procedures to do activities, and the rules of using the centers. She moved to the first center that was to the right, in front of the classroom. Mrs. Luna explained the different activities

that were part of center 1: the reading center. There were books in both languages, English and Spanish. She told students the center was for reading, writing, and reinforcing their knowledge of the alphabet. She started by showing a little basket with books and Mrs. Luna told the class:

First thing to do when you are in this center is to read three books from the basket. I have them in English and Spanish. Please do not mix the Spanish books with the English ones. Then, you have to read all of the vocabulary words on the flashcards. Also, I have them in English and Spanish (since all instructions and activities must be in one language for a full day).

The teacher told Brianna, “Please, Brianna. You have to read in Spanish. And do not tell me you do not know how to read in Spanish because you know how to read in Spanish.” The little girl shook her head. “But I don’t know.” “Yes you do!” The teacher answered. “You have read to me before.” Brianna’s face turned red, and she seemed confused and embarrassed. All of the students were looking at her (March 21, 2014).

I also felt uncomfortable for Brianna who was forced to read by herself in Spanish when I saw her struggling in this language. Furthermore, when the teacher resisted assisting the student in understanding the vocabulary words from the reading in Spanish in her first language, Brianna seemed to feel stressed, and had to ask her classmates for help (figure 5.2). The teacher’s answer to Brianna when the student asked for support in her native language was, “*pregúntale a tus compañeros*” [Go to ask your classmates].

Not only did I observe Brianna’s uncomfortable feelings, Brianna also communicated them through her testimonio by drawing and writing in her journal. In the course of the focus groups, when asking questions to Julian I spoke in Spanish, his first language, and the student answered in Spanish. He drew pictures, and wrote short sentences to show his answers. Then, I

would ask the same question to Brianna in English. She also would record her answer in writing in her first language, and by drawing pictures in her journal. When the students shared their answers with me, I would translate to each of them so that they would know each other's answers.

During the focus group, Brianna brought up the way she felt when she was not able to understand the lectures in Spanish. It is important to mention that during the first focus group, we addressed the question about the participants' experiences when going to the new school and how they felt.

Brianna answered that she felt "sad" during the Spanish instruction day and happy at the end, because the next day would be the instruction in English where she would understand everything (figure 5.3). The following is her drawing in the journal, explaining her feelings towards the rigid separation of languages after I asked her "How do you feel when you are not able to understand the lectures in Spanish?"

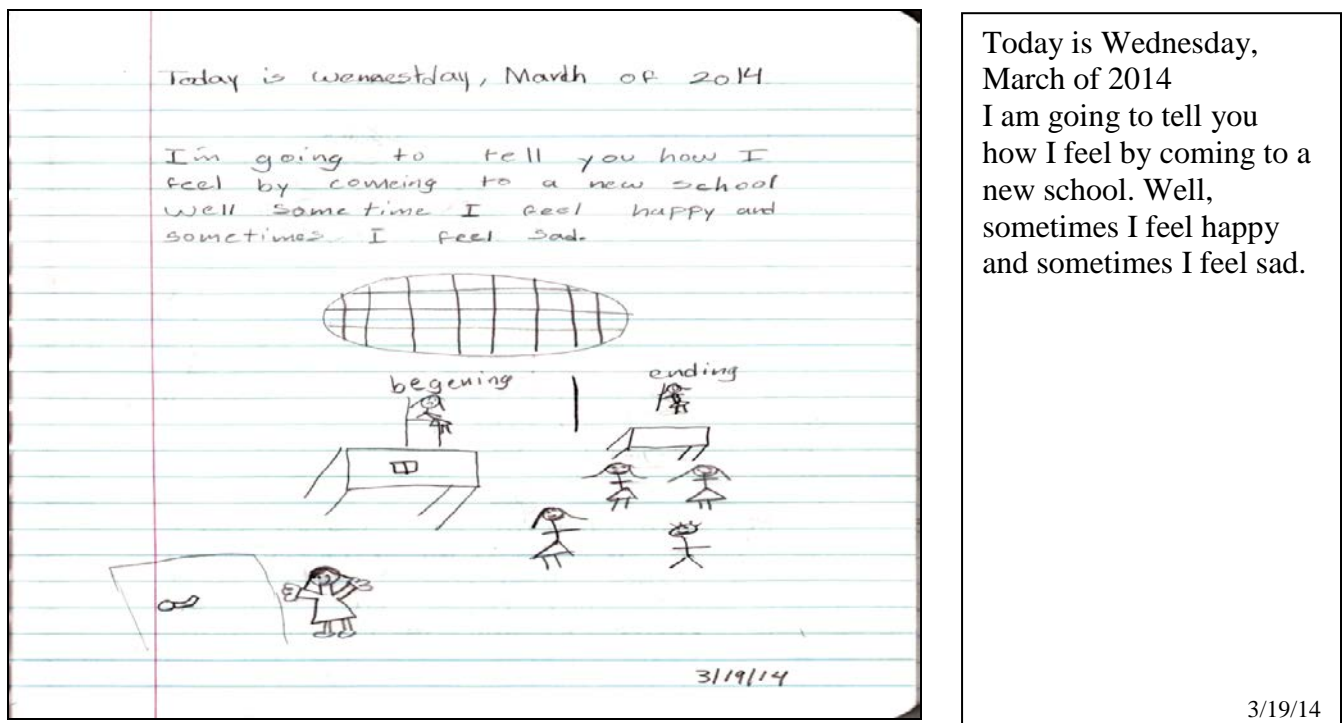


Figure 5.3. Brianna's feelings: the teacher separated languages in a strict manner.

During the focus group, Brianna explained that she drew the picture (figure 5.3) because when the class was taught in Spanish she was not able to understand the teacher, and she felt sad or mad as she expressed in drawing and writing in figure 5.3. In her journal shown in the figure above, Brianna drew a little girl with a sad face showing her own feelings. At the end of the day, she said she felt happy because the next day she was going to the English class (her first language) where she would understand everything. Brianna drew a little girl with a happy face. During this focus group, Brianna explained the reason for her drawing: “the day in Spanish I was sad, and then happy in the English class, one day sad, and one day happy, sad and happy and so on (March 19, 2014).” Brianna’s testimonio reveals how the strict separation of language impacted Brianna’s feelings who explained through drawing, writing and orally that she felt “sad, or mad” when the teacher did not assist her in her native language. However, the teacher explained that recent immigrants “eventually would get” when the lessons were delivered in their second language. The teacher ignored the fact that these students felt sad and uncomfortable when the teacher resisted to use their native language to explain academic instruction given in their second language.

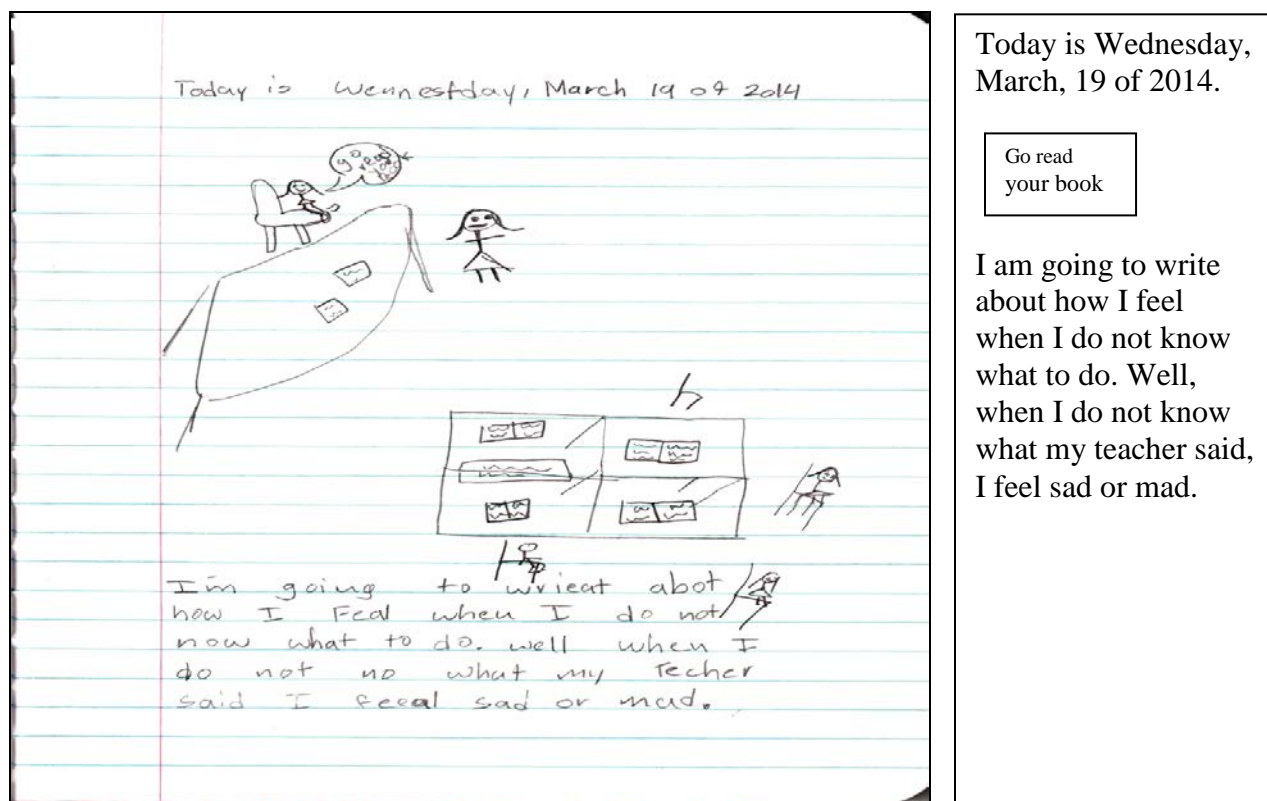
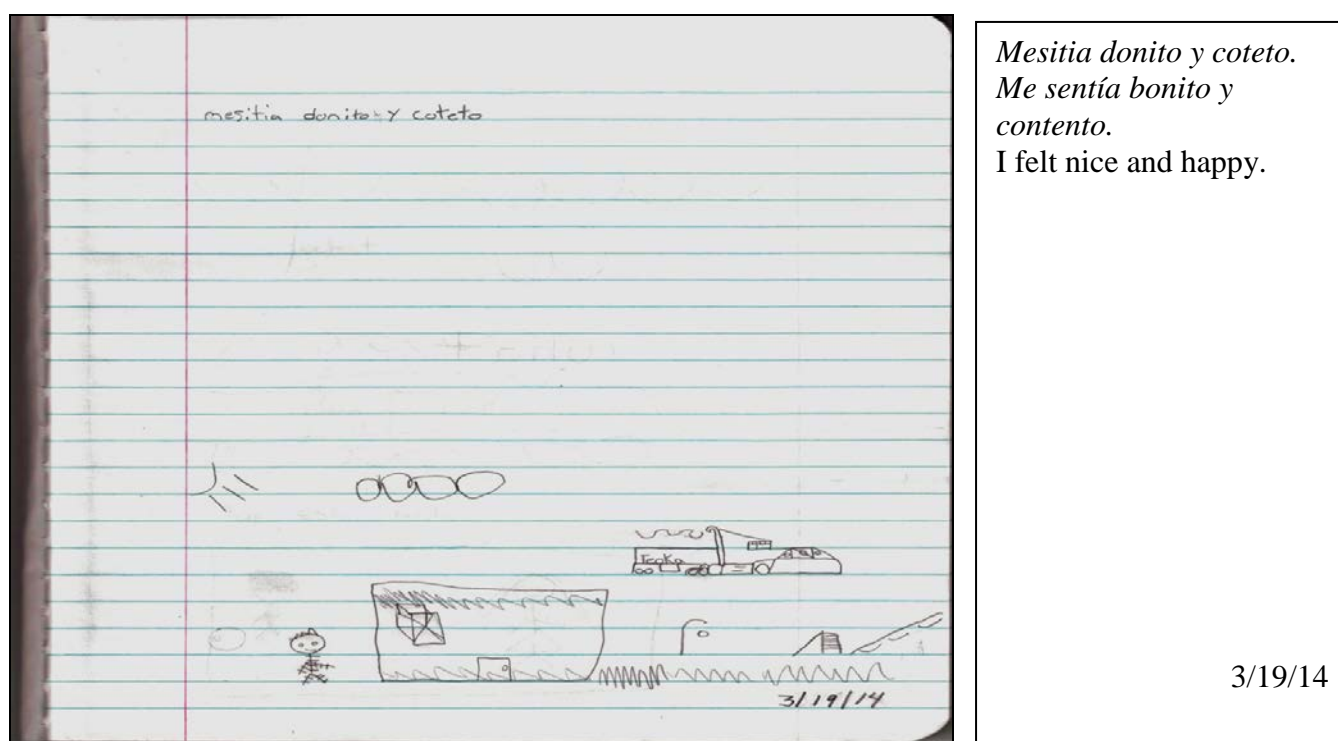


Figure 5.4. Brianna's feelings in the Spanish class

On the next page in her journal, Brianna continued drawing and writing about her experiences at her new school (figure 5.4). She drew herself in the classroom during the Spanish class. She drew the teacher's desk where she had a round table with assignments and graded papers. The student drew the setup of the classroom, and showed her group members working while she was drawing herself asking the teacher for individual assistance. Her face in the drawing shows confusion. Brianna explained during the focus groups that her drawing shows how she felt "sad" because Mrs. Luna kept speaking to her in Spanish, and she did not understand what the teacher said. The student also said that she had to rely on her classmates for understanding what the teacher explained to her in Spanish: "I guess she [the teacher] told me to go back and read my book, because that is what one of my classmates said" (March 19, 2014). Brianna explained her feelings regarding the strict separation of languages expressing that she felt "sad or mad."

Julian's drawings and text (figure 5.5) also explained how he felt when he started attending the new school. He was "*coteto*" (happy) and felt "*donito*" (*bonito*, happy) when he attended his new school for the first time (figure 5.5). Julian drew a little school. It was sunny. He even drew the slides and basketball pole where he played during recess, and a truck. It made him proud and happy that his father was a truck driver; that is why he drew his father's truck in his journal, communicating his overall feelings of happiness when he first moved to El Paso. In his testimonio, he reported being happy when he started going to the new school.



Mesitia donito y coteto.
Me sentía bonito y
contento.
 I felt nice and happy.

3/19/14

Figure 5.5. Julian's feelings in the new school.

However, when asked about how he felt when not able to understand the lecture in the second language (English) he said he felt sorry for himself, "*me sentía lástima*" [I felt sorry for myself] (figure 5.6 shown next). This figure shows Julian's testimonio, which includes two responses of the student. The first drawing shows his classmates helping when he needed assistance. Julian drew a scenario of him with a partner in the classroom, and he drew a little

paper with the word “what” as an example of how his classmates in his team would write down a word he did not know. As has been shown in chapter 4, this was a translanguaging practice frequently used by students in all grades. The second drawing shows how he felt when the teacher did not want to explain what the student did not understand in English. This time he drew himself with the teacher. He covered his face in the picture. He did not draw the father’s truck, which was a symbol of how happy he felt at the beginning of the school year. This was because he immigrated to this country with his family, and his father was his role model, as her mother Irma explained. He expressed that he felt “sad” when the teacher did not want to speak to him in Spanish. The two students’ answers were similar. Both students, Brianna and Julian felt sad when the teacher did not assist them in their native language.

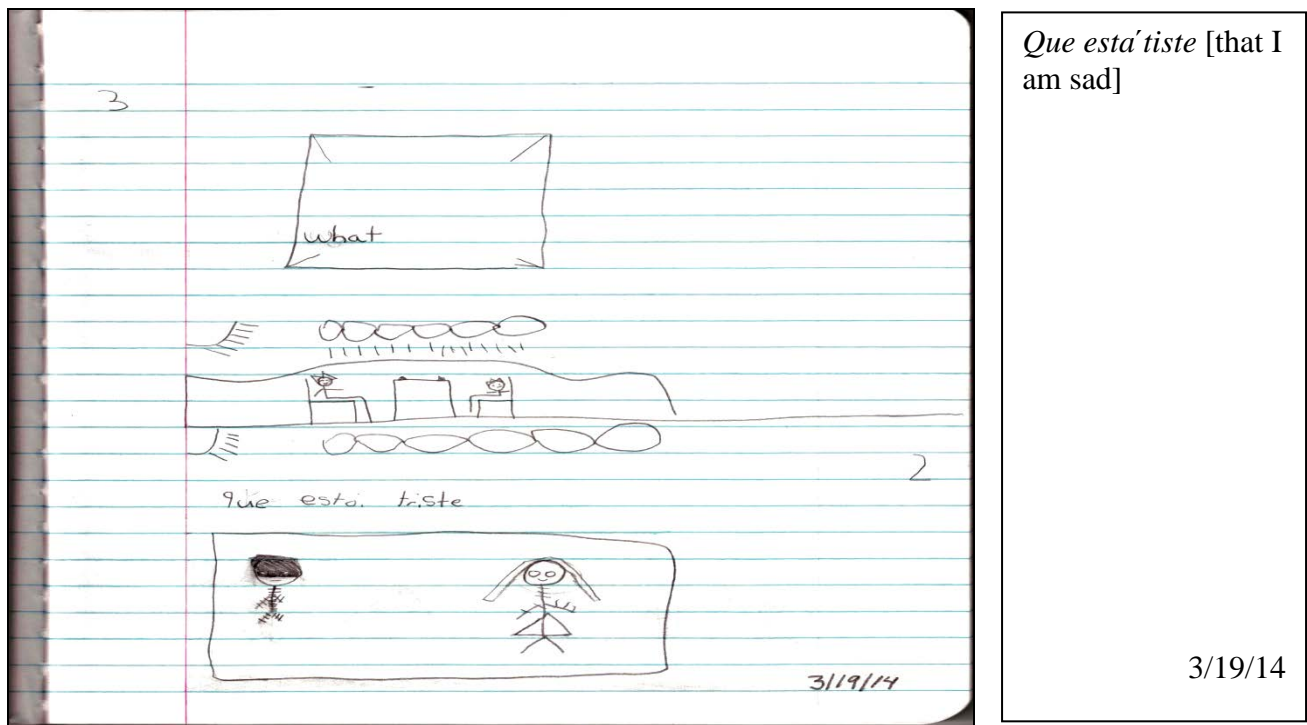


Figure 5.6. Julian feels sad.

Through their multimodal testimonios, Brianna and Julian explained their feelings towards the strict separation of languages in their dual language classroom when Mrs. Luna opted to immerse students in their second language without mixing languages. The research

reviewed in chapter 2 about dual language instruction focused on the effectiveness of the program. Research has often neglected the voices of the disadvantaged, such as in the case of recent immigrants attending dual immersion classes. Research that neglects investigating the oppressed becomes the dominant voice when the voices of those who are not being heard are unaddressed. Delgado-Bernal (1995) argues that people of color's voice has to be heard over the dominant one. The author points out that people of color's stories come from different frames of reference. Julian and Brianna's voices in their testimonios are the counter narratives of recent immigrants that are opposite to the dominant narrative that only addresses effectiveness of bilingual programs, but ignored these students' affective experiences when attending classes where the teacher does not include their language as scaffold for learning academics in their second language. Their testimonios reveal their stories from the point of view of the oppressed that experienced feeling "sad" or "mad" because of the rigid separation of languages. Furthermore, as will be shown in the following section, students shared their recommendations to dual language teachers to be flexible in the use of languages for instruction.

Research reveals that negative emotions can affect learning (Levine & Edelstein, 2009; Levine et al., 2009; Levine & Pizarro, 2004). Levine et al. (2009) highlight the fact that emotions are related to working memory. Using Baddeley and Logie (1999), Levine and Pizarro (2004) define working memory as, "the processes involved in the short-term maintenance, manipulation, and rehearsal of information. It serves as the gateway for long-term retention and retrieval (p. 838)." In sum, according to Levine and Pizarro (2004), and Levine and Edelstein (2009), emotional experiences can affect the capacity to retain information.

This finding is consistent with literature that addresses second language acquisition and the affective factors that can inhibit language learning (Horwitz, 2010; Krashen, 1981;

Schumman, 1994). Krashen (1981) proposes that high levels of anxiety and low self-esteem are affective factors that slow down the process of acquiring a second language. Such factors are concentrated in an “affective filter” that regulates language learning. Motivation, according to Krashen (1981), keeps this affective filter in a low level and facilitates the learning process, such as in the case of Patricia shown in chapter 4 who was motivated when Mr. Godina adopted a flexible separation of languages to help Patricia understand academic instruction given in English, the student’s second language.

5.6. The Emotional Impact of the Strict Separation of Languages: Recent Immigrants’ Recommendations

This was their second year in this school, and Brianna and Julian were still unable to write or read in their second language while other students in their groups were able to write and read in the two languages. I was able to corroborate this from the analysis of recent immigrants’ testimonios, the participant observation in the classroom, and from the interviews with their parents. Students believed they did not learn their second language fast enough in their second year attending their new school, as they explained in their testimonios. It is well known in the field of bilingual education that it may take between four to seven years to achieve academic proficiency in a second language (Cummins, 1979, 1980; Collier, 1987). Therefore, it is not surprising that the recent immigrant students could not do what their peers could when completing assignments in the second language. However, what is important is to understand how these students feel regarding their advancement of second language acquisition. They felt they could learn faster with the help of their native language in classes where the teacher separated languages in a strict manner, as revealed from their recommendations to the teachers presented next.

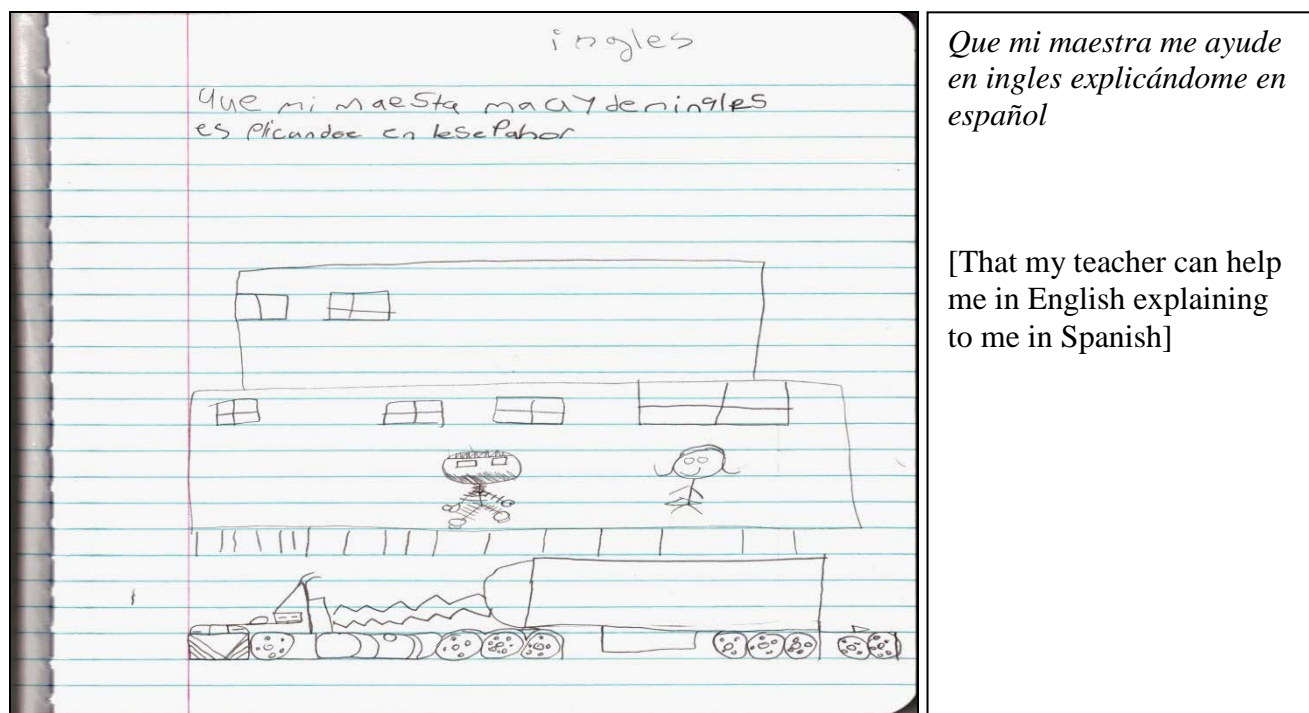


Figure 5.7. Julian's suggestion for teachers with recent immigrants

When I asked Brianna and Julian during the first focus group session about what suggestions they would give to their teacher to better help recent immigrants who are learning the second language, both students agreed that it would help recent immigrant students if the teacher would explain what to do in their first language when assigning work in their second language. Julian answered in writing and drew a picture about it on his journal (figure 5.7): “*Que mi maestra maayuden ingles esplicandose en leseepanol*” [That my teacher can help me in English explaining to me in Spanish] (March 19, 2014). He drew himself with the teacher in the classroom. There were no students with them. He drew the teacher smiling, but he was not. When analyzing data from previous responses, I found that Julian explained that he felt sad, because the teacher did not want to explain what he did not understand during English instruction in his native language, Spanish. In this particular drawing, the student was not happy, and suggested the use of Spanish within academic instruction to help recent immigrants understanding the lessons given in their second language.

Brianna, whose first language was English, in agreement with Julian added: “It’s because I don’t understand what she says in Spanish.” The students also explained that they did not feel like they had learned enough of their second language in the two years they attended their new school in the US. “*Ya pasé a segundo, pero no aprendí Inges.* [I am going to second grade, but I did not learn English]” as Julian explained (June 6, 2014). On the other hand, according to Brianna, “I only know *¿cómo estas? Hola, gracias* [How are you, hello, thank you], but that’s it” (June 6, 2014).

Previous examples show the voices of recent immigrants that critically come up with a solution to their struggles with their second language. Indirectly, they were advising the teacher to be more flexible with the separation of languages. These first grade recent immigrants were recommending a change in the program policy in order to better help recent immigrants like them. Their recommendations are similar to the solutions Malena and Manuel proposed to teachers with recent immigrants to better assist them in their new schooling experience presented in chapter 6. This finding is also consistent with research that shows that using testimonios as a methodological approach can help to better understand the experiences in education of others (Perez-Huber, 2009), and to make a change through ideological consciousness, as posited by Degado-Bernal, Burciaga, and Flores (2012).

The strict separation of languages, which is a key component in a dual language class (Adelman Reyes, 2007; Collier & Thomas, 2004; Cummins, 2005; Lee et al., 2008), took place in this 1st grade dual language classroom. In words of Mrs. Luna, the academic help needed by the recent immigrants “should be given by the classmates in their groups which is one of the practices in a dual immersion class” (April 10, 2014). Mrs. Luna explained this a month before the end of my investigation, when reluctant to allow students to receive any help from somebody

else, including the teacher and I in the language that was not the target of instruction. However, Cummins (2005) criticizes the rigidity of language separation, and argues that even though the extensive usage of the target language is very important when implementing a dual language immersion program, “it should not be implemented in a rigid or exclusionary manner” (p 18).

5.7. Discussion

I extend on Ruiz’s ideas of language as a resource (translanguaging) and as a problem (separation of languages). I posit that in a dual language classroom, even though language serves as a resource when students work cooperatively, inclusion of languages for academic instruction is also treated as a problem for the implementation of the program and the language policy to isolate the second language. Separation of languages is proposed as necessary to assist the students to be bilingual and biliterate in the dual language model (Adelman Reyes, 2007; Collier & Thomas, 2004; Cummins, 2005; Lee et al., 2008). However, from the presented findings with the recent immigrants Brianna and Julian, this pedagogic approach created a sense of frustration, sadness, and embarrassment among recent immigrants who received academic instruction in the unknown language half of the academic time. The teacher did not mix languages. Drawing from Bakhtin’s (1981) ideas of dialogism, I was able to see the friction between the policies of separation of languages when the dominant voice (centripetal force) dominated over the recent immigrants’ plea for communicating in students’ first language (centrifugal force). From results obtained in these cases, the dialogism within the teacher and the students was not effective when the policy of separation of languages acted as an oppressive system for the recent immigrants who felt stressed because the teacher resisted supporting these students in the language they dominated, their first language. It is when centrifugal forces and centripetal forces collide and can create tension within teachers and students.

My position in this argument is not against the separation of languages and the cooperative learning that, according to research is a very effective approach for fostering bilingualism and biliteracy. My argument is to advocate in favor of recent immigrants that are not able to understand what the lectures are about when explained in their second language. My position is against the strict separation of languages that negatively affect recent immigrants, such as in the cases of Julian and Brianna. The academic help needed by these students is left to unsupervised “self-regulated learning” in their groups (Windstead, 2013). In a cooperative learning approach, “the teacher keeps the process under control, guiding them by means of providing materials, explaining, etc. when the students are in need of help” (Tarim, 2009, p. 326). In the examples presented in this chapter, the teacher did not monitor or guided the work.

These findings add to the research literature that reveals how the stressors recent immigrants confront can make their new experience an added stressor for them in their schooling in the new country. These experiences can make it harder for students to adapt to the new academic environment (Portes and Rumbaut, 2001; Suarez-Orozco, Pimentel, and Martin, 2009; Zhou & Bankston 1998). These results are also consistent with researchers who argue that, “people experiencing positive and negative emotions have different motivations. They process information differently, as a result, and these differences affect memory” (Levine & Pizarro, 2004, p. 542). The authors explain that the emotional aspect of people’s experiences plays an important role in retrieving information. Levine and Edelstein (2009) explain that, “emotion or stress impairs memory for information that could be considered central.” (p. 836)

In the cases of Brianna and Julian from the findings obtained in this study, these students’ new academic experiences generated stress in their new schooling experiences, and feelings of shame, and sadness. These results are consistent with literature that addresses minority students’

feelings of shame when they do not know the language of instruction and do not participate in the discussions (Barlett, 2007; Colosimo & Xu, 2006). From the analysis of data, I found that recent immigrants were not able to understand academic instruction, to write or read simple sentences in their second language which made them feel more stressed out. When copying other students' work, these students were not able to read what they just wrote. This finding is consistent with research that reveals that affective experiences can impact learning, including language acquisition (Horwitz, 2010; Krashen, 1981; Schumman, 1994).

Chapter 6

Linguistic Bullying in Education: Malena and Manuel, Their Counter-stories *“Sentía como que yo no valía nada... se reían de mí”*

6.1. Introduction

Linguistic bullying in education is my contribution to the body of literature that addresses language as a tool for oppression in education, such as in the case of discrimination among minority high school students (Rosenbloom, 2004), as a generator of shame when not able to understand academic concepts in the second language (Colosimo, 2006), and when speech and literacy skills are used to maintain social inequalities (Barlett, 2007). This finding also adds to the body of research on recent immigrants' schooling experiences (García & Barlett, 2007; García Flores, Chu, Orellana & Reynolds, 2008; García & Sylvan 2011; Mendoza-Denton, 2008; Orellana, 2001; Valdés, 1998, 2010) and to the literature that addresses bullying in education that does not focus on language (Atlas & Pepler, 1998; Craig, Pepler, & Atlas 2000; Gumpel, Zioni-Koren & Bekerman, 2014).

This chapter includes the cases of Malena and Manuel, two 5th grade students consecutively attending the second and third year at Border PK-5 elementary school. These cases helped answer the questions regarding how the separation of languages and translanguaging practices influence the affective aspect of emergent bilinguals when acquiring the second language. What are the feelings that children express when experiencing these two different academic situations? The focus is on the affective aspect of recent immigrants who experienced bullying from their peers in their new school. These aggressions were based on the recent immigrants' perceived inability to fully perform in their second language, English, in both

academic environments where the teachers strictly separated languages, or when translanguaging was used as a pedagogy to help these students understand academic concepts.

In both cases, this type of harassment was a result of using language as a tool to oppress recent immigrants when working in cooperative groups; their group members refused to help and made fun of them. This type of harassment took place even though the purpose of cooperative work is for students to help each other in their groups where self-learning is expected to take place. In this particular study, the recent immigrants felt left out when attempting to follow the self-regulated learning practices in their groups and were not able to get the necessary help from other students, as will be shown throughout this chapter.

Few studies are focused on bullying in education (Atlas & Pepler, 1998; Craig, Pepler, & Atlas 2000; Gumpel, Zioni-Koren & Bekerman, 2014). However, despite the fact that bullying has been approached in diverse academic contexts and grade levels, research has neglected to investigate the bullying against recent immigrants based on their linguistic perceived inability to fully perform in their second language. It is important to address such an issue, particularly in a dual immersion classroom where academic instruction is taught in these students' second language half of the academic time (Adelman Reyes, 2007; Collier & Thomas, 2004; Cummins, 2005; Lee et al., 2008). Contrary to other research findings addressed in this study, unsupervised self-learning in cooperative groups facilitated acts of harassment against recent immigrants when team members who were more advanced in their academic and oral English resisted to support recent immigrants and made fun of them.

This study reveals recent immigrant students' voices, their counternarratives through testimonios as used by LatCrit (Ladson-Billings & Tate, 2006) regarding their schooling experiences in a new country. Recent immigrants uncovered their feelings through their

testimonios. Testimonios are the counter-stories that come from the point of view of people of color, as addressed by Matsuda (1987), and Delgado (1989). According to Delgado (1989); “one can acquire the ability to see the world through other eyes” (p. 2439). These counternarratives challenge the dominant discourse about race and, in this case, language policy from the perspective of the oppressed which can help when advocating for educational reform, as Solórzano and Yosso (2002) and Delgado (1989) argue.

This study also involves discourse which revealed the participants’ perceptions and “particular points of view on the world” (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 293). Discourse in this study is presented through students’ testimonios as used by LatCrit (Ladson-Billings & Tate, 2006). Using Bakhtin’s ideas, I am including the word as an utterance for free expression (discourse). Recent immigrant students were able to express their schooling experiences with their teachers and classmates in their classrooms. Students revealed their new academic experiences through their testimonios which were presented in writing and drawing in their journal. Students also were able to orally share their testimonios within the group.

6.2. Mrs. Vidal’s Classroom and the use of Translanguaging: The Flexible Separation of Languages

The classroom was located by the cafeteria, and near the library. Along the center of the door was a narrow window. There was a colored curtain with flowers and leafs adorning the small window. When entering the classroom, there was a desk with a projector and science objects, such as jars with sand and some graded papers on the side. Standing at the door to the right and left of the classroom were two blackboards against the walls with notes and the agenda of the day with the academic standards to cover.

There were also signs mainly in English, and few of the signs were in Spanish. Straight from the door at the front side of the classroom was the main desk of the teacher. There were

some family pictures and more graded papers. Two cabinets with shelves were near the sides of the main desk against the walls. On top of one of the cabinets, there was a transparent bowl made out of plastic that held different colorful marbles that Mrs. Vidal (figure 6.1) used as an incentive for giving rewards to students with good behaviors. When the students worked well in their groups, the teacher would fill the bowl with marbles until it reached the top. At the end of the six weeks when teachers turned in grades, if the bowl was full, the students would then earn an ice-cream party for the class. When the bowl seemed to be getting empty at some point in the six weeks, it was because students were loud, or because some of them had forgotten to do the homework.



Figure 6.1. Mrs. Vidal: The 5th grade dual language teacher.

The desks for students were set up in five groups of four. There were signs, science projects, and classroom rules in English. On the boards were the notes of the day (from the lessons presented on the day) written in English and about the different subjects. In the back were dictionaries in both languages, some of them were bilingual. There were also the text books

for all the subjects. At the center of the right side wall, there was a round table with assignments, vocabulary words, and books for students.

Cooperative work was frequent in Mrs. Vidal's classroom. After the teacher had delivered the lessons at the beginning of each academic subject, students were assigned to work and help each other in groups of four. Mrs. Vidal assisted students when they needed academic support, as presented throughout the following interactions. In this classroom, the teacher waited until she was called for assistance. I did not observe Mrs. Vidal walking around the classroom monitoring group work; an important characteristic of cooperative learning where students are the center of learning (Johnson & Johnson, 1999; Kagan, 1995). During cooperative work, the teacher worked on her desk grading papers or organizing the assignments for the next academic subjects.

The following is an interaction where the teacher, Mrs. Vidal, assisted students when they were asking for academic support. This interaction also reveals how translanguaging was applied among the students when working cooperatively, and when the teacher assisted students using translanguaging strategies such as including first and second language. This was the first day I observed Mrs. Vidal's classroom. On this day, students went to the laboratory to do an activity about the phases of the moon. The laboratory teacher gave each student a foam ball on a wooden stick to pretending it was the moon, and at the center of the classroom was a light bulb that was turned on. Students were supposed to move the ball in different positions to see the shadow on the ball representing the different phases of the moon. When going back to their classroom, students in their groups were assigned to do a puzzle that put the phases of the moon in order. The teacher gave academic instruction mainly in English, but occasionally she would say some Spanish words throughout the lessons (translanguaging).

In Malena's group, students were trying to put the phases of the moon all together. The teacher provided a sheet of paper with all of the phases of the moon shown in small figures. Students had to cut them and form the whole cycle. Students were sitting down in groups, and on occasion they would stand up looking for the next phase of the moon. In Manuel's group, students were very competitive and always looking at other groups' progress; trying to be the first to finish. At the same time, Malena's group was working together as well, and they used Spanish and English when interacting. At times, they would call Mrs. Vidal for help, and the teacher would use both languages to assist students, but focused more on English.

Malena: *Esta va aquí.* [This goes here].

Classmate: *¿Dónde está? Necesito un new moon.* [Where is it at? I need a new moon].

Malena: *Tenemos que encontrar las halves.* Is this one? [We have to find the halves. Is it this one?]

Classmate: *Si, éstas son halves.* [Yes. These are the halves].

Student: Mrs. Vidal! Mrs. Vidal! Do we have to do it again and again?

Mrs. Vidal: Let me see... if you put them *todos juntos* [all together] you will be able to see (February 13, 2014).

Previous data shows how the students communicated with each other in both languages. The teacher also answered to students' questions using both languages as well. I observed the teacher using translanguaging in order to explain academic concepts and to ask questions in Spanish while the lesson was delivered in English. As a reference, during the science lesson, Mrs. Luna asked students, "*¿Cómo se debe de ver su half moon in the cycle?*" [How does the half moon supposed to look like in the cycle?] "Remember the balls and their positions *para recibir la luz del sol*" [to receive the light from the sun] (February 13, 2014). Notice that students

and the teacher in the previous excerpt of interaction in the classroom used English to address new academic words such as “half moon,” and “new moon.” Students also used translanguaging strategies to assist each other (strategies addressed in chapter 4).

The translanguaging practice that the students used in this event was: discussion in both languages during group assignments. This was an academic environment where the teacher did not apply the separation of languages in a strict manner. I perceived a friendly environment in this classroom; the recent immigrants seemed to be comfortable with the teacher and the classmates in their group. However, Malena sometimes appeared to be sad. At times, Malena would not talk to her classmates throughout the time of the participant observation, in comparison to other days that she was happy and collaborating with the group. The following is the interaction in Manuel’s group during the same first day of observations in science.

Manuel: This is the half moon!

Classmate: Yes, we need the full one.

Manuel: *Déjame ver... ¡aquí está!!* [Let me see... here it is!!]

Classmate: *¡Ya mero acabamos!* [We are almost done!] (Looking at other groups advancements)

This was Manuel’s 3rd year attending this school. From observations in the classroom, I saw how Manuel was able to communicate in both languages very well. However, even though he was reading library books in English at his level, sometimes when the class participated in reading out loud, Manuel had some trouble reading in English and Mrs. Vidal would assist him by correcting the pronunciation. Sometimes she would pause to help him by using Spanish, “A L I T E R A T I O N” The teacher vary clear and slow pronounced the word, and explained in Spanish “*Acuerdese mi hijo, cuando tenemos TION, lo pronunciamos como SHION* (the teacher

pronounced using phonemics in Spanish), Okay, keep reading, please.” [Remember, when we have TION, we pronounced it like if we are pronouncing in Spanish, the teacher models pronunciation in Spanish] (February 13, 2014).

Previous examples show the use of translanguaging when the teacher, Mrs. Vidal, deliver academic instruction and when students in their cooperative group help one-another using both languages between interactions. Within these interactions, I observed that Malena sometimes was quiet and seemed sad and not participating as much as other days. I found that even though Mrs. Vidal used a flexible separation of languages to deliver academic lessons, and translanguaging was part of the cooperative work, I observed that Malena was bullied against because her perceived undeveloped proficiency in the second language as shown in section 6.3.3. I did not see any bullying against Manuel when doing observations in the 5th grade classroom. However, during one of the focus groups presented next, both Manuel and Malena reported acts of bullying mainly in the first year attending the new school in a dual immersion class, as presented in sections 6.3.1, 6.3.2, and 6.3.4.

6.3. The Focus groups and the Testimonios: Malena, Alberto, and Manuel at the School’s Library

During the course of the second focus group, Malena, Manuel, and Alberto shared their testimonio about their experiences in the new school. The students participated actively in the discussions. As in other focus group sessions, the students shared their stories with the group and me, after taking about 10 minutes to draw, and explain in writing about their new schooling experiences in their journal. Throughout the four focus group sessions after the participants finished answering questions individually by drawing and writing, they had the opportunity to share their answers only if they felt comfortable doing so. The three students were able to connect with one another since they had gone through similar situations when attending dual

language classes in the new school. Kamberelis and Dimitriadis (2006) suggest the use of focus groups as qualitative research instruments, and broadly define it as “collective conversations or group interviews” (p 887). Using Bakhtin (1986), Kamberelis and Dimitriadis (2006) explain that the use of testimonios as a tool for gathering data allows participants to share their own experiences in a natural environment that form part of their social life through “conversations, group discussions, negotiations, and the like” (p. 887).

The three recent immigrant students were writing and drawing in their journal. The students were very quiet and focused on their answers. As all the focus group sessions were held in the library early in the morning, it occurred that some students from different classrooms were allowed to go to the library to get books to read. The library was quiet, but as the students came in and out of the library to check out more books, the scanner that read the barcode of the books would constantly go off and on as they were being checked out. Nonetheless, my participants did not get distracted with the environment at the library and kept focused when answering the questions. I would give the participants 10 to 15 minutes to record their answers in their journals. Then, the students would share their answers. They drew, wrote and discussed their answers with the group. They seemed very comfortable when sharing their schooling experiences in groups.

On this particular day of the focus group, Malena had a big smile when I went to look for her and Manuel in their classroom. When we went to the library to set up our focus groups, she was happy and asked when we would have our next meeting. In a previous gathering, students had answered questions about their previous schooling experiences in Juárez. All of the participants were happy and eager to share their fun academic and personal experiences before moving to this country. On this particular day, however, the topic was about the new schooling experiences when they recently arrived at the US and started attending classes.

6.3.1 Separation of languages and self-oriented learning: “no me querían ayudar”

Malena explained that her 4th-grade teacher, Mr. Godina, was the only one helping her. Manuel explained that when he was in the third grade his teacher, Mrs. Segovia, did not help him as much. Manuel explained:

“Las primeras dos o tres semanas ella me ayudaba, pero después ya no, y me mandaba con mis compañeros, pero no me querían ayudar.” [The first two weeks the teacher used to help me, but then she did not help anymore, and send me with my classmates to get help, but they did not want to help] (May 2, 2014).

Malena explained:

El primer día no entendía nada. No tenía amigos que me lo explicaran. O sea que yo nada más levanté la mano, porque nos dijeron: Any questions? Y yo nomas la levanté (riéndose). Y mi maestro me dijo: ¿Si Chiquita? Y yo le dije, ¿qué es eso?... ¿qué dijo? Me lo explicó en español pero también me dijo que era una clase de inglés y que no podía estar hablando mucho en español. [The first day of school I did not understand anything. I did not have any friends that could explain to me what the lectures were about. I only raised my hand, because the teacher asked: Any questions? And I just raised my hand (laughing). And my teacher told me: Yes, little one? And I asked, what is that? What did you say? He explained to me in Spanish, but also told me that he would not be able to talk too much in Spanish”] (May 2, 2014)

The previous data shows how both students, Malena and Manuel, experienced being ignored by their classmates when asking for support in Spanish their first year in this school. It also shows how Mr. Godina was the teacher who helped recent immigrants, and made them feel comfortable, as these students expressed. The teacher was aware that the school policy required

him to separate languages, and not use Spanish in the English class. When I listened to Malena's answer I asked the following question to clarify if the teacher did assist her in Spanish, even though he told the student that he "was not supposed to speak too much in Spanish."

R: *¿Pero si te ayudaba tu maestro un poco en español?* [But did your teacher help you a little in Spanish?]

Malena: *Sí. Y como no tenía amigos que me lo explicaran, él me lo explicaba siempre* [Yes. Since I did not have any friends to explain for me, he was the one always explaining] (May 2, 2014)

Manuel listened to Malena very carefully, and without being asked, he extended the conversation. The participants agreed with each other regarding their feelings towards their new schooling experiences in a different country. They shared their schooling experience without friends and with any academic support in their first language when working in groups, both of which participants believed were necessary to understand the lessons and assignments they had to accomplish.

Manuel explained how his third grade teacher was not able to assist him too much. The majority of the time the teacher would send the student to ask his classmates for assistance, but they did not want to help. Similarly, Malena also explained how her classmates in 4th grade were not willing to support her:

Manuel: *A veces en tercero me iba con la maestra y al principio ella me ayudaba. A veces me decía: "Acabalo tú solo" y le decía a mis compañeros que me ayudaran.*

[Sometimes when I was in 3rd grade I used to go with the teacher, and she would help me. Sometimes she would tell me: Finish it by yourself, and she asked my classmates to help me]

R: *Me dijiste que a veces llorabas ¿Por eso llorabas?* [You told me that sometimes you used to cry. Is that why you used to cry?]

Manuel: *Sí. Porque no me querían ayudar.* [Yes, because nobody wanted to help me]

R: *¿Y les preguntabas?* [And you asked them?]

Manuel: *Sí, Les preguntaba, pero a veces no me querían ayudar.* [Yes. I asked them, but sometimes they did not want to help].

R: *Y cuando no te querían ayudar, ¿qué hacías?* [What would you do when nobody wanted to help you?]

Manuel: *Le preguntaba a la maestra y ella sí me ayudaba poquito al principio, pero después ya no.* [I used to ask the teacher, and at the beginning she used to help me a little, but then she did not help anymore]

R: *¿Y tú, Malena? ¿Cuál era la razón por la que llorabas?* [And you, Malena? Why did you cry?]

Malena: *Porque ya no lo podía soportar. Porque a mí tampoco me ayudaban.*

[I cried because I could not handle it anymore. Because they did not want to help me either]

R: *¿No te querían ayudar al principio? ¿Y qué les decías?*

[¿They did not want to help you at the beginning? And, what did you tell them?]

Malena: *Ayuda, ¡por favor!* [Help, please!]

R: *¿Y Mr. Godina no les decía que te ayudaran?* [And Mr. Godina did not ask them to help you?]

Malena: *Yo me sentaba con él a que me explicara y después cuando le entendía que hacer me iba a la silla y lo empezaba yo a hacer sola* [I used to go to sit down by the

teacher so that he could help me. Then, when I knew what to do, I used to go to my desk and I started to do it by myself] (May 2, 2014).

Malena indicated that the first time she wanted to go to the restroom, she tried asking for permission in English, but she said it wrong:

R: *¿Y qué hacían cuando no podían decir algo en inglés?*

[And what did they do when you guys were not able to say something in English?]

Manuel: *Cuando yo decía algo mal se reían.* [When I said something wrong in English they just laughed at me]

R: *¿Y cómo te sentías?* [And how did you feel?]

Manuel: *Mal* [Bad]

R: *¿Y tu maestra que decía?* [And what did you teacher say?]

Manuel: *¡No se rían!* [Don't laugh!] (May 2, 2014)

Malena listened to Manuel when the student explained his experiences with bullies in his class, and nodded her head when approving Manuel's responses and reactions. Then, she shared her testimonio saying:

Al principio en la clase de inglés, yo pregunte' que si podía ir al baño (en inglés), y me equivoqué. Todo el mundo se estaba riendo. Entonces el maestro me dijo; "¿que querías decir hija?" Y le dije que si podía ir al baño... Y él me dijo: "Así se dice, bla bla bla," y ya me lo enseñó cómo. [At the beginning in the English class, I asked if I could go to the restroom in English, and I said it wrong. Everybody was laughing at me. Then the teacher said, what did you want to say hija? And I asked that if I could go to the restroom... and he said: You have to say it like this... bla bla bla, and he taught me how to say it in English].

The previous scenario is an example of language oppression, as mentioned by Bakhtin (1981) in his theory of dialogism and heteroglossia where the theorist reassures that in order to keep power among other languages; the mainstream language is placed at the top of a stratified system to keep control over other languages that are considered less important. In this case, students who attended dual language classes since the beginning in kindergarten were advanced in their knowledge of English by the 5th grade. In this context, language oppression occurred when recent immigrants received academic instruction when implementing a flexible or rigid manner of separating languages, and when the teacher did not monitor group work.

Language oppression occurred when students were working in cooperative groups, and some of them were assigned to help recent immigrants. In these situations, as shown in the previous excerpt from the focus group, these students refused to assist recent immigrants when they were struggling with the second language and made fun of their perceived inability to speak or understand the second language. Students used language to oppress the recent immigrants that needed their support in English.

For recent immigrants, the strict separation of languages generated stress. These students were at a disadvantage when receiving academic instruction in their second language, and when the teacher excluded their first language half of the academic time. This environment created tension among students that were not receiving the help needed from their teachers or classmates. On the contrary, their classmates made the academic experience for recent immigrants less pleasant when they would laugh, and make fun of their perceived linguistic limitations.

It is important to mention that in this study, these unfortunate situations of bullying against recent immigrants happened in the later grades (3rd, 4th, and 5th grades). The two

participants attending a first-grade dual language class (Brianna and Julian) did not experience bullying in their classroom. When asking Manuel and Malena what the reason would be for participating first graders to not experience bullying, Malena answered, “*Yo creo que es porque a nuestra edad, ellos piensan que ya debemos de saber en inglés. Por eso se burlan.* [They think that at our age we should be able to know how to speak in English, that’s why they make fun of us]” (March, 7, 2013). Manuel agreed with Malena. Malena and Manuel were able to use their own point of view about “critical issues” (Canagarajah, 1993) that were happening in their school. The students were able to perceive inequalities of power relations in their classroom (Carspecken, 1996) where language was used a tool for oppressing minoritized languages (Bakhtin, 1981).

6.3.2. Malena’s feelings: “*Sentía como que yo no valía nada... Se reían de mí*”

Malena had a very hard time getting used to the new school, according to her father Mr. Hernandez, and her previous teacher, Mr. Godina. They explained that Malena would sometimes run away crying from the classroom to the restroom. Malena’s 4th grade teacher said that the student was very smart, but very sensitive and was always sad.

The student never told either her teacher or her father about any of her unfortunate experiences being bullied in the new classroom with the classmates during her first year in the new school. This happened even though the teacher applied translanguaging in the classroom with the student, such as translating English to Spanish in the class (see translanguaging strategies practiced by Mr. Godina in chapter 5). The teacher attempted to include the student in the group work. However, students ignored Malena and made fun of her because she did not know English. The teacher was not able to detect these types of aggressions against the new student, due to the fact that she seldom monitored when students were working cooperatively.

Mr. Godina and Mr. Hernandez were also unaware of Malena's experiences in the classroom when she was being bullied. This finding is consistent with research that reveals how the victims of bullying do not talk about this aggression with their parents or with the teacher (Banks, 1997; Olweus, 1993).

Malena expressed her frustrations of not receiving help from students, of being made fun of because she did not know English, and of not being able to pronounce English words without an accent. The first time she mentioned her feelings towards the way she was treated was when I introduced myself as a doctoral student, and I asked her and Manuel if they wanted to be participants of my investigation. Before class, I asked the teacher if it was possible to talk to Malena and Manuel about my research. I explained to students that I was once a recent immigrant as well, and that I went through hardships when learning the second language. I also explained that with effort and with family support, I was able to become a bilingual teacher, get my masters, and pursue my doctoral degree. I also explained the focus of my investigation and told them that I was interested in them being my participants.

After explaining the purpose of my study, without any questions on my part Malena offered her feelings based on her academic experiences with students that used to laugh of the fact that she did not know the second language at that time. She also explained that it was even worse because students were not willing to help, "*Lo que yo puedo decir es que me sentía muy mal... Sentía como que yo no valía nada... Se reían de mí*" (crying) [What I can say is that I felt really bad... I felt like if I was not worth anything... they laughed at me] (March 25, 2014).

Malena's distress was so remarkable that even though that day I did not ask about their experiences of recently attending the new school, the student broke into tears and externalized

her feelings. During one of the focus group sessions, bullying was also a pattern I found, as presented by Malena in figure 6.2.

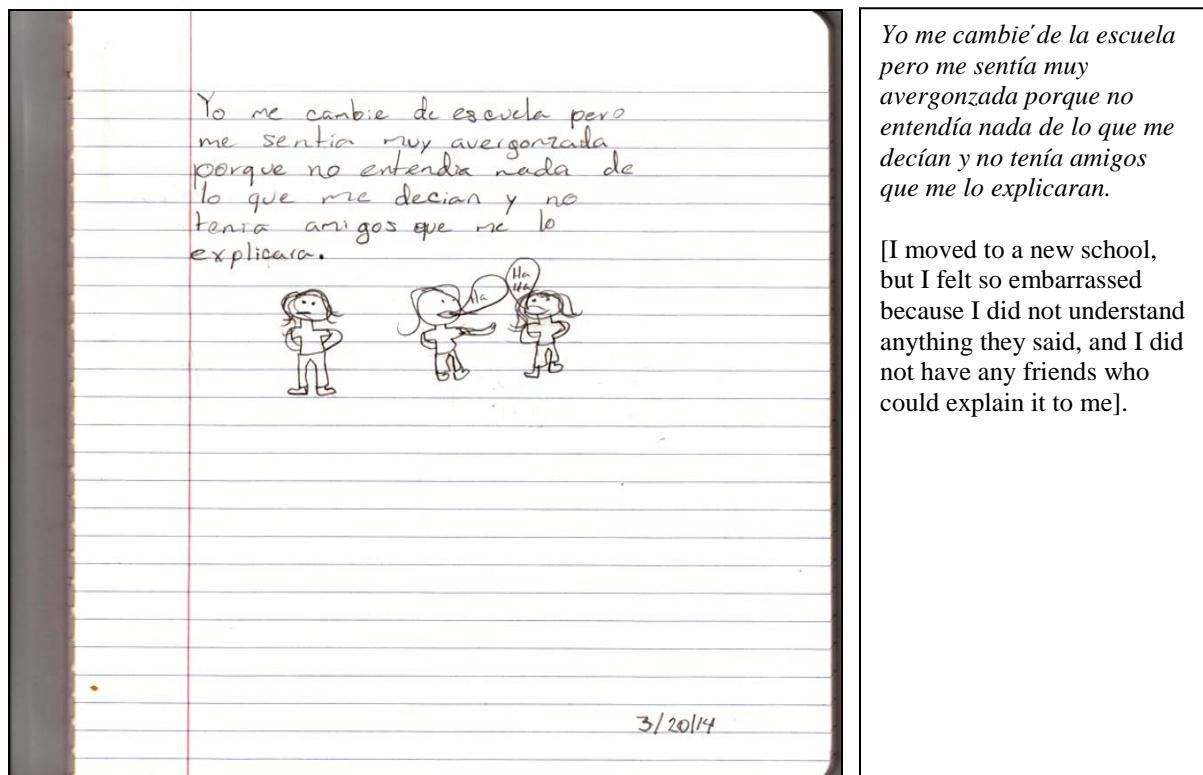
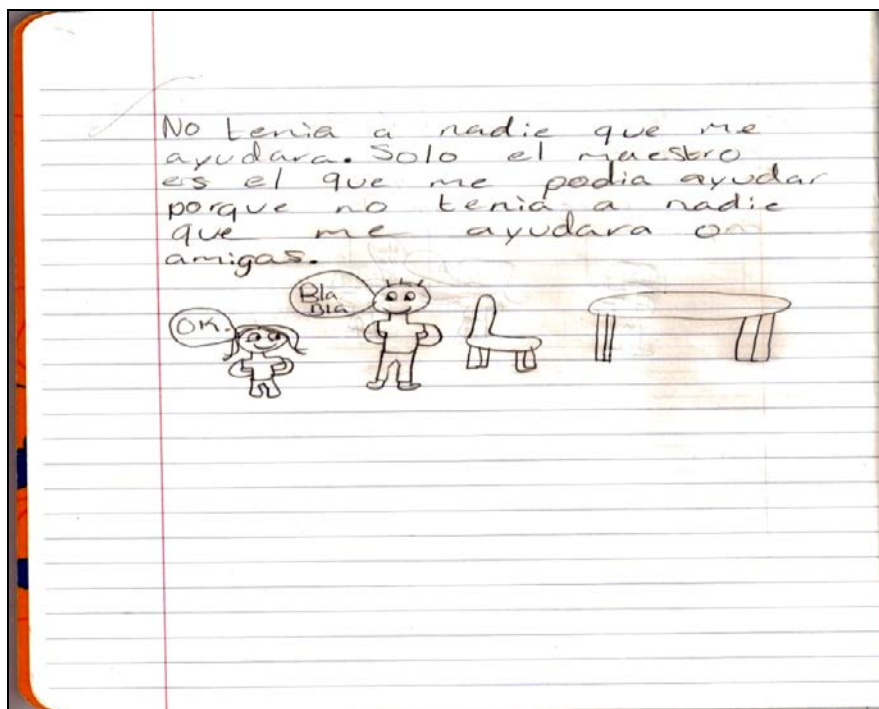


Figure 6.2. Malena explained how nobody wanted to help her and made fun of her.

Figure 6.2., corroborates what Malena expressed on the first day I spoke to her. Malena's drawing conveys that she felt "avergonzada" [ashamed] because she did not understand what the classmates were talking about, and it was even worse because she did not have any friends that would help her. The student drew some students laughing at her. For the second time, Malena expressed her feelings when being bullied in her new school. The drawing shows how students used to make fun of the student because she did not know how to speak English. As shown in the above drawing, the students not only refused to assist Malena, but they also contributed to the isolation of the recent immigrant who explained, "I felt so ashamed because I did not understand anything they said, and I did not have any friends who could explain to me." Malena drew

herself apart (to the left) and drew the students together making fun and laughing at her. In the speech bubbles she drew, Malena wrote “Ha,ha”.

The following drawing (figure 6.3) is another excerpt from Malena’s journal used during the second focus group. The question addressed on this day was about who helped the student understand instruction in English when she was not able to understand academic instruction, and students did not want to help her and made fun of her (figure 6.2). According to Malena, the teacher (4th grade teacher) was the only one assisting her. She restated her answer in the next drawing (figure 6.3.) where Malena expressed that she did not have any friends to assist her. The student drew herself smiling and comfortable when asking the teacher for academic support. Malena drew Mr. Godina explaining something to the student, as I conclude from the speech bubble stating “bla, bla.” Malena drew herself responding that it was okay, meaning that she finally understood what to do because the teacher used her native language to explain.



No tenía a nadie que me ayudara. Solo el maestro es el que me podía a ayudar porque no tenía nadie que me ayudara o amigas.

[I did not have anybody to help me. Only the teacher was the one who would help me because I did not have anybody who could help me or friends.]

Figure 6.3. Malena did not have any friends to help her in the classroom, only Mr. Godina

Figure 6.1 is an example of how students in this case used language as a tool for oppressing the disadvantaged recent immigrant student that needed of their support to understand academic instruction in the student's unknown language. During the focus group, Malena complemented what she had communicated through her drawing and text by verbally stating that her classmates not only refused to assist her, but made fun of her. Students were empowered with their more advanced proficiency of the English language to oppress Malena, and made fun of her as she did not understand academic instruction in her second language, English. Language oppression acts as a hegemonic system where language stratification exists (Bakhtin, 1981). This system places the dominant language on the top of non-dominant languages placed at the bottom; non-dominant languages are considered less, such as in the case of bullying against Malena and Manuel.

6.3.3. Malena's affective schooling experiences: Linguistic bullying, "*We English... You Spanish*"

The following excerpt of data shows how the 5th grade teacher, even though she focused more on English instruction, he used translanguaging such as in Spanish explaining to help students who needed help understanding the lecture in their second language, English. It also shows how bullying based on recent immigrants' perceived linguistic abilities can also occur in these environments where the teacher did not apply separation of languages in a strict manner. However in this case, separation of languages was still at work and English dominated the academic environment. In addition, bullying occurred when the teacher gave other students the responsibility to help the recent immigrant students when working in cooperative groups, and did not monitor group work.

I observed harassment towards Malena particularly on a day where the stress of the upcoming standardized test was among the students and the teacher. Students were practicing for their STAAR reading test. They were sharing their answers with the whole class, and the teacher was correcting and discussing the right answers.

On that day, Mrs. Vidal asked the students in her classroom “how many of you went over the blue books?” (Texas assessment preparation booklet) A day before class, the students were assigned to take their booklet home to answer some review questions as homework (March 27, 2014). The teacher noticed that the majority of the students did not review the blue booklet, and she began to cry. She said she was sad because she wanted for all of her students to pass the test. She did not want any of her students to fail the test, and be assigned to go to summer school, or even repeat the same grade level. The students fell silent, and made questions about the assignment. A student asked “what section was the one we were supposed to review?” (March 27, 2014). Malena looked at Mrs. Vidal, and she seemed sad to see the teacher crying. Malena kept her attention to everything the teacher said, and her eyes swelled with tears, as if she wanted to cry. Manuel was very quiet, and he paid really good attention to the teacher’s advice about passing the test.

The dates for the 2014 math and reading portions of the test was set to be on Tuesday the 22nd and Wednesday the 23rd of April; in less than a month from this particular day of observation. The teacher apologized and started reviewing the reading practice. A student offered the teacher a tissue. The teacher resumed the review, and asked the students questions from the practice test. On this day, Malena was reviewing and answering the practice test that was in Spanish while the teacher was explaining to the students the right answers in English.

Teacher (to students): Take your notes! Don't say; "*Aaa ya se todo!*" [I know everything] because you don't.

Teacher: Figurative Language!

A student: Can we read the example?

Students took turns to read and answer questions.

I was sitting down close to Malena's group, observing and taking notes. Malena answered the review questions taken from the practice book, but her version of the book and test practice were in Spanish while the rest of the students were using the English version. During an earlier participant observation, the teacher explained that Malena was not ready to take the state test in English. Even though the student went from the reading level 2 to 4 with the teacher's support, she was going to take the state tests in Spanish.

On that day, next to Malena's group was a student who would frequently make "smart remarks" with other students. The student noticed that Malena was answering the questions in Spanish, and very quietly called Malena's attention. When Malena turned to see the classmate calling her attention she laughingly remarked "we English... you Spanish." When I saw the student talking as such to Malena, I saw on her face a sort of satisfaction. She smiled while sending her message to Malena, and kept staring at the student. Her face seemed as if she was challenging Malena and kept her head up high. On the other hand, Malena looked uncomfortable with the student's comment. Her eyes seemed very sad, and she did not say anything back to the classmate. I saw Malena sighing and trying her best not to cry. Since I was very close to Malena's group, I was able to see her eyes start to tear up. Then Malena focused her attention on the teacher, but she still looked sad. The bully was aware that I was witnessing the incident. However, this student seemed to not be afraid or ashamed of humiliating Malena. The bully used

language as power (Bakhtin, 1981) to discriminate against Malena who was provided with Spanish material for the test review while everybody else reviewed material in English. This example also shows the power relations of inequalities that can exist (Carspecken, 1996) when using language to oppress minoritized students.

This tension for Malena kept going. The following week I went back to Mrs. Vidal's class to set up a date to interview her. After signing-in at the front office, I went to Malena's classroom. It was around 2:30 pm, close to the end of the school day. When I passed the cafeteria, I turned to the next hallway to get to Mrs. Vidal's class. I was able to see the teacher outside the classroom talking to Malena and an English dominant student; this student was in the same group with the girl who bullied Malena the week previous to this day.

Malena was crying while the teacher was giving advice to the students; mostly to the other student who had been making fun of Malena during recess. It is important to mention that the bully, an English dominant student, was not bothered while Malena looked upset. The student just listened to the teacher. Mrs. Vidal told them there was no reason for making fun of each other; they were almost done with the school year. The teacher pointed out that they just would have to try their best to get along, especially to Malena who was crying.

I kept myself distant from the conversation and waited for the teacher to finish talking to the students. When Mrs. Vidal finished with the conference, I asked Malena if everything was fine. The student still had tears in her eyes and told me, "*Todo esta bien, Mrs. Talamantes.*" She looked very sad. Malena was bullied again by another student. On the same day after school, I met Mrs. Vidal to interview her about her perceptions of recent immigrants in her class. When talking about the struggles these students go through when arriving to the new school, she explained that she understood their struggles because she was also once a recent immigrant. She

explained that's why at the beginning of the school year she warned students to treat recent immigrants with respect, and to not make fun of them because they are in need of their support, especially with their English. Mrs. Vidal explained, "like today when you saw me talking to Malena and her team member... Malena was crying when we just came back from recess. I told this student she had to be nice to Malena, and I explained again that she needed the group's support." (April 7, 2014).

According to Malena's testimonios, even though it was her second year attending this school, this recent immigrant student was still a target of bullying because she struggled with her academics in the second language. I was also able to observe "language oppression" (Bakhtin, 1981) when I saw classmates using language to make Malena feel less important than those who dominate English, because she did not speak English fluently. These incidents made Malena's schooling experience more stressful and difficult. These findings are also consistent with research that shows how previous and prevalent stressful experiences can make it more difficult for recent immigrants to adapt to the new academic environment (Suarez-Orozco, Pimentel, and Martin, 2009; Portes and Rumbaut, 2001; and Zhou and Bankston 1998).

6.3.4. Manuel's feelings: "*Sentía como que no me querían*"

Mr. Mora explained that his son, Manuel, struggled getting used to the new school. Mr. Mora explained that Manuel used to cry for his mother and family who lived in Juárez, and did not want to go to school in El Paso. I found that not only did Manuel cry for his family in Juárez, but he would also cry because he was bullied at school. Once again, the case of Manuel and the lack of communication with his father about the type of bullying he was going through at school is consistent with research that reveals the unawareness of parents and teachers about the problem of bullying (Banks, 1997; Olweus, 1993).

The third grade teachers, Mrs. Segovia (English) and Mrs. Sambrano (Spanish), were also unaware of the problem of aggression against Manuel in the form of bullying in the classroom. When interviewing the teachers, they explained that Manuel always cried when he was in their classes. The teacher explained that it was because he missed his mother. The teachers knew that Manuel's parents were divorced, and Manuel moved with his father when the school year already started (third grade). This statement was also consistent with what Mr. Mora said about Manuel crying because he wanted to be with his mother. However, the reason for Manuel to cry was not only that he missed his family, but also he would feel sad and embarrassed because he felt isolated and bullied when students did not want to help and made fun of him. During one of the focus groups, Manuel explained:

R: *Entonces al principio tus amiguitos cuando les pedías ayuda, ¿no te querían ayudar?*

[Then, at the beginning when you asked your friends for help they did not want to help you?]

Manuel: No.

R: *Y ¿eso te hacía sentir triste?* [And that made you feel sad?]

Manuel: Sentía como que no me querían. [I felt like if they did not like me].

R: *Y ¿qué es lo que hacían cuando no podías decir algo en inglés?* [And what did they say when you were not able to say something in English?]

Manuel: *Cuando yo decía algo mal todos se reían.* [When I said something wrong everybody would laugh at me].

R: *¿Y cómo te sentías?* [And how did you feel?]

Manuel: *Muy mal.* [Really bad].

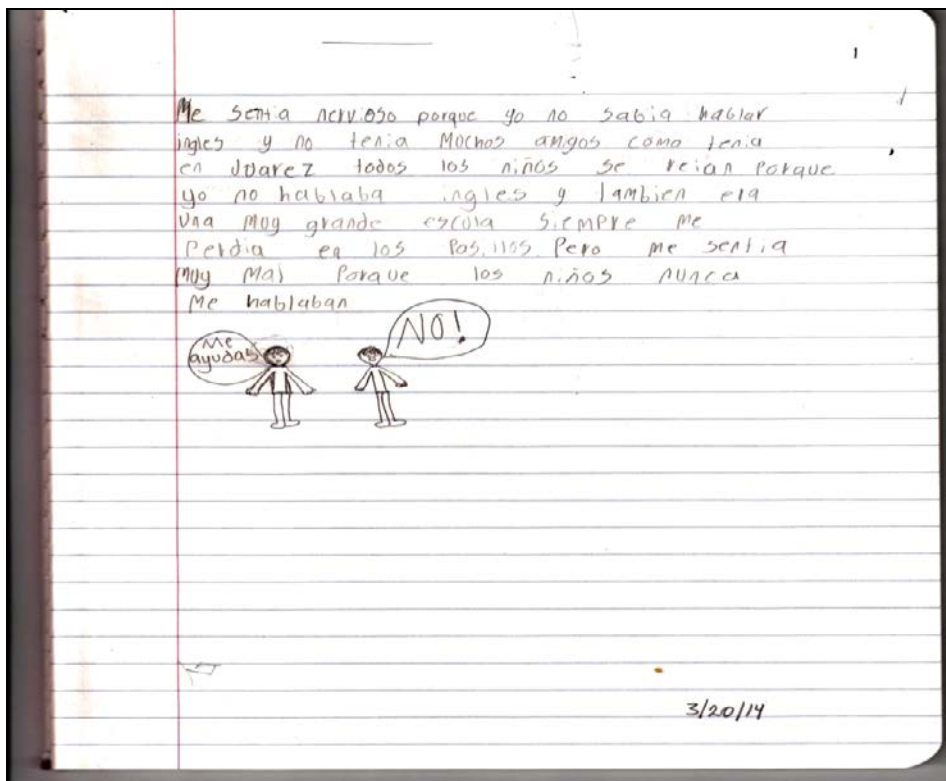
R: *¿Y la maestra que decía?* [And what did the teacher say?]

Manuel: *Que no se rían* [Do not laugh] (May 2, 2014).

During the course of the focus groups, Manuel explained that when he was attending his first year of school in the US, he was sad to the point of crying because nobody wanted to help him.

I asked if he told the teacher about it, but he said, “No.”

“Yo nada más me la pasaba preguntando a otros estudiantes que si me podían ayudar, pero cada vez que les preguntaba me decían, ¡No!! Yo decía, me ayudas? – ¡No! Y a otro, me ayudas? – ¡No! (figure 6.4). Y ellos se reían de mí. Y así me la pasaba.” [I just kept asking other students for assistance, but each time I asked for help they said, No!! I used to ask, can you help me? - No!! And to another student, can you help me? - No!! And they made fun of me asking for help, and that was the way it was] (May 2, 2014).



Me sentía nervioso porque yo no sabía hablar inglés y no tenía muchos amigos como tenía en Juárez todos los niños se reían porque yo no hablaba inglés y también era muy grande la escuela. Siempre me perdía en los pasillos, pero me sentía muy mal porque los niños nunca me hablaban.

[I felt very nervous because I did not know English, and I did not have friends like I used to have in Juárez. All the students used to laugh at me because I did not speak in English, and the school was too big. I always got lost in the hallways, but mainly I felt bad because the kids never talked to me] (3/20/14).

Figure 6.4. Manuel feels isolated and nervous: All students refused to help

Manuel said that Mrs. Segovia would help him at the beginning of the school year for about two or three weeks, but after that she would just tell him “ask somebody to help you.” The drawing presented previously (Figure 6.4) shows students making fun of Manuel. Manuel drew this picture as part of sharing his testimonio of the new schooling experiences in the US. The drawing shows how students made fun of Manuel. In writing, the student explained that the reason for being bullied was because he did not know how to speak or understand the lessons in English. Manuel was also a victim of bullying because students perceived he had not fully developed his second language, English. Manuel, during the focus groups and his drawing, also added that he used to get lost in the halls of the new school (figure 6.4). In addition, during the group discussion, Manuel explained that he also got lost in the school when going to the restroom. This was one more reason for feeling isolated and unassisted. The student did not have the guidance when he needed to go to the restroom. According to what he wrote in his journal, that experience made him feel nervous. However, during the discussion of the focus group, the student explained that what made him feel really bad was that the classmates did not talk to him, which he also expressed through drawing in his journal (figure 6.4). These unfortunate incidences made it more difficult for the students to adapt to the new schooling environment, especially because he was a recent immigrant already carrying the burden of not being with his family.

The following (figure 6.5) is a drawing of Manuel when his third grade teacher, Mrs. Segovia would help him on occasion, but she would later send him with other students to get assistance. During the discussion in the focus group, the student added that he had to go through the same situation the whole school year. Manuel explained that the teacher, Mrs. Segovia, assigned a student as “the translator” in the classroom to help him, but not even the translator

wanted to assist him. By the 4th grade, students did not want to help him either. However, the new teacher, Mr. Godina (Malena's 4th grade teacher), would help him "a little more" than his third grade teacher, Mrs. Segovia. The student continued explaining his drawing. Manuel explained that in 4th grade he also felt sad because students did not want to support him, but when he started attending 5th grade class with Mrs. Vidal, he started making friends with students who would assist him more.

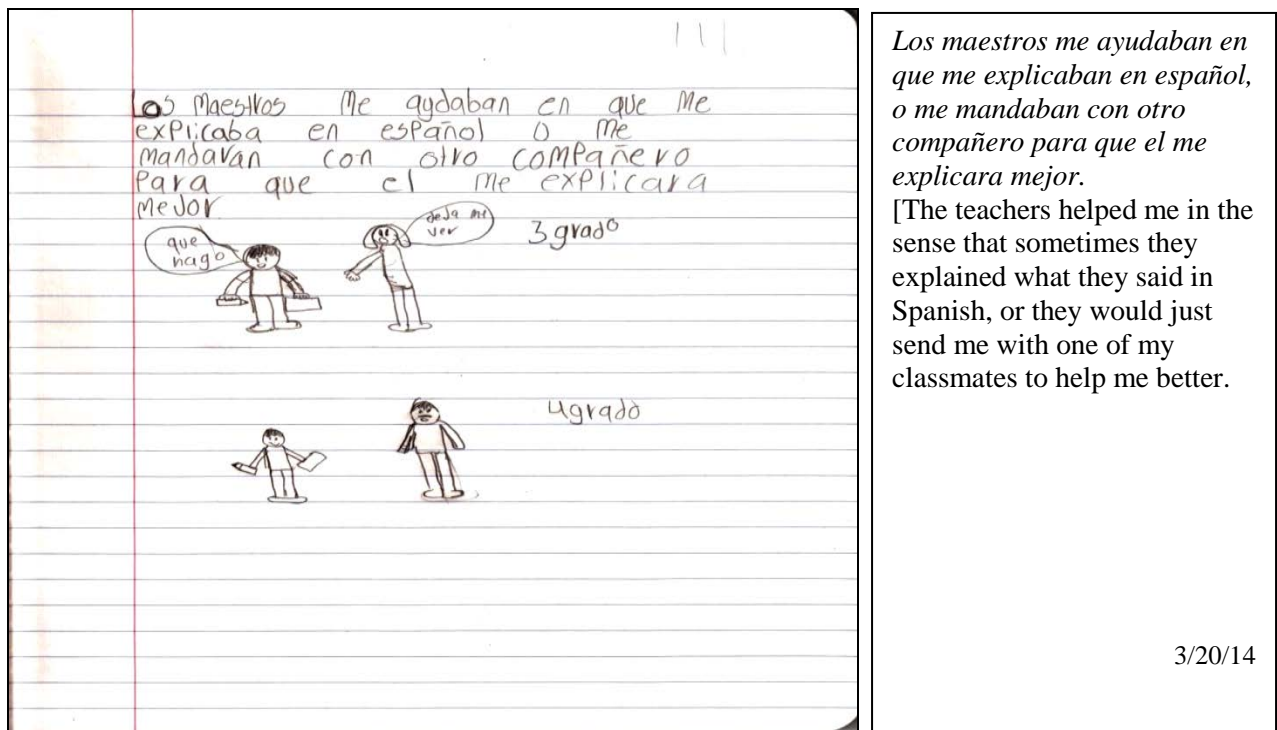


Figure 6.5. Manuel: sending the student to get help from the classmates. Mr. Godina helped more.

Through the analysis of data from participant observation in the classrooms and focus groups with the students, I have found that some recent immigrant students, regardless of the class they were attending where the teachers separated languages in a strict or in a flexible manner, experienced bullying from other students. I found that such oppression was rooted from the stressful environment recent immigrants confronted when they were not able to understand what the lessons were about half of the academic time, and not getting the necessary academic

assistance from their teacher or classmates in Spanish when learning the second language. In this study, this hostile environment facilitated the bullies to take advantage of self-regulated learning when the teacher gave students who dominated both languages the responsibility to assist the recent immigrants in their struggle when learning academic concepts in their second language. In this case with Manuel, the teacher did not monitor if students were helping one another, or if they were getting along with their peers in their groups.

According to recent immigrants' testimonios, when students in their group made fun of their pronunciation, and of their inability to communicate and understand the lessons in English, their classmates also refused to assist them. These were some of the reasons recent immigrant students felt bullied and stressed out in the dual language classroom. From the analyzed data, linguistic bullying was more frequent during the first year recent immigrants attended the new school in the new country. However, it was also found that for some students, as in the cases of Malena and Manuel, these acts of linguistic bullying in education were still present during the second year these students attended a dual-immersion class.

The first grade recent immigrants (Brianna and Julian), presented in chapter 4, did not like the fact that they were sometimes ignored by the teacher. In the case of Malena and Manuel, they were ignored by the students. When the teacher assigned other students the responsibility to help recent immigrants, the dialogue between the classmates and the recent immigrants was also minimized when the peers refused to assist the new students. This rejection, in turn, caused for the recent immigrants to feel isolated. The stories from recent immigrant students' testimonios reveal how students, when working in groups, did not want to help and made fun of them. The strategy of self-regulated learning (Windstead, 2013), or "peer teaching" (Angelova, 2008) is fundamental practice in dual language education. This practice is necessary for students to

academically assist one another when learning a new language. However, it is important to acknowledge the fact that these two recent immigrants were linguistically bullied when separation of languages and cooperative groups were at work in the classroom, in order to critically address the academic needs of these students in dual language classrooms.

Matsuda (1987) and Delgado (1989) point out that counter-stories come from the point of view of people of color. Delgado (1989) argues that we can attain the ability “to see the world through other eyes” (p. 2439). Similarly, testimonios for Ladson-Billings and Tate (2006) are the method for giving voice to the people of color that are being oppressed. Students in this critical ethnography were able to share their testimonios that are the counterstories that challenge dominant discourse, an idea addressed by Solorzano and Delgado, (2001). In this study, the cases of Malena and Manuel are the counterstories that challenge dominant stories of academic success in settings that mandate the strict separation of languages. These are the counterstories shown by recent immigrants when the teachers were not aware of linguistic bullying against these students working in cooperative groups while applying self-regulated learning, and was not able to monitor the group work.

6.4. The Policy of Separation of Languages: Teachers and Parents are generally unaware of the Extent of the Problem

It is important to mention that in some of the cases, linguistic bullying against recent immigrants also occurred in classrooms where the teacher allowed and engaged in translanguaging practices when following a flexible separation of languages as presented in the next excerpts of data. However, the English language was still dominant in the academic spaces where translanguaging took place. Regardless of the rigid or flexible implementation of separation of languages in the participant classrooms, not even the teachers or the parents of recent immigrants knew that these students were experiencing harassment in the classroom.

None of the parents or the teachers mentioned anything about bullying against Malena and Manuel in their classrooms when I interviewed them.

Mrs. Vidal was Malena's and Manuel's 5th- grade teacher at the time of the investigation. Mrs. Vidal explained that she translated to recent immigrant students to help them understand the lectures in English using their native language, Spanish, as shown on the next page. The teacher understood that it was hard for recent immigrants not understanding the lessons in their second language, besides not knowing anybody in their new school. The teacher shared her experience as a recent immigrant in the US coming from Mexico when she was five years old. According to Mrs. Vidal:

I was an immigrant myself so, I understand these kids. They come from hard working families (crying). *Disculpe, soy muy chillona... y este, pues este, vienen a este país para mejorar sus vidas y mis padres también fueron igual, lo mismo. Y pues hay que darles la oportunidad, y no discriminarlos, porque yo he sabido de muchos casos que los discriminan a los niños y pues ellos son unos angelitos. Ellos no tienen la culpa.* [Sorry. I am very sentimental... And, they come to this country to better their lives and my parents did the same thing. We have to give them the opportunity, and not discriminate them, because I know of several cases where recent immigrants are discriminated against. They are little angels. It is not their fault] (April 11, 2014).

Mrs. Vidal explained that she felt empathy for recent immigrants because she was once a recent immigrant. The teacher mentioned that she always tried to help recent immigrant students, and always tried to understand their unique situations. The teacher added that some of those students were very poor and their parents did not have the resources to feed their children well which causes for recent immigrant students to go to school hungry. She also explained that some

of those recent immigrants are without their immediate family, and living with a grandparent or an aunt. From her experience coming from a recent immigrant family when she was a child, Mrs. Vidal highlighted the fact that it was hard for recent immigrants getting used to the new academic environment. Mrs. Vidal pointed out that it was unfair to discriminate these students because they were “unos angelitos” [they are little angels]. That is when the teacher mentioned that it is crucial to understand their special cases and assist to their needs, such as explaining academic instruction in Spanish. The teacher explained that it was hard for her when she was little and she had to learn English. Her parents only spoke Spanish at home, their native language.

The teacher highlighted the fact that some teachers do not modify the language for academic instruction when teaching recent immigrant students, which she believed was a form of discrimination against recent immigrants. That is why, Mrs. Vidal explained, she engaged in translanguaging practices. The teacher implemented a flexible separation of languages. Moreover, the teacher explained that by the 5th-grade level, academic instruction supposed to be given 70% in English and 30%, in Spanish. Mrs. Vidal explained that this modification was made by the district because students had to be ready for academic instruction in English when going to the 6th grade (middle school). The following is Mrs. Vidal’s statement where she explains how she uses recent immigrants’ first language, Spanish, to teach these newcomers:

“I do teach them in Spanish, especially when I have a student who this is the first year in the US school. I have to teach them in their native language. I have to. And then gradually I would integrate English with them, because there is no way I can teach them in English because they are not going to understand. They are going to get lost. So, when I have a student like that, I teach them in their native language even though my classroom

would... like in the 5th grade is more 70% English and 30 or 20% Spanish” (April 11, 2014).

Similar to Mrs. Vidal, Manuel and Malena’s parents did not know the fact that some recent immigrants were being bullied in the classroom. In all of the cases of bullying where the participant students experienced these stressing situations with classmates in the classroom, recent immigrants did not tell either their teachers or their parents about their unfortunate experiences. This was seen in the case of Mr. Hernandez, Malena’s father, who felt responsible for the hard time Malena went through. “It was my fault. I did not prepare Malena for the new challenge. I thought she would be able to cope with the change, like my oldest daughter” (Interview March 4, 2014). Mr. Mora, Manuel’s father, also ignored what Manuel was going through in the classroom when he was being bullied. Mr. Mora explained that the only reason for Manuel to cry and be sad in the new school was that he missed his mother who lived in Juárez. When I asked Mrs. Vidal if she observed any bullying against recent immigrants in her classroom, without hesitating she responded, “never. That doesn’t happen in my classroom.” Malena’s father, Mr. Hernandez, also ignored the fact that Malena was being bullied in school.

Mrs. Segovia, who was Manuel’s 3rd grade English teacher, lectured students following the strict separation of language policy. The academic instruction in English was for a week, and then students switched to the classroom next door with another teacher to receive instruction in Spanish also for a week. Mrs. Segovia explained that when a recent immigrant raised his hand to ask a question, she would continue explaining in English. However, she would take pauses to ask a student to be “a translator” and explain in Spanish. However, during the first focus group session, Manuel explained that not even the translator wanted to help him when working in groups. He explained that was why he cried when going to the English class with Mrs. Segovia.

Nobody wanted to assist him and sometimes his classmates made fun of him. However, Mrs. Segovia explained that Manuel cried when he just begin attending classes with her because it was his first year attending classes in the new school and he missed his family that lived in Juárez. The teacher never noticed that Manuel cried because his classmates bullied him.

6.5. The Importance of Integrating Languages: “*Que mi maesta maayden ingles espicandose en lesepanol*”

In this study, recent immigrant students were able to express their perceptions of the new academic environment where their first language was either restricted or included. Some of the participants in later grades, such as in the case of 3rd to 5th grade, revealed how the exclusion of their first language and the academic dependence on other students created an unfriendly environment where linguistic bullying against the recent immigrants took over. This situation created an intimidating environment for some students, as in the cases of Malena and Manuel. During the course of the focus groups, students were also able to show their own points of view regarding the possible ways to better help recent immigrants who confront isolation of their language when learning the second language.

In this section I present the testimonios of recent immigrants which critically show their voice suggesting changes to the strict separation of language policy. Theirs proposals aimed at improving the schooling experiences of recent immigrants in a new country. In a critical manner, the participants also questioned the treatment and attention to this population of students in their new classrooms.

During the course of the focus groups, when I heard the recent immigrant students explaining how they struggled in their new schooling experience, I asked students to give advice to those teachers with recent immigrant students in their classrooms. This was an additional question to the formulated questions for the students during the focus groups. Such question was:

From your experiences in your new school, what advice would you give to those teachers who have recent immigrants to better assist them, and make them feel welcome when learning a second language?

All participants who provided their testimonios agreed that teachers have to help the recent immigrants feel more welcome in their new school. According to all participants' point of view, (Brianna, Julian, Manuel, Malena and Patricia), having a more welcoming academic environment for recent immigrants can be possible by helping students in their native language, despite the fact that English is the language of instruction. According to Julian, the first grade student, what the teacher can do to help recent immigrants understand the lectures in the new language was, "Que mi maestra maayden ingles espicandoc en lesepanol" [That my teacher can help me in English explaining herself in Spanish]. Brianna agreed with Julian, and also explained that it would help if the teacher would "explain in English what the lecture in Spanish is about" (March 19, 2014)."

Helping recent immigrant students is possible when the teacher is able to "break the rules," according to Mrs. Urías, (March 24, 2013) and help them understand the second language by including the first language (a translanguaging practice). The last statement was what Mrs. Urías, Manuel's 4th grade Spanish teacher, responded when I asked her a question regarding what teachers should do to help recent immigrants in their new schooling experience. The teacher's response is consistent with the responses of the recent immigrants who gave their advice to teachers of recent immigrants, regarding how to better support the new students. All student participants involved in the discussion agreed that the teacher with recent immigrants should use these students' first language to help them understand what the lectures in English are about. Figure 6.6 shows how Malena supported this idea, as well. During the focus group when

the participants discussed how to help recent immigrants with their experiences when they recently start attending the new school, Malena said that “*se siente bien gacho cuando no entiendes nada*” [It feels terrible when you do not understand anything] (May 5, 2014).

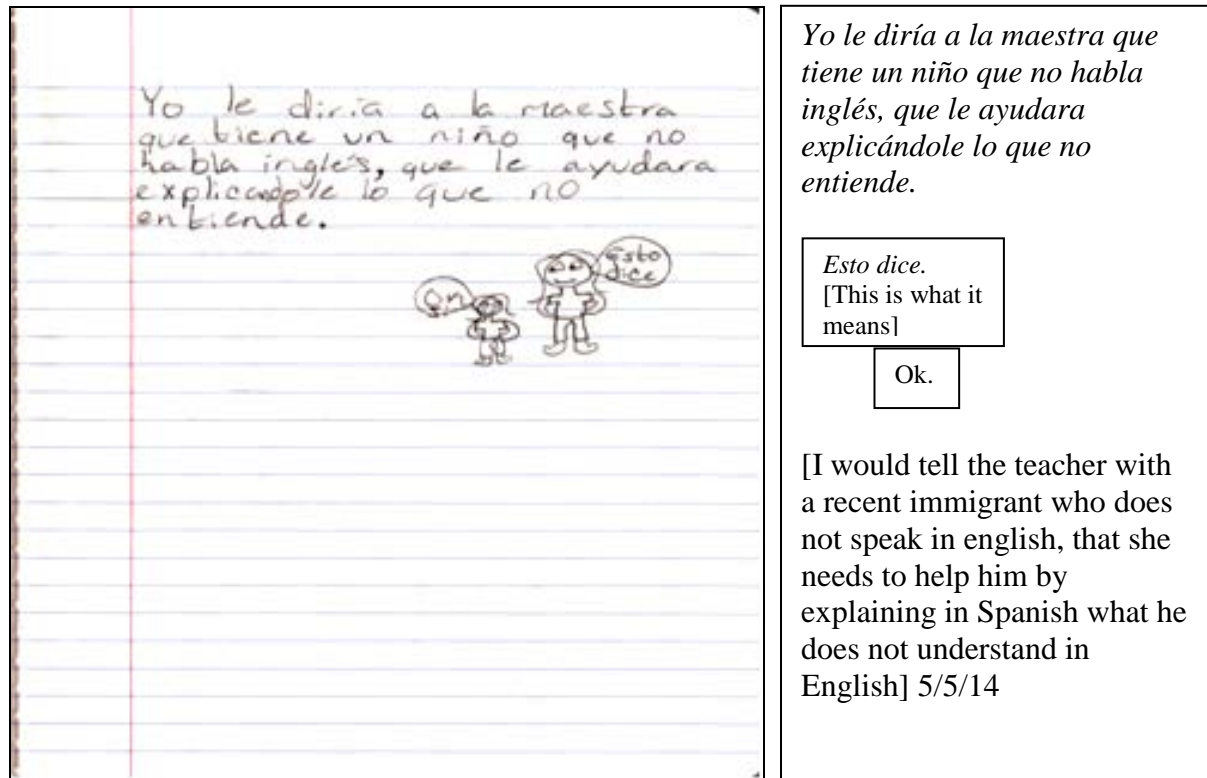


Figure 6.6. Malena's advice to the teacher with recent immigrants.

Manuel agreed with Malena, and both added that they would help the recent immigrant by translating for them and explaining what they had to do: “*No quisiera que pasaran por lo que nosotros pasamos* [I don't want recent immigrants to go through what I went through]” (May 5, 2014), Manuel explained during the second focus group discussion. Based on his experiences when attending the first year in the new school, Manuel added that he would help the recent immigrants by explaining what to do, translating, and helping them find the restroom, as he expressed in figure 6.7 shown next. Malena agreed with Manuel's statement by shaking her head in approval.

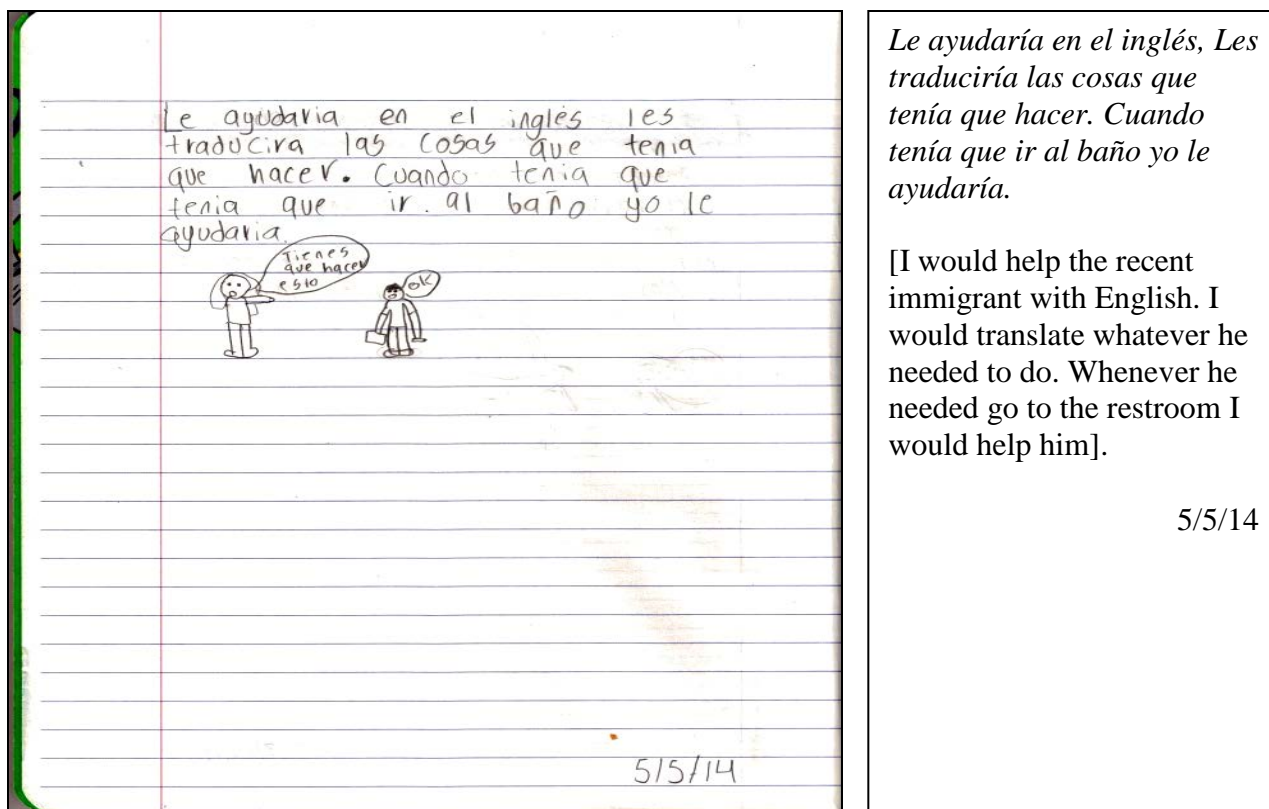


Figure 6.7. Manuel: how he would help a recent immigrant in the school.

Manuel explained that he would help the recent immigrant in his classroom by translating from English to Spanish (figure 6.7). He would explain to the new student what he/she had to do. The student explained that the first time he had to go to the restroom in the new classroom, when he recently started going to the new school, he got lost and did not know how to get back to class, “*Me perdía en los pasillos,*” [I got lost in the hallways] (May, 5, 2014). Drawing on his own experiences, Manuel added that he would help the new student by explaining to him in Spanish what he did not understand in English. The student suggested a better and more comprehensive academic environment where recent immigrants can feel included, not isolated and bullied.

These students shared their testimonios about their schooling experiences through the focus group sessions where the recent immigrants demonstrated that they gained an ideological

consciousness of the imbalance of power that exists among students and within the educational system (Bakhtin, 1981; Carspecken, 1996). That was why they were able to come up with a solution for teachers to help the new recent immigrants to feel welcome and to avoid isolation, sadness, and linguistic bullying among recent immigrants. Students externalized their voice through their “social and political” histories in the classroom and have the potential to foster a “change in society” (Delgado-Bernal, Burciaga, & Flores, 2012, p. 364) among recent immigrants. Ladson-Billings and Tate (2006) affirm that the voices of people of color are crucial for thoroughly analyzing the educational system (p. 58). This was obvious when the participating recent immigrants advised teachers with recent immigrants on how to better assist recent immigrants.

6.6. The Nuance: “*El primer día le dijo a mis compañeros que jueguen conmigo porque yo era nuevo.*”

Alberto, Malena’s little brother, who was also a participant and a third grade student who recently moved to this country, did not experience bullying in the classroom. He said it was because his English teacher explained to the classmates that he was a new student and that he would need help from everybody. Alberto also mentioned that Mrs. Sambrano, his Spanish teacher, also talked to Alberto’s classmates about being nice to him.

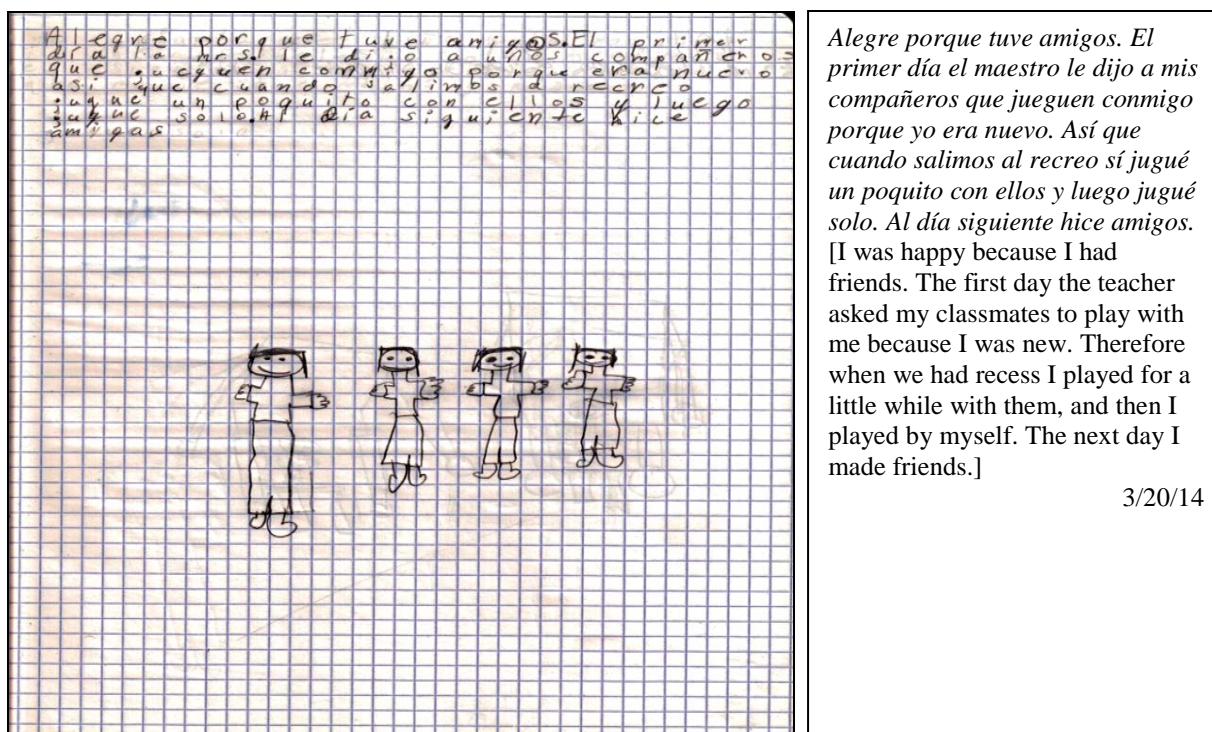


Figure 6.8. Alberto having friends on the first day on the new school.

Mrs. Sambrano and the English teacher worked together to make Alberto feel welcome. I was not able to interview the 3rd grade English teacher because she retired at the end of the first semester, when I started doing my investigation in the school. However, Mrs. Sambrano explained that it was very important to make recent immigrants feel welcome in their new classroom. The teacher explained that in her case, since she was in charge of the Spanish academic instruction, she would keep good communication with the English teacher so that they were able to talk about those students who may need more support, such as in the case of recent immigrants.

Mrs. Sambrano explained that even though there was communication with the partner teacher and both agreed with the idea of helping recent immigrants feeling welcome, all recent immigrants would show a sad face when going to the English class for a week, and several times they would even cry when switching classes. She particularly mentioned that Alberto seemed confused when going to the English class, but somehow the teacher helped him cope with the

new experience. Students assigned to help Alberto did help him. On the contrary, the teacher explained that Manuel, when attending his first year (third grade) in the same school in her classroom, was always crying when going to his week of the English instruction classroom

As shown in the previous drawing (Figure 6.8) from his testimonio, Alberto explains that the two teachers (English and Spanish) helped him by asking the classmates to help and be nice to the student that was new. The student drew himself with his new friends who were smiling. He was not isolated like Malena and Manuel were, despite the fact that Alberto was Malena's brother, and she did experience being bullied in the new school. Nonetheless, during the interview with Mrs. Sambrano, the teacher explained that Alberto's behavior of not crying when going to the English class was because the student lived with his mother and was happy. Mrs. Sambrano explained that she received an e-mail from Alberto's mother explaining that the student lived with her, and goes back and forth from Ciudad Juárez to El Paso for school. The father was in charge of dropping off the student at school, and took him back to his mother. Mrs. Sambrano explained:

Ese niño está lleno de cuidados, y de amor. El padre lo trae a la escuela, pero yo supe hoy por la mama que Alberto no vive aquí. Vive en Juárez con la mamá. Entonces ese es un factor muy importante. Que el niño se sienta protegido, para que se adapte a la nueva escuela. Hay niños que viven aquí con los abuelitos, o con la mamá, o el papá, y la familia está dividida, unos aquí, otros en Juárez como en el caso de Manuel (Mrs. Sambrano was Manuel's third grade teacher). Yo se que Manuel vive con el papa' los días de la semana, y se va con su mamá los fines de semana a Ciudad Juárez, y ese niño... como sufría. Era un llorar todo el tiempo cuando tenía que ir a su clase de inglés por una semana

[This child (Alberto) is full of care and love. The father brings him to school, but today the mother told me by e-mail that Alberto doesn't live here. He lives in Juárez with his mother. Therefore, I believe that it is a very important factor, that the child can feel protected so that he can adapt to the new school. We have recent immigrants that live here with their grandparents, or with the mother, or the father, and the family is divided. Some of the family members live here, and the rest in Juárez, like in the case of Manuel (Mrs. Sambrano was Manuel's third grade teacher). I knew that Manuel lived with his father on school days, and goes with his mother during the weekends. That child suffered a lot. He always cried when he had to go to the English class for a week] (April 5, 2015).

Mr. Mora, Manuel's father, corroborated that Manuel was living with him since he started going to the third grade in the new school. Mr. Mora was divorced and remarried in El Paso. He wanted his son to have the opportunity to learn English, like his younger brothers who were born near El Paso. On the other hand, Malena (Alberto's sister) explained that since she moved to the United States she lived with her aunt. Malena was not with her mother or father. Her family was also divided. Malena also had hard time adapting to the new school. However, Alberto was not separated from his family. He was a transfronterizo student who attended school in the US but still lived in Juárez. His father, Mr. Hernandez, would take Alberto to school near El Paso, and bringing him back home to his mother after school hours. The fact that this student had the care and protection of his family may help in his adaptation to the new academic environment, as Mrs. Sambrano explained.

6.7. Discussion

Previous findings are consistent with research that shows that recent immigrants bring with them their previous stressing experiences when moving to a new country. Suarez-Orozco,

Pimentel, and Martin (2009) talk about their stressors such as, not living in their country, and refer to the new stressors as the new challenges that are closely related to their experiences when migrating into the new country. These new stressors include experiencing racism, discrimination and the challenge of acquiring the second language. According to Suarez-Orozco et al. (2009), “these stressors complicate immigrant students’ adjustments to the new school and community settings” (p. 713). The authors agree with Portes and Rumbaut (2001) and Zhou and Bankston (1998) about the notion of immigrant students’ successful adaptations that, “appear to be linked to the quality of relationships they forge in their school settings” (p. 717).

In the case of Manuel and Malena, the family was separated. Besides missing their families, their classmates did not want to help them and made fun of their perceived undeveloped proficiency in the second language. On the other hand, Alberto lived with his mother in Juárez, according to Mrs. Sambrano, and his father took him to school at the new school. Mrs. Sambrano believed it was a very important factor for helping Alberto better adapt to the new school. He was very protected by both parents. Additionally, as shown in his drawing, Alberto reported that with the help of his teachers he was able to make friends from the beginning. A friendly academic environment and the positive attitude he brought to school from home helped Alberto not feel isolated and bullied.

Chapter 7: Conclusions, Recommendations, and Limitations

7.1. Conclusions

My interest in the affective aspect of US recent immigrants' academic experiences in the new school began when I observed recent immigrants attending dual immersion classes where the teacher strictly separated first from second language half of the academic time; a rule under a dual immersion model (Lee et al., 2008, Collier & Thomas, 2004; Cummins, 2005; Adelman Reyes, 2007). I noticed that these schooling experiences caused a sense of distress among the emergent bilingual students. Frequent expressions presented throughout the observations and interviews such as; "*ellos lloran en la clase de inglés*," "*los inmigrantes recientes siempre lloran*" ["They cry in the English class," "The recent immigrants always cry"], drew me to ask the participants about the cause of such distress. I became more intrigued in this subject when students independently answered, "*es que nadie me quiere ayudar*" [It is because nobody want to help me]. My interest grew even more when I introduced myself to the participants, and briefly explained that my research was regarding the academic experiences and feelings of recent immigrants when learning the second language. Without asking, a recent immigrant girl answered that she felt "worthless" because she did not understand English, and nobody wanted to help her which caused her to cry.

I saw that there was a need for understanding the emotional experience of recent immigrants when attending classes where their first language is not used as a scaffold to teach academics in the second language. It is crucial to know how these students feel so that we can be able to accommodate the curriculum to address their academic needs, especially because of how in the last years we have had an increasing number of recent immigrants in the United States (Miller, 2009; Greg Allen, 2010; De la Piedra & Araujo, 2012).

As a result of an extremely unsecure environment in Mexico, new waves of immigration came to the United States from Ciudad Juárez, Mexico to El Paso, Texas along the US border (Miller, 2009). Moving to a new country is usually a very stressful event for children (Valdez, 1998; 2010). Children who come to El Paso from Ciudad Juárez face new challenges such as learning a new language, becoming biliterate, and coping with their misfortune of having experienced life in an unsecure environment (de la Piedra & Araujo, 2012; Araujo & de la Piedra, 2013). As a result of this growing population in El Paso, Texas, we have developed an increased need for addressing new pedagogical approaches for bilingual teachers to adapt curriculum and instruction for recent immigrants (Cornfield & Arzubiaga, 2004).

There has been research regarding the feelings of minoritized students such as African-Americans, Asian-Americans, and Latino students when discriminated against in and out of high school context (Rosenbloom & Way, 2004). There is also work on the feelings of shame experienced by students who enter the US from other countries to attend ESL nursing classes. This research reveals that these students were not able to ask for assistance when not understanding key concepts and would feel ashamed for not knowing English (Colosimo & Xu, 2006). Research also reveals how the perceived “poor” literacy and speech skills caused feelings of shame among economically disadvantaged students attending literacy classes in Brazil. These students did not want to speak because they were criticized and frequently corrected (Barlett, 2007).

In addition, research vaguely addresses emergent bilinguals’ perceptions and feelings towards teachers’ low expectation when attending ESL classes (Mendoza-Denton, 2008, and Callahan, Wilkinson, & Mauller, 2008; Yonezawa & Jones, 2003). There is also work that involves recent immigrants, their schooling experiences, and their academic struggles in the

classrooms where teachers separate languages (Orellana, 2001; Valdés, 2010; Valdés, 1998; Mendoza-Denton, 2008; García and Barlett, 2007; García and Sylvan 2011; García Flores, & Chu, Orellana & Reynolds, 2008). However, students' voices regarding their feelings when teachers do not use students' first language for academic instruction are also vaguely addressed.

Most research presents ample evidence that dual language instruction is the most effective model to teach linguistic minoritized students (Rhodes, 1995; Christian & Whitcher, 1995; Collier & Thomas, 2004). However, I did not find studies that particularly reveal recent immigrant students' feelings when attending dual language classes in relation to the implementation of separation of language policy. In addition, there is a need for research that shows students' voices concerning their new schooling experiences. This investigation addressed this need in research by showcasing the unheard voices of recent immigrants attending dual immersion classes; an idea borrowed from Delgado-Bernal (1995), and Ladson-Billings (1995 & 2006). The voices were gathered through testimonios (Pérez-Huber, 2010; Solórzano & Delgado Bernal, 2001), as proposed by LatCrit.

Working with recent immigrants allowed me to witness their struggles when attempting to adapt to the new culture and language, and their frustration that led them to the point of crying. These experiences inspired me to document and analyze language usage in dual language classrooms, which takes an important role regarding how recent immigrants feel at school. Therefore, the primary focus of this dissertation was to understand how recent immigrant students feel towards language acquisition in partially monolingual environments where the teacher separates their first language from the new, as well as the experiences of recent immigrants when attending those academic environments where the teacher integrates languages (translanguaging) in the same dual immersion program.

My testimonios helped me understand the experiences recent immigrants possibly go through when entering a new country. Such experiences are not only in school context, but also in their home environments where there is a chance the student's parents may see their children coming back from their new school with frustration when having struggled adapting to the new academic environment. By listening to recent immigrants' testimonios, I was able to appreciate how the challenge of receiving academic instruction in the new language, can become a new stressor for some recent immigrants.

This dissertation revealed how language can be used as a tool for oppressing people (Bakhtin, 1981; Giltrow, 2003; Heller, 1995). Research shows that there is a relation between hegemony and the practices that take place in the classrooms, according to Apple (2004). Such hegemonic practices have the aim to maintain the status quo where one language dominates over the ones placed at the bottom of a stratified system (Bakhtin, 1981, Skinner & Holland, 2001). This dominance affects minorities when centralization of language devalues the non-dominant languages. In this dissertation, I argued that we have to elicit the voices of those who are being oppressed through the imposition of the dominant language while minimizing the use of their first language. Hegemony through language control as a way to maintain the status quo (Bakhtin, 1891; Apple, 2004) becomes part of the problem that shapes this dissertation. This concern aroused when I observed that students who were more proficient in both languages used language as "power" (Bakhtin, 1981) to oppress recent immigrants based on the perception of low academic and oral English proficiency of the new students. Bourdieu (1977) explains that dominant society groups establish a system to maintain relations of dominance in society. Hegemony is reflected in the education system and can serve as "a mechanism of cultural and economic preservation and distribution" (Apple, 2004, p 3).

According to Apple (2004), “control is exercised as well through the forms of meanings the school distributes. That is: ‘the formal corpus of school knowledge’ can become a form of social and economic control” (p. 61). Apple argues that teachers can become instruments to keep or interrupt such dominance. This takes place when following solely the official curriculum as the main tool for designing pedagogical practices, and not considering what is best for students. This is such as in the case of Brianna and Julian where the teacher, Mrs. Luna, was convinced that she had to follow the policy of separation of languages knowing that recent immigrants were having a hard time not understanding academic instruction in the second language. Such practices are ways of oppression, according to Freire (2004) who points out that when teachers are not conscious of such oppression, they are falling into the category of oppressors. Moreover, in this dissertation, students also acted as oppressors when using language as a power to oppress minority students, in this particular case, the recent immigrants in the US.

In this study, in contrast to language stratification where language dominance exists (Bakhtin, 1981), the integration of the diverse utterances for academic expression, as in the case of “heteroglossia” (Bakhtin, 1981), where all languages interact with one another (translanguaging), helped some recent immigrants feel welcome in the new classroom (Patricia in chapter 5). However, in some cases, such as in the cases of Malena and Manuel, even though these practices of translanguaging were used by the teachers, and recommended by research to overcome monolingualism (García & Sylvan, 2011; Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Canagarajah, 2005, 2012), students still suffered bullying because of the perceived lack of English language skills. These acts of harassment took place when students, proficient in both languages, refused to help the recent immigrant students and made fun of their pronunciation, despite the fact that some teachers practiced translanguaging.

7.2. The Research Questions

In this section, I present my findings starting by readdressing the research questions that initiated my investigation. In revisiting the research questions that this study sought to explore we are able to appreciate the diverse interactions in the new classroom among students and the teacher, and appreciate recent immigrants' academic experiences through their testimonios. Furthermore, addressing the research questions also helps to appreciate the affective aspects of recent immigrants regarding their schooling experiences in the new academic context.

7.2.1. How is the separation of language policy implemented in the dual language classrooms? What are the feelings that children express when experiencing the strict separation of languages?

Separation of language policy was applied in a flexible manner, such as in the case of Mr. Godina who used any necessary resource to assist recent immigrants, including their native language and diverse translanguaging practices (findings in chapter 4). The policy of separation of languages was also applied in a strict manner, such as in the case of Mrs. Luna, the first grade teacher, who resisted supporting recent immigrants in their native language when these students were not able to understand academic instruction in the new language. In chapter 5, the cases of Brianna and Julian revealed that the strict separation of languages created a stressful environment when the recent immigrants were not able to understand the lessons when taught in the students' second language. In the course of the focus groups, feelings of embarrassment were found from the analysis of data gathered through participant observation, field notes, and the students' multimodal testimonios. Brianna explained that she felt sad or mad when the teacher, Mrs. Luna, was not able to explain what Brianna was not able to understand in the second language (Spanish). Julian expressed through his testimonio that he felt

“sorry” for himself when not able to understand the teacher. Students felt “sad” or “mad” when the teacher did not assist their academic needs in their native language, as they orally explained, drew, and wrote in their journal.

From observations, I was able to corroborate what students revealed in their testimonio. I observed frustration when both students were not able to write or read in the second language. Even though students helped translate on occasion, recent immigrants mostly limited themselves to copying from other students’ writing, and were not able to read what they copied. Not understanding the lessons in their second language, as well as not being able to read what they copied from their peers, acted as stressors among these students who reported that at the end of the second year attending the new school, they were not able to learn the second language.

The aforementioned findings are consistent with research that reveals that the stressors recent immigrants confront can make their new experience in the new country unpleasant, and can interfere in their adaptation to the new academic environment (Suarez-Orozco; Pimentel, & Martin, 2009; Portes & Rumbaut, 2001; Zhou & Bankston 1998). These findings revealed the feelings of recent immigrants experienced when not receiving academic assistance from their teacher which are consistent with research that have recorded the emotions of minoritized students when they were not able to understand or perform in a second language. Research addresses language as a tool for oppression in education such as discrimination (Rosenbloom, 2004), as a generator of shame when minoritized students are not able to understand academic concepts in the second language (Colosimo, 2006; Barlett, 2007), and when speech and literacy are used to maintain social inequalities (Barlett, 2007). These findings are also consistent with researchers who argue that, emotional experiences can affect the capacity to retain information (Levine & Pizarro 2004; Levine & Edelstein, 2009) such as in the case of Brianna and Julian

who were not able to read what they copied from their classmates in their frustration to finish the assignments, as I observed and corroborated when analyzing recorded data from students' testimonios.

7.2. 2. How are the translanguaging practices implemented in dual immersion classes where the separation of languages “must” be strictly practiced? What are the feelings that children express when the teacher uses translanguaging strategies to teach recent immigrants?

Chapter 4 presented findings of a 4th grade recent immigrant student, Patricia, attending a dual immersion class where the teacher, Mr. Godina, applied the separation of languages in a flexible manner where translanguaging took place. This case helped answer the question of how the translanguaging practices are implemented in dual immersion classes where the separation of languages “must” be strictly practiced (Lee et al, 2008, Collier & Thomas, 2004; Cummins, 2005; Adelman Reyes, 2007). Adelman Reyes (2007) presents separation of languages in dual language classrooms and explains that this approach is necessary to help students achieve language proficiency in the two languages. However, Cummins (2005) criticizes the rigidity of language separation, and argues that even though the extensive usage of the target language is very important when applying a dual language immersion program, “it should not be implemented in a rigid or exclusionary manner” (p 18). Cummins refers to the strategies that are implemented in an immersion class where the teacher firmly maintains academic instruction by using only the target language. In the case of Patricia, Mr. Godina implemented this pedagogical practice in a flexible manner and used Spanish as a tool to scaffold recent immigrants' learning.

From participant observation in this classroom, I found that Mr. Godina used translanguaging practices to assist recent immigrants such as: giving individual instruction in Spanish in the English class, mixing languages for read-alouds, and mixing languages to explain

academic concepts to the whole group. I observed that these strategies helped the recent immigrant feel welcome and trust the teacher when they needed assistance in their native language, Spanish. I also found that students used translanguaging practices when working in cooperative groups to help each other. These translanguaging practices were: discussion about the text in the two languages, writing and copying words in English, drawing and taking notes about a book in both languages, and translating. I saw that these practices also helped Patricia feel supported when receiving the assistance from her classmates in her group.

This study also helped answer the question of the feelings recent immigrants experienced when attending classes where the teacher used translanguaging strategies to teach recent immigrants, such as using their first language as a tool to academically teach recent immigrants. Addressing this question was very important because, as I reviewed the literature relevant to this investigation, I noticed that the affective portion of the research was not addressed thoroughly. The affective experiences were perceived through the sense of discouragement of the participating recent immigrants observed as they would experience isolation from mainstream students.

The case of Patricia revealed that the flexible separation of languages and the use of translanguaging practices fostered an inviting environment for the student who trusted the teacher, Mr. Godina, when helping her understand academic concepts in the first language: Spanish during English instruction. García and Sylvan (2011) suggest translanguaging practices as the pedagogic approaches to welcome and help newcomers maintain their first language while acquiring the second. My findings are consistent with previous research regarding translanguaging as a safe pedagogy to teach recent immigrants (García & Sylvan, 2011; Creese & Blackledge, 2010), especially those

attending dual immersion classes where they receive academic instruction in their second language half of the academic time.

Moreover, I also found that in the case of Patricia, the teacher was able to recognize that she was not getting help from the students initially assigned to work with her. The teacher promptly changed Patricia to a new group. This practice of monitoring students allowed the teacher to make sure the recent immigrant student was getting help from their team members when working in cooperative groups. This practice may have helped prevent linguistic bullying against Patricia. During the focus groups with Malena and Manuel, Patricia was surprised when she learned that the other students were bullied in other classrooms because of their perceived limited English skills.

Mr. Godina explained that even though he was not allowed to help recent immigrants in their first language, as a policy of the dual language program, he still did so in order to help these students understand academic instruction delivered in English. He openly explained his disagreement with the strict separation of languages policy when teaching recent immigrants. The teacher still separated languages, but not in a rigid manner. Mr. Godina was able to adapt the curriculum and the language policy of a dual immersion approach to reach recent immigrants' academic needs.

García and Sylvan (2011) and García, Flores and Chu (2011) highlight the importance of modifying bilingual models in this multilingual and pluralistic country in the 21st century. The authors advocate in favor of pluralism and multilingual approaches to bilingual education. García and Sylvan suggest translanguaging practices as the pedagogical approach to welcome and help newcomers maintain their first language while they acquire the second. My findings are consistent with previous research regarding translanguaging as a safe pedagogy to teach recent

immigrants, especially those attending dual immersion classes who receive academic instruction in their second language half of the academic time. It is very important that teachers of this population of students are able to modify the practice of the separation of languages in a flexible manner in order to make recent immigrant students' new academic experiences less stressful, and more productive when learning the second language where all languages are unique, and are an important component of social language (Bakhtin, 1981).

7.2.3. What are the feelings that children express when experiencing a strict or rigid separation of languages in the dual immersion classroom?

Chapter 6 reveals the emotional experiences of the two recent immigrant students, Malena and Manuel, who suffered linguistic bullying when using language as a power to oppress minority language students where a dominant language was placed at the top and non-dominant languages at the bottom of a stratified system (Bakhtin, 1981). Bakhtin states that language power is stratified where English is at the top, and the other languages are at the bottom and are considered less. I found that bullies took advantage of the self-regulated learning in groups to harass the recent immigrants and refuse to assist recent immigrant students, as assigned by the teacher.

The recent immigrants, Malena and Manuel, explained that when the teachers were not able to help them in Spanish (especially when they were attending their first year in the new school), and assigned other students to do so, nobody wanted to help and made fun of them because they were unable to understand what the lectures were about, or because they mispronounced the words when trying to speak in English. In both cases, the teachers didn't know that bullying in education was happening between the recent immigrants and the students assigned to assist them. This finding is consistent with research that reveals that bullying is not easy to detect (Craig, Atlas, & Pepler, 2000).

In sum, this dissertation explored the affective states of recent immigrants' new schooling experiences when attending dual immersion classes where the teachers applied separation of language policy in a rigid or strict manner. This research has shown recent immigrants' voice through their testimonios. Furthermore, this research has also shown recent immigrants' interactions in the classroom with teachers and students. From participant observation as well as from students' testimonios, and interviews from teachers and parents, I found that the experiences these students confronted were different, according to the language policy adopted as a pedagogical tool to teach recent immigrant students.

Furthermore, recent immigrant students in later grades, such as Manuel and Malena, experienced bullying from classmates in their group when other students were assigned to assist the new students in their native language. These unfortunate incidences took place when students were working in cooperative groups and applying self-learning strategies to help each other. However, the recent immigrant students felt left out when the new students did not want to assist them in their first language. Teachers and parents were not aware of these incidences of bullying with the recent immigrants. The students who were bullies used language as an oppressive tool to make fun of students that were not able to understand the lectures in English. On the contrary, the recent immigrant Patricia attending classes with Mr. Godina, who used translanguaging practices to teach and aid the students, reported that the teacher always helped her by explaining instructions and academic concepts in Spanish. When Patricia was not receiving support from her first group, Mr. Godina changed the recent immigrant to a new group where she was able to get along with the new group members and to receive assistance from them.

7.3. Implications and Recommendation for Future Research

This research contributes to a growing body of literature on the impact of language policies, and the affective experiences of recent immigrants placed in dual immersion classes where strict separation of languages is a policy. This research may help administrators, teachers and policymakers to grow aware of the emotional impact that separation of languages. This is such as in the cases of Brianna and Julian who experienced stress and frustration when not able to receive academic instruction from the teacher who applied a rigid separation of languages. The findings also inform the impact of “self-regulated learning” (Windstead, 2013), or “peer teaching” (Angelova, 2008) when some students take advantage of the unsupervised cooperative work context to bully recent immigrant students who are in need of their assistance. Therefore, in this academic environment, language stratification (Bakhtin, 1981) was found when language was used as a tool for oppressing recent immigrant students. Nonetheless, the results obtained from this study also adds to the literature in regards to the self-regulated learning strategy that reveal how this pedagogy can help construct meaningful learning environments when working in small groups (Kagan, 1995; Slavin, 1991). I saw this positive outcome happening in the case of Patricia where students in her group helped the student under Mr. Godina’s supervision, and when the teacher applied translanguaging strategies to teach students and assist the recent immigrant.

Importantly, this study has revealed that the stressors recent immigrants confront are added stressors to their previous experiences that can make their new academic experience in the new country unpleasant, and can interfere in their adaptation to the new academic environment (Suarez-Orozco, Pimentel, & Martin, 2009; Portes and Rumbaut, 2001; Zhou & Bankston 1998). As shown in Brianna’s and Julian’s cases, the rigid separation of languages can increase the

levels of stress on recent immigrants which in turn may intervene in the process of learning the second language. In the analyzed context, students were not able to read simple sentences they copied from their group members. These findings are also consistent with researchers who argue that, “people experiencing positive and negative emotions have different motivations. They process information differently as a result, and these differences affect memory” (Levine & Pizarro 2004, p. 542).

A possibility for further research that emerges from this dissertation is to conduct research with students in grades 3 through 6th, knowing that these are critical grades where bullying occurs. This study shows how recent immigrants experienced bullying based on the perception of low English skills. Further research might have the purpose of defining the diverse ways in which students bully recent immigrants. Researchers in the future may explore the diverse ways of bullying and the ways in which recent immigrants react to the bullying more in depth.

7.4. Limitations:

The recent immigrant students were attending different grade levels, and the environment consisted of very few recent immigrants in each grade level in this particular school. Their age range was considerably different. Since I had encountered different findings, according to their grade levels and ages, this can be considered a limitation because each case was particularly different. Ideally, the study would be more consistent if able to observe more recent immigrant students in diverse academic grade levels; especially in the 3rd, 4th and 5th grade levels where bullying was found.

The specific limitation in this study is based on generalizability, the extent to which a researcher can apply the results of a certain population in certain place to other populations in

different settings (Maxwell, 1992). Since the number of students in this study was very small and the settings and situations were different, the results of this study cannot be applicable to a more broad population from the same origin, in this case recent immigrants, due to different settings, situations, and number of participants. However, as stated by Maxwell (1992), “qualitative studies are usually not designed to allow systematic generalizations to some wider population (Maxwell, 1992, p. 293).

In this study I applied some practices to address the rigor of my qualitative inquiry. Such practices were: member checks when taking previous gathered data to the participants to confirm interpretation, diverse sources for gathering data such as participant observation, interviews with parents and teachers, focus groups with recent immigrant students, and peer debriefing. In peer debriefing, someone familiar with the investigation in course reviews data, provides support, and asks challenging questions regarding the employed methods and interpretation of data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Creswell & Miller, 2000).

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Appendix A

STUDENT INTERVIEWS (FOCUS GROUPS)

I am going to ask you guys some questions about your experiences in school, but I will give you time to think about the answers. You can write each answer down, draw something to represent the answer, or take the time to share your best answer with the group. If you don't feel like sharing your answer, that will be okay, as long as you show or tell me your answers through using your agendas or group discussion.

1. Tell me about your experience in your previous school before moving to the new one.
2. What did you like more about your old school? Explain why.
3. Is there anything you did not like about your old school? Explain.
4. Tell me about your experiences when you started attending classes in your new school.
5. Is there anything you didn't like about your new school?
6. What did you do when you were not able to understand the lesson in English?
7. Did somebody help you? The teacher? A classmate?
8. How do you feel when you were not able to understand the lesson in English?
9. What do you do when not able to say anything in English?
10. How do you feel about it?
11. Tell me how you feel when attending your classes in Spanish and English.

Appendix B

STUDENT INTERVIEWS (FOCUS GROUPS)-SPANISH

Yo les voy a hacer unas preguntas acerca de sus experiencias en su escuela. Les daré tiempo para que piensen acerca de sus respuestas. Ustedes las pueden escribir. También pueden dibujar algo que represente su respuesta, o hasta pueden tomarse el tiempo para que compartan su mejor respuesta con el grupo. Y si uno de ustedes no quiere compartir su respuesta, eso está bien siempre y cuando me indiquen sus respuestas en sus agendas, o en la discusión de grupo.

1. Cuéntame acerca de tu experiencia en tu escuela anterior antes de cambiarte a la nueva.
2. ¿Qué es lo que te gustaba más de tu otra escuela?
3. ¿Hay algo que no te gustaba de tu otra escuela? Por favor, explícalo.
4. Cuéntame de tus experiencias cuando tú empezaste a atender clases en tu escuela actual.
5. ¿Hay algo que no te guste de tu escuela actual?
6. ¿Qué es lo que hacías/ haces cuando no podías entender la lección en Ingles?
7. ¿Había/hay alguien que te ayude? ¿La maestra? ¿Un compañero de clase?
8. ¿Cómo es que te sentías cuando no podías comprender la lección en Ingles?
9. ¿Qué es lo que haces cuando no sabes cómo decir algo en Ingles?
10. ¿Cómo te sientes acerca de esto?
11. ¿Dime cómo te sientes cuando atiendes tus clases en Ingles y Español.

Appendix C

ENGLISH TEACHER INTERVIEWS

1. Discuss the roles that English and Spanish play in your classroom.
2. What issues concern you most, if any, regarding dual immersion instruction?
3. In what ways does your teaching incorporate students' cultural background including language?
4. Tell me about your perception on recent immigrants' experiences with the new language.
5. How do they react when not able to understand English?
6. Did somebody help them when not understanding the lessons in English?
7. Do you help your recent immigrants when not able to understand the lesson in the new language? How?
8. How do they react when not able to speak English?
9. Did somebody help them when not able to speak English?
10. Do you help your recent immigrants when not able to communicate in the new language? How?
11. What are your opinions about using both, English and Spanish at the same time? During the same lesson? In the same activity? Can you share some examples?

Appendix D

SPANISH TEACHER INTERVIEWS

1. Discuss the roles that English and Spanish play in your classroom.
2. What issues concern you most, if any, regarding dual immersion instruction?
3. In what ways does your teaching incorporate students' cultural background, including language?
4. Tell me about your perception on recent immigrants' academic experiences in your classroom?
5. Do you know anything about their experiences when attending the English class? Can you explain?

Appendix E

PARENTS INTERVIEWS

1. What can you tell me about your child's experiences in school before moving to the new one? Their attitude when going back home?
2. Tell me about your children's experiences and feelings when having started going to the new school in this country.
3. Tell me about their attitude when going back home from the new school.
4. Does your child tell you about his/her experiences and feelings in the English and Spanish classes? If so, can you share what your child has discussed with you?
5. Did you speak with his/her teachers about your child's experiences in both classes? Tell me about it.

Appendix F

PARENTS INTERVIEWS-SPANISH

1. ¿Qué me puedes decir acerca de las experiencias de tu hijo/a en su escuela antes de moverse a la actual? Acerca de su actitud cuando regresaba a la casa de la escuela?
2. Cuéntame acerca de las experiencias y de las emociones de tu hijo/a cuando empezó a ir a su escuela actual.
3. Cuéntame acerca de su actitud cuando regresaban de su escuela actual.
4. ¿Tu hijo/a te platica acerca de sus experiencias y sus emociones cuando toma las clases en Ingles y en Español? ¿Y si es así, me puedes decir de lo que tu hijo compartió contigo?
5. ¿Has platicado con sus maestras acerca de las experiencias de tu hijo/a en las dos clases? Cuéntame acerca de eso.

Curriculum Vita

Maria Del Rosario Talamantes earned her associate degrees in Accounting from the CBTIS (Centro de Bachillerato Tecnológico Industrial y de Servicios) in 1986 in Acámbaro, Guanajuato, Mexico. She received her Bachelor of Interdisciplinary Studies 4-8 Bilingual Education from the University of Texas at El Paso (UTEP) in 2007. Her Masters in Bilingual Education (Instructional Specialist) was received in 2009 from UTEP. She joined the doctoral program, Teaching Learning and Culture in the College of Education at UTEP in 2010.

Maria Del Rosario was a substitute teacher for two years (2001 and 2010) at Canutillo Independent School district (CISD) PK – 12 in Canutillo, Texas. She was assigned to long term substitute positions such as teaching bilingual, monolingual PK - 12. In 2006, Maria Del Rosario taught social studies in Spanish and Mathematics in English to a 6th grade dual language class during her teaching internship year at CISD. In 2008 she taught math to an ESL (English as a Second Language) class in Chaparral New Mexico.

Maria Del Rosario was an instructor of record at UTEP. She taught undergraduate and graduate classes online and face to face. She completed her practicum teaching pre-service bilingual teachers regarding the diverse modalities of biliteracy and parental involvement in bilingual education. She worked for the National Professional Development (NPD), with Dr. Elena Izquierdo and Dr. Char Ullman (Co-PIs), in a five-year, \$1,812,951 service and research grant to educate El Paso secondary teachers to better serve English learners. She helped organize conferences with visiting scholars, and gathered data on scholarly journals.

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