READING IN THE SECONDARY WORLD LANGUAGE CLASSROOM: HOW HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS ENACT THEIR EMERGING LITERACY WITH AUTHENTIC TEXT

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I dedicate this study to career educators, with recognition and appreciation for their practice daily in secondary classrooms.

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ABSTRACT

This qualitative case study of a high school world language (WL) classroom with flexible language boundaries (Cummins, 2012; Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Garcia & Li Wei, 2014; Turnbull & Daily-O'Cain, 2009) examines how proficient L1 readers constructed meaning from authentic L2 text as emerging bilinguals. Grounded in sociocognitive transactional literacy theory (Gee, 2013, 2014; Rosenblatt, 2013; Vygotsky, 1962, 1978) combined with a transdisciplinarity perspective (Douglas Fir Group, 2016), I drew from Ruddell and Unrau's (2013) model of reading to unpeel the complicated and recursive interplay among readers, the teacher, and WL classroom context. The findings include: (1) WL readers actively build lexicon while reading, using a variety of metacognitive strategies to locate and interpret key words in the text; (2) they continue to build enhanced layers of comprehension with each re-engagement with the text; (3) they depend on the classroom community for cognitive and affective support; (4) and while they engage all their L1 literacy skills, additional strategies are needed for L2 meaning construction. I discuss practice implications for building lexicon with authentic literature, using collaboration as cognitive and affective support for learners, and re-engaging with the text in multiple modes. Policy and research implications across the findings include consideration of target language only policy, disciplinary literacy in WL, and the Seal of Biliteracy.

Key words: practitioner research; translanguaging; L2 reading comprehension; secondary reading

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Recently, the students in my high school Advanced French class completed a reading of Voltaire's 1763 philosophical novel, *Candide.* The edition was published for speakers of French. It had historical footnotes and definitions of archaic terms, but there was not a single of word of English in the book. When we completed the unit, I asked the students to write a reflection about the project, and how they felt about doing this reading. Their responses confirmed for me that challenging authentic reading can lead to feelings of accomplishment and success in a world language (WL) class, and it is one of their "favorite ways to learn more French."

One student declared reading the book made her feel "professional…It felt more like when I read a book in an English class where it takes more than just knowing what the words meant to understand it." Another said, "Overall this activity taught me to trust my knowledge of the language…(More) vocabulary was retained in my memory, and… I knew I could actually comprehend a lot of what was on the page." A third reported she was able to use her understanding of *Candide* in her AP World History class to contribute to the discussion of the Enlightenment. "Overall," she said, "I really like reading books in class, especially when they are classics packed with culture and knowledge for those who speak fluent French, and those who are still learning."

As a teacher, I find it gratifying when my students have enjoyed the lessons I have taught, and when they feel successful in advancing their knowledge and skills. In the world language classroom, reading is one of the primary ways students learn both the language itself and also the sociocultural context of another society (American Council

on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), 2012). Along with speaking, listening, and writing, reading is a focus of world language education.

Researcher's Background

My professional background is as a secondary educator for the learning of languages, and my academic background is in applied linguistics and literacy studies. The development of my epistemological framework comes from a combination of lived experience developing my own plural literacies, trying to teach them to several generations of students, and from my academic study of scholarship.

I trained to be an English Language Arts teacher. But in my very first teaching job, due to my undergraduate major in French, I also became, quite suddenly, "the French teacher." I felt my way through those early years teaching French, relying on my graduate training in reading, composition, adolescent literature, and Vygotsky (1962; 1978). I threw in quite a bit of what I remembered from the middle and high school French classes in which I had been a student. I was, like almost all my students, a monolingual English speaker who learned my foreign language as a totally instructed language. I was allowed to start in 7th grade because I was a strong student academically. Back then, we learned by the "audiolingual" method, which involved listening to dialogues on tape, then memorizing and performing the dialogues. I liked learning another language, though I refused to worry myself with things like gender markers, which were not important in English, and so were not very concerning to me in French. In high school I also took two years of Russian, which had three genders I ignored. I tested out of the foreign language requirement at my liberal arts college but continued taking French literature courses because I enjoyed them, and because I wanted a reason to study abroad. Between my

junior and senior years of college, I was able to go on my first trip abroad, studying French for six weeks in a program run by an American college. I was typical for my generation and my middle-class suburban background in choosing French over Spanish, and in learning my language with a focus on reading, writing, and grammar. Study abroad programs at that time were almost solely for the purpose of practicing a language.

When I arrived in France, I cried a lot, feeling I had wasted eight years of previous work, because I could not understand any of the French I heard. I had nightmares of being overwhelmed by French words coming at me with ferocious speed; my French host mother patiently corrected my mispronunciation of the French “u”, which I had never heard to be different from the “ou” sound with which I was more familiar. My ultimate goal was to be able to speak French so well no one would know I was American, and in my short immersion experience, I made progress, at least in my vowel sounds, though I was shocked that my haphazard use of gender was actually detrimental to being taken seriously as a French speaker. In short, through middle school, high school, and a college major in French, I had learned limited communicative French.

I later did graduate work in applied linguistics, and my final paper concerned the continuum of features between writing and speaking, and the way in which people choose the right features for the communicative situation. I began to perceive a relationship between metalinguistic and metacognitive knowledge in the learning of another language, and I intentionally incorporated strategies for identifying connections and comparisons between the structure of my students’ first language, and the target language they were learning.

When I decided to learn Spanish, as an adult, I extrapolated from what had previously been useful to me as a language learner, and I went to Guatemala for an immersion program including instruction with a private tutor. I was amazed at how much more quickly I learned Spanish than other languages. I am aware of two important operative strategies: the element of needing to speak Spanish to communicate with my hosts and tutors, and using my knowledge of English and French to make meaning from Spanish and guess at how to express myself when I did not know the Spanish terms.

Consequently, when I first encountered the concept of "translanguaging" in Velasco and Garcia (2014), it completely resonated with me as a plurilingual learner. It was a flash of recognition that there was a term describing my lived experience. Translanguaging describes the linguistic behavior of natural multilinguals, people who grow up speaking more than one language (Garcia & Li Wei, 2014), in which the barriers between languages are fluid, porous, and tied to specific communicative situations. Challenging the hegemonic educational policy of remaining in the target language at least 90% of class time (ACTFL, 2010) the tenets of translanguaging extend to theory, stance, policy, and pedagogy. Translanguaging reflects the processes by which I have incorporated languages into my own life. Hornberger and Link (2012) conceive of this relationship between languages as a "continuum of biliteracy." I imagine the continuum as a sliding scale at times dipping toward one known language and then the other depending on situation, which mirrors the continuum of speaking and writing features that I had earlier researched.

Both as a teacher and as a learner, I see the value of translanguaging as a pedagogy, and as a stance valuing the literacies students bring with them to school. It is

clear languages are not separate entities designated as specific named languages, held in separate repositories in a bilingual speaker's brain; instead, speakers have a single repertoire from which they choose the most appropriate language forms for communicative purposes. Creese and Blackledge (2010) contend "flexible bilingualism" operates without regard to named languages, but "places the speaker at the heart of the transaction" (p.109). García and Li Wei (2014) describe translanguaging as taking "as its starting point the language processes of bilingual people as the norm, and not the language of monolinguals, as described by traditional usage books and grammars" (p.1). These perspectives encourage the researcher to examine the phenomenon of language learning from the perspective of the user, without regard to proscriptive notions of learning the researcher may bring. They also encourage teachers to disrupt the monolingual approaches common in many schools (Cummins, 2012) and view language learning from the perspective of the learner. In my experience as a language learner and language teacher, I often slipped among languages in search of the best word, or sometimes could only remember the word I needed in a language other than the one I was speaking. For a long time, I had felt that my inability to remain solely in one language pointed to deficiency, categorized me as a "failed native speaker" (Valdez, 2020), and made me feel ashamed. Realizing that translanguaging is normal was empowering.

Problem of Practice

Policy Issues for Secondary World Language Courses

As a secondary teacher of WL for several decades, I have witnessed shifting paradigms, changing official policies, and new "best practices" over my career, which are often the result of scholarship and empirical research. However, sometimes the

swinging pendulum of school policy creates situations in which administrators, teachers, and students are caught between opposing ideas. I address three policy issues that intersect and impact instruction and learning in the WL classroom: falling enrollment numbers; focus on biliteracy and global competence; and target-language use only. Then I describe distinctive qualities of reading in the WL classroom and use of authentic literature for instruction as they overlay policy concerns.

Enrollment Landscape

There is an absence of comprehensive national enrollment data for WL, which "seriously impedes systematic assessment of U.S. national capacity in languages" (American Councils, 2017). However, Pufahl and Rhodes' (2011) national survey documented a decline in WL enrollment since 1997 at elementary, secondary, and tertiary levels symbolizing a devaluation of the importance of world languages in comparison with math, science, English language arts, and social studies.

The lack of a national policy on WL education has led to a patchwork of state and local policies. For example, 11 states include WL in graduation requirements, and 24 others have graduation requires that optionally may be fulfilled with WL courses (American Councils, 2017). The proportion of WL learners is about 35.23 % of the secondary school population (American Councils, 2017).

Furthermore, programmatic cuts and a lack of teachers undermine the option for students to follow the full sequence of six-to-eight instructed courses necessary to achieve proficiency and biliteracy (American Academy of Arts and Sciences (AAAS), 2017; Davin & Heineke, 2017; O'Rourke, Zhou, & Rottman, 2016). Across the United States even before the pandemic, many school systems felt the pressure to reduce the

number of courses offered in foreign languages due to a lack of qualified teachers: 44 states and the District of Columbia report an inability to hire enough world language teachers (AAAS, 2017; American Councils, 2017).

Focus on Biliteracy

The Seal of Biliteracy, a designation bestowed at high school graduation on students who have achieved proficient speaking and writing levels in more than one language, has been adopted by 45 states and the District of Columbia since 2012. It is a step toward developing what have been termed globally competent students, an imperative necessitated by a world increasingly interconnected by digital communication, global markets, and geopolitical realities (Seal of Biliteracy, 2021). The Seal is awarded to either students who can both speak and write in their first language and learn English, or to monolingual English speakers who learn to speak and write another language at a proficient level.

While some understand the Seal to be most appropriate as a tool to support linguistically diverse students who speak a language other than English at home, others see it as a benefit encouraging continued enrollment in upper-level WL courses. School administrators and students often focus on the enhanced access to universities and jobs they feel official biliteracy confers, and some scholars are concerned because these market-oriented ideologies surrounding it may privilege already better-resourced schools (Hancock & Davin, 2020). Regardless, Davin and Heineke (2018) found students who earned the Seal felt it validated their multilingual abilities and boosted their confidence.

Global Competence

The call for global competence represented by biliteracy has been sounded from many corners. Government and industry increasingly require proficiency in languages other than English (O'Rourke, Zhou, & Rottman, 2016; American Academy of Arts and Sciences (AAAS), 2017). In American high schools, global competence is often pursued through foreign language courses (National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015; MSDE, 2018). However, the National Security Agency (NSA), the nation's largest employer of speakers of languages other than English, sounds the alarm that it cannot fill its language jobs because not enough high school students are being prepared to ultimately be able to learn national security languages (L. Farrell, World Language Day at NSA presentation, May 3, 2019). Even in Maryland, the home state to the NSA, a bill was considered in 2019 to allow students to fulfill their foreign language graduation requirement with computer languages instead of World Languages, further undercutting policy support for widespread and deep course offerings in WL in secondary classrooms.

Target Language Use Policy

Because there is no official language policy in the United States, individual states and school systems set their own educational requirements, including whether to mandate how much time teachers and students use the target language in WL class. In 2010, the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), which is the leading professional organization and powerful de-facto national political organization, officially joined Canada, Britain, the European Union, and a majority of other countries in establishing the policy of 90% or greater use of the target language in classrooms (Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009), a policy widely adopted by school systems. The

implementation of this requirement is problematic globally, and many studies report the nearly exclusive target language goal is seldom met. (Li Wei & Martin, 2013; Littlewood & Yu, 2011).

Target-language only policies mandate that teachers and students should remain in the language being instructed as much as possible, since the WL classroom is likely the only place that students will have access to hearing and using the language. World language classes are often conceived of as tiny replicas of countries where the target language is spoken (Macaro, 2009), as places where students should get a daily dose of immersion in the language and culture of another place. Some scholars (e.g., Ellis, 2005; Krashen, 1982) and policy makers emphasize 90% or greater use of the target language as the optimal mode of language acquisition.

Instructional Context in the World Language Secondary Classroom

However, WL teachers face an interesting conundrum if we follow both the mandated policies of language immersion and states' call for biliteracy. Secondary students in our classrooms often have age-appropriate literacy skills in their first language but emerging proficiency in the target language; if we stay in the target language at least 90% of the time, we neither allow our students to fully express their thoughts nor value their literacy practices in both languages. Macaro (2014) called the use of the first language (L1) the "fundamental question facing Second Language Acquisition researchers, language teachers, and policy makers in the second decade of the 21st century" (p 10). When we deprive our students of the opportunity to express themselves in their most proficient language, teachers leave untapped funds of knowledge of inner speech (Swain & Lapkin, 2013) that our students bring from other contexts and known

languages, potentially limiting their progress in learning (Brevik & Rindal, 2020). For example, studies in many countries have shown that classroom management or task description, concept scaffolding, and metalinguistic explanation are often undertaken in the students' L1 to better access concepts and efficiently enable lesson progression (Brevik & Rindal, 2020; Carroll & Sambolín-Morales, 2016; Canagarajah, 2011; Cenoz & Gorter, 2017; Edstrom, 2006; Macaro, 2009) High school students' understanding surges beyond their expressive capacity in the target language; allowing students to use all their languages to discuss meaning-making rather than restricting them increases their agency, voice, and learning.

However, when teachers allow a flexible boundary (Creese & Blackledge, 2010) between languages, the reading and discussing of target language texts can provide powerful support for developing target language and cultural proficiency. In professional and educational contexts in which enrollment is falling and the goal of biliteracy is encouraged, reading is an often-overlooked focus of research (Grabe, 2009). Though reading is one of the four key competencies of WL education (ACTFL, 2012), research into WL literacy practices remains under-considered in the formula to promote and build student proficiency.

Unique Qualities of World Language Reading

Given high school learners' extensive developmental progression since early years when they first learned to read, reading in the target language requires and operationalizes a much wider variety of skills than simply learning to decode words. As a long-time educator, I identify four important, perhaps unique, characteristics of WL learners that must be kept in mind when studying reading in the WL classroom.

First, secondary students who embark on instructed WL study are frequently considered proficient age-level readers of their first language and are often in college-preparation tracks (Maryland State Department of Education (MSDE), 2021); in other words, they have a great deal of background knowledge from their first language about how to link the words they have decoded into meaningful sentences and larger chunks of text, how to infer meaning from morphemic and syntactic constructions, or how to distinguish among verb tenses and moods (Grabe, 2009; Kintsch, 2013). They have strong metacognitive schema to construct meaning from what they find on the page (Anderson, 2013; Smith, 2012). Though their useful vocabulary and grammar in the target language may be narrow, their understanding of complex ideas, connections, comparisons and how to use context clues to make meaning is much further developed than their limited target language knowledge might suggest.

At the same time, however, as new learners and emergent bilinguals of another language, their comprehending processes are quite complicated. They are learning to decode words in a manner similar to children initially learning to read. For example, they are learning to match letter combinations to sounds to recognize words; however, in a WL class, the letter combination may match an equivalent pattern in their first language, yet sound and mean something completely different. Additionally, they are learning to locate and operationalize the linguistic cues in words that determine their grammatic role in the phrase or clause (Levesque, Keiffer, & Deacon, 2019). For example, attention must often be paid to word-final syllables in ways that are not obligatory in English. For example, in Spanish, varying endings on verbs indicate the subject of the clause while the subject pronoun itself remains understood; in German, endings determine whether a noun

is the subject or object of the clause; and in French, ending morphemes carry person and tense information, even in the instances where they are unpronounced. To understand the text, an emergent bilingual must pay attention not only to the meaning of the word, but to its form.

Third, WL learning is distinguished from other language learning by its wholly instructed nature. Especially in the United States, students may not live in a social environment in which they hear the language in natural contexts, where they might benefit from a constant word bath. Consequently, correctly decoding a new word when reading does not always remind them of a word they already have acquired, as it might in their first language reading (Nagy & Scott, 2013). This leads to greater complexity in properly predicting and constructing meaning (Goodman, Fries & Strauss, 2016).

Fourth, secondary students are at a developmental juncture in the process of learning their first language in which they are no longer learning just to read but are reading to learn content that differs from class to class (Fang & Schleppergrell, 2010). In a WL class, the language is both the medium of the course and the content of the course; learners are required to do both at the same time. This requires developing a skill set to allow students to complete the tasks of decoding written text and oral instruction, as they simultaneously access prior knowledge about language and sociocultural contexts to comprehend text and learn content.

In summary, high school students are often proficient readers capable of understanding and appreciating sophisticated topics and themes, and who have skills to discern meaning of unknown words and concepts through context. They use complex and developing literacy skills every day as they encounter diverse texts in English language

arts, social studies courses, science, and math classes. As Alexander and Fox (2013) explain, “Even as readers begin to unravel the mysteries of language, they are constructing their knowledge base. Simultaneously, as readers pursue knowledge in academic domains, they are building a richer understanding of language” (Alexander & Fox, 2013, p. 35). High school WL learners, in addition, are developing a new lexicon and new language structure as emerging bilinguals in an additional language. Readers’ motivation to do the difficult work of building WL vocabulary and grappling with puzzling sentence structures is supported by positive affective conditions around their attitudes about reading and content. The teacher’s stance and knowledge of pedagogy are integral influences on the classroom (Ruddell & Unrau, 2013). Effective lesson design should not only support linguistic development but leverage students’ already developed literacy skills, providing appropriately complex topics and themes to expand reading experiences and knowledge.

Authentic Literature

Authentic literature, that is, text crafted originally for speakers of the language, not composed of contrived or adapted language, is a powerful tool for learning the target language. It has strong communicative value (ACTFL, 2012), and introduces learners to primary source sociocultural content. While finding the line between appropriately challenging and overwhelming texts takes care, when target language reading is interesting to proficient first language readers, they feel accomplished in doing it. As my students told me after reading *Candide*, real, challenging reading increases their confidence in their emerging bilingualism and bodes well for motivation to continue their study.

The purpose of this case study was to describe the interaction among the teacher, the text, and the focal high school students in a French III class as they constructed the meaning of four authentic French texts from their class reading assignments.

Significance

Few studies describe real life applications of literacy and second language acquisition theories in a high school WL classroom. In *Reading in a Second Language* (2009), Grabe draws heavily from first language reading research because of the gap in second language (L2) reading research. In the L2 literature, there is considerable focus on oral language, some on writing in classroom settings, but little on reading in the WL classroom (Buescher & Strauss, 2015). According to Brevik (2019), we know little about the daily practices of secondary instructed L2 learners. This remains an important and under-examined area. In beginning level classes, students spend the majority of their time listening to the teacher speak the target language or reading the language in a textbook or other text-based medium. Even in upper-level classes, massive exposure to target language input requires reading at extended levels, often in culturally and linguistically authentic texts. Reading literacy represents an important, but underdeveloped, avenue of research for L2 educators.

An understanding of how students process target language text, how they construct meaning from it, what they attend to and what they fail to consider during a WL reading event could provide direction for researchers and teachers to support their learning. Rather than simply assigning texts in class, this research may inspire teachers to intentionally develop the reading strategies differentiating WL reading from other contexts and enriching the classroom experience for high school learners.

Research Questions

The primary research question is: How do high school students in a WL classroom construct meaning when reading a text in the target language? Secondary questions are: In what ways do students use their first language literacy knowledge as a tool to influence the development of reading comprehension? In what ways does the WL classroom community influence the development of reading comprehension?

Key Terms

Additional language learning and teaching is studied in several epistemological, theoretical, and practical traditions (Douglas Fir Group, 2016). Similar terms maybe be used to denote dissimilar ideas, and similar ideas are conceptualized with important terminology distinctions among academic disciplines. For example, *translanguaging* is theorized from the perspective of the plurilingual speaker and is considered both stance and pedagogy, while *codeswitching* describes a similar behavior that focuses on the languages themselves and their boundaries; it is not a pedagogy (Brevik & Rindal, 2020; Mazak, 2017). Understanding that the terms used are chosen with sociocultural and scholarly context, when reporting on literature, I retain the term the researchers used in their work. Otherwise, throughout this study, I use the following terms with these definitions:

Activities: instructional classroom exercises and practices, referred to as *tasks* in some scholarship (VanPatten & Benati, 2015). Here the two terms will be used interchangeably.

Authentic Text: language intended for speakers of that language, produced by speakers of that language, and not intended as instructional language, as opposed to controlled text and language developed for use with emergent learners.

Construction of Meaning: processes enacted by a reader to understand text, and create representations of meaning to interpret and comprehend (Goodman, Fries & Strauss, 2016; Kintsch, 2013; Rosenblatt, 2013; Ruddell & Unrau, 2013).

First Language (L1): language of home use, though I realize this is not always the way the term is conceived by plurilingual speakers.

Literacy Event: set of tasks and steps in the process of reading text and producing outcomes demonstrating comprehension, such as semantic/lexical knowledge, written or oral responses to the text, or changes in motivation, belief, or value.

Literacy Knowledge: knowledge about how texts are constructed and enacted for particular purposes in specific sociocultural settings (Gee, 2013, 2014; Halliday, 1993).

Reading Comprehension: the ability to make sense of printed text, which is the driving force of the reading process (Ruddell & Unrau, 2013; Rumelhart, 2013).

Second Language (L2): any language learned sequentially after the L1, whether in an instructed setting or not, and possibly a third or fourth language.

Target Language: denotes the specific language being taught in a class, such as French or German.

Translanguaging: originally coined to describe a pedagogy, currently an umbrella term encompassing language ideology, pedagogical stance, theory of bilingualism, and set of practices (Mazak, 2017).

World Language: Variously called *foreign language, target language, second language, modern language, and instructed language,* I will use *world language* (WL), which is the official term of my state's department of education; it denotes a language primarily learned in an instructed school setting.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Readers in a WL secondary classroom have a complex series of tasks before them as they attempt to make sense of text. In addition to decoding and understanding lexicon in the target language (L2), they must coordinate knowledge of its grammar structures. With that information, they must then process the text to construct meaning. In order to describe current understandings about reading in world language, I undertake a review of literature in two fields, sociocultural literacy and second language acquisition (SLA), which is a subfield of applied linguistics. To find appropriate research, I searched the Salisbury University databases ERIC, ProQuest, JSTOR, and used the search engine Google Scholar. I also located potential books, articles, and dissertations in the reference lists of useful articles that I identified through the database searches, and I contacted scholars about their work and asked them for suggestions for additional articles to further my understanding. I reviewed several handbooks of literacy theories and models, and revisited articles and books I had previously read. I eliminated scholarship primarily concerned with young children or adults, studies that did not address L2 learning in a classroom setting, studies that did not focus on reading as at least an element of the inquiry, and studies that were conducted prior to 2000, unless many scholars cited them as foundational.

Overview

The literature review is organized in four sections. In the first section, I offer a focused review of the development of the scholarly fields of literacy and Second Language Acquisition in Linguistics. In that section, I provide a parallel review of

sociocultural theory in literacy and linguistics, and then, approaches to teaching reading in secondary classrooms. The second section draws from research around first and target language use in L2 classrooms. Next, drawing from literacy studies, I examine aspects of reading for comprehension applicable to the WL classroom, including instructional strategies. The final section summarizes the Ruddell and Unrau (2013) model of interactive reading that forms the organizing framework for my study. I conclude with a short summary of the literature.

Development of the Fields

Sociocultural Theory in Literacy

Over the last 50 years, the study of literacy has moved from a predominantly cognitive, postpostivist framework to one increasingly concerned with sociocultural context (Alexander & Fox, 2013). Naturally, the act of reading requires readers to construct meaning from language in text form. However, that understanding has been extended to encompass any semiotic system as informed by each individual's personal experience, perception, and circumstance. Rosenblatt (2013) contributed the idea of reader-response stances that make up the activity and interpretation of reading. After a renewed mid-twentieth century interest in Soviet thinkers Vygotsky and Bakhtin, sociocultural theory enjoyed invigorated research and scholarly conversation (Tracey & Morrow, 2017). Exemplified in Freire's (1985) concept of reading the word and reading the world and Moll's conception of Funds of Knowledge (Moll, Amanti, Neff, & Gonzalez, 1992), sociocultural theory encompasses the idea that language cannot be understood except through also understanding the speaker's or reader's context.

Gee (2013; 2014) conceived of meaning as being not simply an instantiation of an idea in language, but as being a function of people's "experiences of situated action in the material and social world" (2013, p. 137). Gee (2014) applied sociocultural theory to the understanding of language, showing that discourse reveals not just someone's words, but such things as self-identity, relationship, and significance in a particular time and place. Language is perceived through the frames constructed by individuals that give meaning to their experiences in the world. His terms d/Discourse refer both the language of a text, and additionally encompass the ways of the reader's doing and being within a social system, co-constructed with others in the social group. Gee recognizes a literacy event as a complex interaction of genres, social language, and cultural models enacted through d/Discourse. An example of such d/Discourse is the classroom, where teachers and students co-construct with specific verbal interactions, genres of language, and school-based practices (2013).

Goodman, Fries, and Strauss (2016) and Smith (2012) added to the literature in sociolinguistic work by combining study of sociocultural context with brain processing observed through miscue analysis, suggesting that readers predict meaning by accessing pre-existing schema and sociocultural context. Goodman and Goodman (2013) note that learners of a second language are often tentative readers "consciously groping for control of developing schemata" (p. 540).

The sociocultural lens focuses and analyzes much of the current work in literacy studies through a conceptualization that all learning is social. All literacy must be understood through social, cultural, linguistic, and historical contexts, and authentic reading from diverse global cultures can build multicultural attitudes and address topics

and values that students may not otherwise encounter (Fortune & Tedick, 2008). In a WL classroom, issues of multiculturalism and global connection are central. Increasingly, scholars and practitioners from disparate academic fields realize sociocultural factors increase the uptake, retention, and use of new knowledge, and many have adopted a Vygotskian perspective to understand how and why students use language and metacognitive knowledge to make sense of their worlds. (Dailey- O'Cain & Leibscher, 2009; Swain & Lapkin, 2013).

Sociocultural Theory in Linguistics

Similar to the field of literacy, SLA scholarship was initially grounded in a cognitive theory of linguistics that explains language in terms of cognitive processes (Hill, 2019) and as "a phenomenon that takes place in the mind of individual learners" (Valdés, 2020 p. 120). During the last twenty-five years however and paralleling a similar vein of sociocultural inquiry in literacy, SLA research has increasingly paid attention to the sociocultural contexts in which language is learned. A consequential article published by Firth and Wagner (1997) instigated a sociocultural turn in SLA away from an analytic perspective of the L2 learner as a "deficient communicator struggling to overcome an underdeveloped L2 competence, struggling to reach a 'target' language" (p. 295), and to consider more fully a holistic understanding of L2 learning.

Since then, the influence of sociocultural theory has become widespread in SLA scholarship (Buescher, 2018; Toth & Davin, 2016; Valdés, 2020; van Compernolle & Williams, 2012). For example, Vygotsky's (1978) theories have been up-taken to such an extent that Vygotskian Sociocultural Theorists (V-SCT) have developed robust

conceptions of literacy (Lantolf, Poehner & Swain, 2018) that are closely aligned with pedagogical practices.

In 2009, a group of 15 of the most influential scholars in the SLA research community began a conversation in the Douglas Fir meeting room in the conference hotel during a meeting of the American Association of Applied Linguistics (Douglas Fir Group, 2016). They represented a variety of theoretical roots and allegiances and ontologies, but after a long ensuing and intensive collaboration, they reached broad general agreement about the nature of language and how it is learned. Recognizing that scholars in a number of fields including anthropology, psychology, and education as well as many subfields of linguistics are concerned with language learning, The Douglas Fir Group (2016) asserts that SLA must now be responsive to an increasingly complex environment in which education and social integration call many people to live with multiple languages over their lives. Their resultant framework of transdisciplinarity is "problem-oriented, rising above disciplines and particular strands within them with their oftentimes strong theoretical allegiances. It treats disciplinary perspectives as valid and distinct but in dialogue with one another in order to address real-world issues" (p. 20). This linguistic framework locates individual language use at the center of ever-enlarging circles that represent "learners' diverse multilingual repertoires of meaning-making resources and identities so as to enable their participation in a wide range of social, cognitive, and emotional activities, networks, and forms of communication and learning in their multilingual life-worlds" (p. 25). As evidenced in the transdisciplinarity framework and the interests of sociocultural linguists, linguistic theory has strong parallels with literacy scholarship. The conjunction of many similar frameworks in the

two fields allows synergism and cross-dialogue to advance the understanding of second language literacies.

Reading comprehension is an area in which there is strong synergism in research. In both literacy theory and linguistic theory, increasingly research focuses on the reader at the center of a reading event and on comprehension as the purpose of reading. Similarities in understanding about reading in the first language provide the basis of understanding how reading comprehension functions in L2 (Grabe, 2009; Koda, 2007) and informs best practices for pedagogy. The individual reader's identity, motivation, prior cognitive, linguistic, self-, and world-knowledge provide scaffolding architecture; new knowledge comprehended through reading is attached and modifies the framing itself (Kintsch, 2013; Gee, 2014).

Approaches to Teaching Reading in Secondary Classrooms

> Since the year 2000, new literacies and critical literacies have expanded both the sense of what counts as text, and whose context matters. Specific to secondary classroom reading, the concepts of content literacy and disciplinary literacy have taken precedence. (Alvermann, 2009)

Like the movement from the previous cognitive frameworks to sociocultural frameworks grounding work in literacy and linguistics, approaches to teaching reading in the secondary classroom have shifted emphasis as Alvermann (2009) notes. In addition to expanding what count as texts and whose contexts matter, focus in secondary reading scholarship has turned to how readers make sense of increasingly complex text. Commonly, stakeholders including parents, students, policy makers, and teachers conceive reading instruction to be the purview of primary school. However, learning to

read and reading to learn continue to be entwined in secondary school, and content teachers become de-facto reading teachers (Carnegie Council on Advancing Adolescent Literacy, 2010; Moje, 2008;). Alvermann (2009) references research studies that unpack the complex relationship of reading and course content. In this section, I consider three models of secondary reading instruction describing this relationship in WL: content literacy, disciplinary literacy, and a blended model.

Content Literacy

The slogan *All teachers are reading teachers* was met with concern from content teachers, including WL teachers, who did not consider themselves prepared to teach literacy, especially at the expense of their content, or who considered literacy the domain of the English department (Beers and Probst, 2016; Lai, Wilson, McNaughton, & Hsaio, 2014; MacMahon, 2014; Ness, 2009; Shanahan and Shanahan, 2008).

Content literacy as I am using the term refers to generic reading strategies that are useful at the intermediate level of Shanahan and Shanahan's (2008) theoretical literacy progression model and are applicable across all content areas. This includes such strategies as decoding multisyllabic words, self-monitoring for comprehension, and expanding lexical items (Ness, 2007). Additionally, The National Reading Panel's (2000) recommendations to increase reading literacy include question asking, monitoring, summarizing, question answering, and use of story mapping, graphic organizers, cooperative grouping, prior knowledge, and mental imagery (Shanahan, 2005). These strategies are generic, and their use is supported across all curricular areas, including WL. However, many teachers feel underprepared to teach literacy strategies explicitly and make them a focus of instruction in their classrooms (MacMahon, 2014; Nagy, 2007; &

Swanson, Wanzek, McCulley, Stillman-Spisak, Vaughn, Simmons, Fogarty, & Hairrell, 2015).

Disciplinary Literacy

Different from content literacy, disciplinary literacy specifically addresses the need in secondary schools for students to read increasingly complex texts. Discipline literacy acknowledges specialized vocabulary, differently constructed sentences and texts, and different orientations to the purpose of text encountered in ELA, math, science, and social studies. (Fang & Schleppergrell, 2010; Johnson, Watson, Delahunty, McSwiggen, & Smith, 2011; Moje, Dillon & O'Brien, 2000; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008). At present, only these core content areas have been researched as separate disciplines. To that list, I add World Language because of the way that learners must not only learn the language that is the content of the course, but they must learn how to think metacognitively about language in general, both the L1 and the WL, and must learn particular lexical items that have specific meanings for the discipline but general meaning in other contexts (*gender* and *number* are two examples). Learners must also learn to process language differently than was required for the natural language with which they grew up due to its instructed nature (Turnbull, 2020).

The purpose of disciplinary literacy is to introduce readers to the specific way that experts in a particular field approach and conceptualize literacy. Shanahan and Shanahan (2008) produced a foundational and large-scale study to explore the differences in literacy instantiations among the core content areas in secondary education. Their theoretical model of literacy progression suggests that basic literacy is accomplished by the end of primary school for most students, where school instruction in literacy

commonly stops. This includes decoding skills and recognition of high-frequency words. Intermediate literacy skills include decoding multisyllabic words with automaticity, and understanding less common punctuation, simple author intention, discourse organization, and a large corpus of vocabulary items, some of which are not encountered orally. While Shanahan and Shanahan propose this list of skills for L1 readers, WL readers are required to employ these same skills in the L2. Metacognitively, readers learn to monitor comprehension and enact strategies to revise or repair. Often, this work is achieved by the time a student is in middle school. In high school, however, generic comprehension strategies are often inadequate for comprehending discipline-specific forms of text, and for understanding the cognitive processes of the practitioners of that discipline. Shanahan and Shanahan (2008) found that most readers need to be taught the strategies for this kind of reading; that they need instruction to be apprenticed into the literacy practices of the disciplines.

Blended Literacy Model

Lai, Wilson, McNaughton, and Hsiao (2014) drew on sociocognitive and ecological system theory to provide a model of reading that enacts both generic content and disciplinary literacies simultaneously to gain full understanding of reading and writing tasks. They conducted a three-year quasi-experimental study across a diverse school system as it adapted and implemented both content literacy and disciplinary literacy strategies. After focused professional development for teachers, students were able to draw on both generic and disciplinary literacies simultaneously and in every classroom to gain full understanding of reading and writing tasks. In this way, the model rejects Shanahan and Shanahan's (2008) linear progression in favor of a blended model

theorizing that reading is recursive, in that students do not leave behind one level (such as decoding new words) as they advance to more complex comprehension strategies. The researchers propose high school students benefit from literacy instruction in both generic and discipline-specific strategies, and comprehension gains may reach a plateau if specific discipline instruction does not follow the generic. (Lai, et al., 2014).

In fact, research shows building vocabulary, and world and disciplinary knowledge are two essential qualities of reading instruction, regardless of subject area (Duke, Pearson, Strachan, and Billman, 2011; National Reading Panel, 2000) The blended model analysis is certainly descriptive of WL classrooms, where decoding new words is a constant process even as discourse structure and meaning become increasingly complex. Students, even in upper-level classes, never leave behind the daily need to decode and acquire new words as they encounter unknown lexical items, and grammar structures are regularly and recursively considered.

Drawing From Second Language Acquisition Studies

In Chomsky's 1957 foundational linguistic work *Syntactic Structures*, he developed the theory of transformational grammar, that all humans have the innate ability to learn the syntax (deep structure) and lexicon (surface structure) of language, and then to manipulate the deep structure of grammar to generate novel utterances (Unrau & Alvermann, 2013). Following Chomsky's influence, twentieth century work in the field took monolingualism orthodoxy as the default position (Garcia & Li Wei, 2014; Valdés, 2020). In other words, the normative language learning perspective was that of people who were monolingual. Only peripheral attention was focused on the way bi- or multilinguals use language. The accent and fluency of a *native speaker*, in other words an

educated person whose first language is a prestige version of the target language, was considered the gold standard of language learning, the aspirational goal of all second language learning (Valdés, 2020). The goal of striving for a *native* proficiency was often at odds with use of the L1 in classrooms.

How much is enough? How much is too much? The L1 debate

A debate rages in the world of foreign languages researchers, practitioners, and learners. At its heart are two competing ideas about how learners acquire the new vocabulary and structures to comprehend a new language, and how best to increase useful proficiency. Foreign language (FL) classes have two unique attributes when compared to other academic courses. As a content course, the medium and the message are the same: the course content is taught in the language that is the content. Second, the classroom is the primary and perhaps only space in which the students are likely to encounter someone speaking the language, and the teacher is therefore the primary and perhaps only speaker of the language they are likely to encounter. There is added responsibility for the teacher when, as Turnbull (2001) describes this unique situation: "The teacher is the sole linguistic model for the student and is therefore their main source of target language input" (p. 532.) Given the need for the teacher to provide as much target language input as possible during limited class time while simultaneously providing content about language and culture, the debate emanates from this set of questions: how much target language should be used in a foreign language class, why do teachers persistently fail to impose a monolingual standard of target language use, and if students do not yet understand the language, how much use of their shared L1 is acceptable?

Target Language Only

Krashen (1982), working from a cognitivist theory perspective, influenced SLA with his theory of Comprehensible Input, which suggests that no new language structures can be acquired by a learner until they have a scaffolding on which to place the new information. Krashen encouraged teachers to use "premodified input" in the target language (Macaro, 2009, p. 37). Teachers and editors of textbooks adjusted input and simplified it to match the level of the learners, perhaps using songs to allow acquisition of language without recourse to explicit grammar explanation. Comprehensible Input Theory suggests that massive input and staying in the target language are all that is necessary to learn an additional language. This theory and the modifications that followed also "implicitly exclude the use of L1 in classrooms" (Lo, 2015, p. 272). As a correlative, use of L1 was termed *interference* and was widely regarded as deficiency (Garcia & Li Wei, 2014; Valdés, 2020).

Scholarship in this area was especially strong in Canada, where French was taught in immersion or dual language contexts beginning in elementary or early middle school. Krashen's (1982) theory called for near total use of the target language, and studies showing success in these new immersion programs was powerful enough to result in policy decisions in the 1990s and 2000s in Canada, Britain, and the United States that classroom expression should be nearly exclusively in the target language no matter what the students' level of proficiency (Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009). As might be assumed by that list of countries, much of the work by applied linguists in the field SLA was done from a perspective of English monolingualism that was layered on secondary

learning environments of world language classes, or English bilingual or dual language settings.

However, despite policy mandates, international empirical evidence from *in situ* studies persistently reported that use of L1 was common in classrooms, by both teacher and students; its use was often accompanied by guilt and apology (Levine, 2003; Macaro, 2009; Makalela, 2017; McMillan & Turnbull, 2009; Valdés, 2020). A foundational article by Macaro (2009) pointed out that despite more than 20 years of focus on exclusive target language in the research, there are no theories that explain L2 acquisition through "as much as possible" use of L2 (p. 38), and that a more pertinent question is whether learning is detrimentally affected by "*not* drawing the learners' attention to features of their first language, or *not* making comparisons" (italics original, p. 39) between L1 and L2 .

Flexible Use of L1

Cummins (1979) proposed the Interdependence Theory hypothesizing that L1 might be considered a resource for learners of an L2 and began to step away from the deficit perspective, as L1 was commonly thought to be an impediment that interfered with L2 learning. Using the term *codeswitching* to indicate a change from one named language to another in a single semiotic event, linguists began to examine how and why L1 was used in L2 learning through different theoretical lenses (MacSwan & Faltis, 2020). This resulted in different terms for similar observed phenomena. The fluid use of language practices by multi- or plurilingual speakers as an action could be called *languaging* (Pennycook, 2007); *coding switching* Canagarajah (2011); *flexible bilingualism* Creese and Blackledge (2010); and *continua of biliterac*y (Hornberger and Link, 2013).

Translanguaging is an umbrella term encompassing language ideology, pedagogical stance, theory of bilingualism, and set of practices (Mazak, 2017). These terms have theoretical distinctions that are important; functionally though, they all reject the idea of second language learners as "failed native speakers" (Valdés, 2020, p. 120) and focus on the ways that principled use of L1 in L2 learning can provide semantic, cognitive, psychological, sociocultural, and educational support for learners.

In what has been termed the *multilingual turn* (Faltis, 2020), many linguists have largely turned away from a perspective of monolingual prestige standard of language use toward a more encompassing appreciation. Increasingly, scholars value both non-standard versions of a language and all a learners' known languages. A common thread that passes through much of SLA reading research is a focus on features of language and processes used by readers for comprehension, including the use of L1.

Scaffolding, Self-Regulation, and Comprehension Monitoring

Higher order metacognitive processing is used to comprehend challenging texts, conceptional complexity, and domain-specific concepts, in addition to scaffolding and accessing previous knowledge, all of which may be supported through use of L1 (Dailey-O'Cain and Leibscher, 2009; Grabe, 2009; Lin, 2008; Wang, 2019). New and challenging concepts introduced and explained in the L2 may not be truly taken up unless they can be restated in L1. (McMillan & Turnbull, 2009). Several empirical studies examine teacher-mediated L1 used to ensure cognitive understanding.

For example, two studies examined the purpose of teacher use of L1 during L2 science instruction. In immersion school contexts in Europe and Canada, some secondary content material is taught in the L2 (Cenoz & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2015; Lin, 2015; Lo,

2015). Gierlinger (2015) studied a German science class taught in L2 English. The teacher supplemented strategies for comprehension by mixing L1 German into an explanation of an experiment to ensure students understood and conducted comprehension checks in L1 for purposeful monitoring of students' comprehension of the domain-specific scientific language. Cormier and Turnbull (2009) studied Canadian immersion middle school science classes' learning about volcanoes and plate tectonics. They found the students whose teachers explicitly used L1 scaffolding for content background made greater gains in both content learning and in language learning as evidenced through summative writing samples about the topic. Additionally, the students showed improved L2 rhetorical structure in their writing than did those in the total target language class.

Macaro (2009) adopts a Vygotskian perspective that inner voice and private speech are essential to thought and cognitive processing. Educational psychologists describe aspects of stress, anxiety, and heavy cognitive load that may be alleviated through some principled use of L1, allowing students, especially those with lower L2 proficiency, to deal with cognitive complexity (Dailey-O'Cain & Leibscher, 2009; Macaro, 2009; McMillan & Turnbull, 2009; Swain & Lapkin, 2013; White & Storch, 2012).

Swain and Lapkin (2009) share an illustration of cognitive complexity concerning Nina and Dara, two girls in a bilingual immersion class, collaborating on writing their own story. The teacher suggested an improvement to one of their words with a change of *sans bruit* (noiseless) to *silencieusement (*silently). Nina and Dara's subsequent conversation in L1 English debated whether their meaning was adequately captured by

the teacher's L2 word and demonstrated a deep level of metalinguistic engagement and collaborative meaning-making. Separately reported, when faced with challenging L2 discourse or written texts in a target language only environment, Swain and Lapkin (2013) found that students nevertheless used L1 to talk to themselves, thus showing self-regulation by taking control of their mental processes using the forbidden L1. The students used L1 self-talk to refocus their own attention and formulate problem-solving strategies.

Additionally, when students recast ideas from reading passages or other text from L2 into L1, deeper understanding is achieved (Swain and Lapkin, 2013). Wildsmith-Cromarty's (2018) similar findings of a two-year study among South African university students showed that L1 use allowed students access to their epistemologies, and teacher-accepted use of L1 by learners allowed them to give their thoughts best expression. She found that "deep learning cannot occur without a real form of reference" (p. 103) accessible through the L1.

It is, simply, not something that can be silenced in the mind of the learner. De la Fuente and Lacroix (2015) assert there is "interaction between the diverse mental representation of all the languages" multilingual learners know, and none can be "turned off" (p. 48). All languages are always activated at some level, revealing a continuum of linguistic knowledge. Consequently, leveraging awareness of metalinguistic and metacognitive resources to make sense of new learning is a powerful tool for students to wield when challenged with L2 discourse or text and constitutes a principled use of L1.

Drawing from Literacy Studies

As Grabe (2009) noted, there are too few studies of reading specific to secondary L2 learners to support general theories, and even fewer studies specifically examine the processes of secondary WL learners. However, reading is thought to be transferable from one language to another and additional languages tend to be non-redundant; for example, if a concept such as a clausal subject, reading strategy, or discourse organization structure is known in L1, it is not re-learned in L2 or L3, it is simply transferred (Archambault, 2016; Cummins, 1979).

In secondary World Language classrooms, readers are typically assumed to be proficient in L1 reading at age-appropriate levels, but as incipient or emerging bilinguals, they lack specific linguistic information to process L2 text with an equivalent degree of proficiency. Consequently, reading in the L2 classroom bears similarity to early L1 reading in terms of developing knowledge of semantic and surface syntax. However, as with other secondary content area reading, readers also are developing knowledge of genre, figurative language, and multi-modalities present in secondary content texts. The unique aspect of WL learning is that the content of the course is also the medium of instruction, and for many students the sole space in which the language is encountered; therefore, reading to learn and learning to read are intricately intertwined. Additionally, WL readers are being introduced and mentored into the disciplinary mindset of linguists and language scholars. In the following section, I look at literacy scholarship that has bearing on secondary classroom practices of WL learning in the following areas: development of vocabulary, reading comprehension, and collaborative learning.

Vocabulary Building

Vocabulary is fundamental to reading comprehension, an essential building block of reading efficiency, and a key component of foreign language literacy development. It is relevant to beginning levels of learning as well as to advanced studies. Nagy and Scott (2013) demonstrate the complexity of word knowledge and the contribution of metalinguistic awareness to vocabulary learning. They present lexical complexity through the qualities of (1) incrementality: word comprehension grows with use and context variance; (2) polysemy: words have multiple meanings and connotations that must be learned; (3) multidimensionality: spoken, written, grammatical form, collocation, register, and the phenomenon of "knowing" a word but being unable to define it; (4) interratedness: the predictable co-occurence of a word with other words; and (5) heterogeneity: the difference in understanding various parts of speech.

A reader's arsenal of lexical tools, their useful vocabulary, can be developed in two ways: incidental learning through contact in oral or written texts, and by instructed means. Direct vocabulary instruction is essential, but is often presented in reductionist ways in classrooms, for instance by presenting decontextualized lists of words to be memorized. Nagy and Scott (2013) give careful consideration to the development of vocabulary through connection to metalinguistic knowledge. They refute the reductionist perspective on vocabulary building by showing the complexity of word knowledge, which must be learned not only through multifaceted instruction, but in incidental learning through sociocultural contexts. Incidental learning refers to natural encounters with new terms through living in an environment in which the target language is

available; this might happen by increasing exposure to audio and video of television, music, and movies, or by extensive vocabulary-rich authentic reading.

Consistent with psycholinguistic theory (Smith, 2012**)**, and transactional sociopsychoneurolinguistics (Goodman, Fries, and Strauss, 2016), metalinguistic awareness supports vocabulary learning through cognition and efficient use of morphology to decode new words (Nagy, 2007). Metalinguistic awareness implies noticing and understanding the properties of lexical and syntactic structures, for example differentiating parts of speech or recognizing common stems. In WL instruction, metalinguistic awareness develops attention to subject-verb-object order, placement of prepositions, or word-final inflections indicating tense, person, or number and gender agreement, for example.

Additionally, metalinguistic awareness supports cognate scaffolding to access known concepts in the L1, or in many cases, even to increase awareness of previously unknown L1 vocabulary. Syntactic and lexical awareness are useful in predicting and confirming meaning, deriving word meaning through context and formal definitions, and developing comprehension through context to include incidental learning of word meaning. Nagy and Scott (2013) emphasize high rates of vocabulary growth through "immersion in massive amounts of rich written and oral language" (p. 471). They note that complexity of vocabulary understanding must be learned not only through multifaceted instruction, but in incidental learning through sociocultural contexts, emphasizing the need to supplement "natural" vocabulary acquisition with metalinguistic awareness intentionally developed throughout school years.

Grabe (2009) examined numerous studies to determine how many words are necessary for proficiency in a language. He concluded that there are 100,000 words in common use in English, and that graduating high school students have a known corpus of roughly 40,000, including perhaps 20,000 word families; estimates are that traditional WL classes count about 300-500 directly-instructed words each year. Grabe (2009) concludes that the "real goal is an L2 vocabulary level anywhere above 10,000 words" (p. 271). Furthermore, learners usually require multiple encounters with a new lexical item to consider it learned. While secondary WL learners have an advantage in that they already know many of the concepts that words refer to from their L1, clearly there is not enough time in secondary school for instruction alone to provide access to 10,000 lexical items in the target language.

An empirical WL study illustrating the complexity of lexical understanding comes from Macaro's (2009) study of Chinese students' confusion in learning three English words: *adolescence* (confused with *puberty)*; the word *value* (having both a quantitative meaning and a figurative meaning); and *fruitful* (sharing a direct translation to *fruit*, but not to *good outcom*e). These examples demonstrate how even in the case where there might be a direct translation of a target language lexical item, referential, collocational, and register connotations may complicate comprehension. In each case, the use of L1 was useful in teasing out the similarities and differences in concept between the L1 and L2 lexical items and instigated additional processing of lexical information and formation of metalinguistic awareness.

Reading Comprehension

Reading comprehension is widely considered to be a similar process in L1 and L2 (Grabe, 2009; Brevik, 2019), and Kintsch's (2013) Construction-Integration model of text comprehension is well-accepted. In the model, it is theorized that a reader converts semiotic structures of a text into a representation of meaning by creating propositions from the text's structures, and inferences from schema and situational models, through which possible meanings are filtered and selected. If the constructed meaning also fits with the reader's prior knowledge, it becomes new knowledge, augmenting, replacing, or otherwise modifying old knowledge.

Thus, as the reader comprehends the text, the information changes knowledge, which also changes comprehension in a cyclical process.

Metacognition for Comprehension

Many reading researchers have found that strong metacognitive awareness is also predictive of strong reading comprehension in both L1 and L2, and metacognitive strategies are listed among the essential elements of fostering and teaching reading comprehension. (Buescher & Strauss, 2015; Corbitt, 2013; de la Fuente & Lacroix, 2015; Duke, Pearson, Strachan & Billman, 2011; Grabe, 2009; Levesque & Deacon, 2019; Levine, 2009; McManus and Marsden, 2019; Nagy, 2007; National Reading Panel, 2000). Among many specific types of metacognitive knowledge cited in these studies, Nagy (2007) reported a study showing a positive relationship between L2 comprehension for readers who recognized cognates with their L1; correspondingly, those who did not recognize the cognates demonstrated poorer comprehension of L2 text. An investigation of L2 students' use of bilingual dictionaries revealed that L2 students lacked syntax

awareness; they assumed that entries for the L2 were synonymous with the L1 word even if the part of speech was different (Nagy & Scott, 2013).

Instructional Strategies for Reading Comprehension

Pearson and Gallagher's 1983 gradual release of responsibility model (GRR) for teaching comprehension strategies is enduring (Duke et al., 2011; McVee, Shanahan, Hayden, Boyd, & Pearson, 2017). The GRR centrally includes scaffolding through teacher modeling for the strategies that are being instructed, followed by guided practice as the students try the strategy in controlled situations, and finally the students' independent use of the strategy. Some criticism of the implementation of the model has been published (Duke et al., 2011) because it can be taught as the end product itself; that is, it can become simply an empty metacognitive strategy if not connected to real-life reading comprehension. The main thrust of the GRR as a teachable strategy is that over time and practice, increasingly less scaffolding is required as the student reader becomes increasingly capable.

Brevik (2019) conducted a study to examine the extent to which the GRR model and comprehension strategies were woven into the "daily life" of L2 classrooms. She found teachers scaffolded specific strategies to support individual students and differentiate learning; however, L2 classrooms with a small repertoire of strategies practiced regularly over repeated lessons and school years fostered deep learning and independent use of strategies by students. Proficient students selected from among strategies according to text demands, which varied in the complexities and requirements of different authentic texts. Brevik's finding aligned with Koda (2005), who underscores that accomplished L2 readers engage in strategic reading to 'continuously adjust their

reading behaviors to accommodate text difficulty, task demands, and other contextualized variables' (p. 2305).

Situating their understanding of reading in Kintsch's (2004) Construction Integration Model of text comprehension, Duke et al. (2011) make the case that best practices for reading instruction include using a full range of genres, and that reader comprehension benefits from use of multiple meaning-making strategies simultaneously. In addition, it may well be that revisiting and re-representing important ideas in many modes is what matters most… These multiple and varying representations may be responsible for the observed improvement in understanding and memory for key ideas encountered in the text (p. 79).

Duke et al., (2011) examined the characteristics of skilled readers and contend that the strategies they employ are teachable; acquiring and developing these practices helps emergent readers. Teacher observation and assessment should provide diagnosis of contributors to a reader's comprehension because comprehension checks alone are insufficient. Readers bring different skills, strengths, and compensations to their meaning construction; therefore, re-representing ideas in many modes assists readers integrate learning and reshape knowledge, as does discussion of text structures, and augmenting world and language knowledge to support vocabulary development. Furthermore, Duke et al. cite several studies showing that collaborative discussion of reading content promotes higher level thinking and deeper comprehension of the text. Their analysis of strategic reading led to suggestions for classroom instruction that hold value in WL as well as L1 literacy. Duke et al. (2011) suggest there are ten essential elements for teaching reading comprehension:

1. Build disciplinary and world knowledge.
2. Provide exposure to a volume and range of texts.
3. Provide motivating texts and contexts for reading.
4. Teach strategies for comprehending.
5. Teach text structures.
6. Engage students in discussion.
7. Build vocabulary and language knowledge.
8. Integrate reading and writing.
9. Observe and assess.
10. Differentiate instruction. (p. 52)

These elements encompass opportunities for rich metalinguistic growth, access to prior affective and cognitive knowledge, and on-going monitoring of comprehension in addition to direct instruction in strategies for comprehension. The goal of instruction in these strategies is to model and then gradually release the responsibility for doing the strategies to students, while monitoring progress and reintroducing and reviewing them as increasing complex reading texts are provided. Thus, they are equally applicable in L1 and L2 classrooms.

Collaboration in Reading

Traditional classrooms often have included the paradigm of a teacher instructing a group of students who then accomplish some sort of individual work to demonstrate their uptake of the information the teacher has disseminated. Sociocognitive frameworks challenge the notion of the teacher as *the sage on the stage*, and encourage peer collaboration to problem-solve, increase comprehension, and support deeper learning

outcomes (Gánam-Gutierrez, 2018; Simon & Kalan, 2017; Sormunen, Tanni, & Heinström, 2013; Turnbull, 2015). In the WL classroom, meaningful dialogic interaction among peers is facilitated by flexible use of L1 in order to allow readers to express their thoughts as cogently as possible (Macaro, 2009; Swain & Lapkin, 2013; Swain & Watanabe, 2013). These collaborations may focus on deepening metalinguistic or metacognitive understanding of language forms and choices, or they may help students derive meaning from reading through consensus-building. For example, Turnbull (2015) conducted a study to compare written summaries of L2 reading comprehension of four texts by students in three experimental conditions. The first group had no discussion before writing; the second group conducted collaboration for meaning comprehension in L2, and the third group discussed the L2 reading in L1. Turnbull found higher order processing and reading strategies exhibited in the third group, as well as greater comprehension of the texts overall, suggesting strong benefits of L1 group discussions on L2 reading comprehension.

As the following studies demonstrate, findings in the literature also include improved reader affective conditions from collaboration such as improved confidence, engagement, self-efficacy, voice, and motivation to read (Gilles, Osborne & Johnson, 2017; Moore & Seeger, 2010).Seeger's (2009) case study of six sixth graders over a two-month period found a "close connection between participation in a reading strategy that focused on empowering students with information to examine their own reading skills and the self-efficacy they held related to their reading abilities" (p 240). The students read from guided readers associated with basal texts from their classroom. Collaborative learning was meant to improve metalinguistic strategies for reading comprehension,

which the participants evidenced over multiple reading events. However, interviews with classroom teachers and careful observation of the participants additionally and importantly showed increased levels of self-efficacy and general enjoyment of reading activities (Seeger, 2009). Similarly, Gilles, Osborne, and Johnson (2017) also found that secondary students labeled as *deficit readers* became more focused in reading and augmented their metacognition about reading through collaborative discussion. Like WL students who are presented with texts that may seem overwhelming at first, these readers found the strategies resulted in a more empowering picture to the participants and to their teachers of what these students could do well when reading. The participants increased their engagement with reading and began to reshape their reader identities in more empowering ways.

In a specific WL context, an analysis by Wang and Zheng (2017) used collaboration to work with target language reading. The findings of the study were wide-ranging. The researchers found students were able to shift from focusing on decoding single words toward reading for comprehension. They increased their metalinguistic awareness to uncover and name specific strategies they used in constructing meaning. Participants showed evidence of using all linguistic and pragmatic cueing systems and background knowledge, used retelling as a learning strategy, and worked collaboratively to refine and extend meanings. Finally, they developed new-found pride in their accomplishments as L2 readers.

Literature circles are another classroom strategy used to increase reading comprehension in a secondary and tertiary settings. Carroll and Sambolín Morales (2016) conducted a case study in Puerto Rico with English as a Foreign Language students.

Students read a target-language novel with a young Puerto Rican protagonist. They discussed the novel in literature circles using independent language choice, developing connections between the text and other literature, and reacted to the protagonist's experiences through the lenses of their own lived experiences. The researcher and teacher found that translanguaging within the collaboration allowed the students to comprehend and then express their opinions in much richer ways than sole use of the target language would have allowed.

A study on symmetrical and asymmetrical pair work, conducted as the students worked in both L1 and L2, showed co-construction of comprehension and improvement in the learners' comprehension scores of reading passages (Pishghadam & Ghardiri, 2011). Interviews with the students indicated that collaborative work was valuable to both more- and less-apt students in the groups, either by working with a more knowledgeable partner, or by explaining their ideas to peers. Additionally, students reported that it was simply more fun to work together.

Lastly, from the framework of collaboration as distributed cognition in Vygotskian Sociocognitive Theory, Buescher (2018) conducted two empirical studies of reading literacy in university bridge courses (that is, courses meant to span the gap between grammar-heavy introductory language classes and upper-level content courses the target language). In writing about the two studies, Buescher (2018) suggests that think-aloud protocols and collaborative work improved understanding of literature from broad sociocultural perspectives, and as a practice of learning how to read.

In summary, collaborative peer work has been shown affect comprehension by helping to derive meaning, deepen metalinguistic awareness, and broaden perspectives. It

also improves affective conditions by increasing self-efficacy, positively reshaping reader identity, valuing resources in prior knowledge, and engendering positive personal connections.

In short, literacy studies demonstrate that whether in L1 or L2 reading, comprehension is affected by vocabulary recognition and metacognitive knowledge of how language and texts work. The best and most effective literacy strategies apply regardless of language. They also work synergistically; L2 learning can improve L1 understanding as well as vice-versa.

Ruddell and Unrau's Sociocognitive Interactive Model of Reading

Reading researchers Ruddell and Unrau (2013) sought to create a productive model of the reading process that would "have utility not only in connecting current and past research but in charting future research directions" (p. 1015). Their sociocognitive conception of reading specifically in the context of classroom learning considers not only how the reading process itself works, but the complex roles of the readers, the text, and the teacher. Underlying the model are key assumptions, including that the purpose of reading is to obtain meaning, that readers construct meaning from not only the text but other multimodal semiotics in the classroom, and that reading is a dynamic process with texts constantly reinvented by new reader constructions. The teacher is critical in developing the social context of the classroom and facilitating meaning-construction processes.

Reader

In brief, the reader component of the model consists of five parts. The *affective conditions of Prior Knowledge* factor such things as motivation, attitude, and

sociocultural values and beliefs about school and reading. *Cognitive conditions of Prior Knowledge* include declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge, text-processing strategies, personal knowledge, and metacognitive knowledge about how texts and the classroom work. Cognitive conditions also include metalinguistic knowledge and strategies for word recognition and identification. *Knowledge use and control* guides purpose, planning and meaning construction, and begins to produce a meaningful text representation. The text representation is influenced not only by what the reader has contributed from conditions and control, but by other factors such as discussion with peers or the teacher. The reading *executive and monitor* oversees this process and is involved in confirming or disconfirming predictions and judgements about meaning. The *outcomes of meaning construction* include tangibles like the production of written or spoken artifacts, the acquisition of new knowledge, new semantic or lexical knowledge, or simply changed beliefs, attitudes, or motivation. The process is simultaneous and integrated, in that any of the elements might be engaged at any time, in any order, and be overlapping.

Teacher

The teacher has a matching set of conditions and controls. However, the specific elements include differences due to prior knowledge and experience. For example, teacher's *affective conditions* also include an instructional stance and orientation, and motivation to engage students. The teacher's affective conditions have a direct impact on the not only on the planned instruction for the class but the socio-educational environment of the classroom. *Cognitive conditions* for the teacher include content knowledge, knowledge of the meaning-making process, and practical knowledge of

teaching strategies. Metacognitive strategies include such things as adjusting plans or strategies based on monitoring of student behaviors, detecting difficulty, or shifting attention. “Teachers who work in the dynamic and complex social context of classrooms must think on their feet and think about their thinking at the same time—clearly a description of metacognition” (p. 1044). The teacher’s *knowledge use and control* component directs instructional decision-making for purpose, planning, and strategy design to enact an instructional stance. The *executive and monitor* evaluates purpose, time, and attention allocation for tasks, and draws on metacognitive knowledge to evaluate how the original plan is going.

Text and Classroom Context

The variable that connects the two matching teacher and reader components of the model is the text and context component. This is made up of conditions of the learning environment. These include the characteristics of the text that is being read, the setting of the classroom, how voice and authority are distributed among the teacher and readers, and how meanings of the text are negotiated. This central component of the model is the atmosphere through which the text representations of the readers come into contact with the teacher’s representation of instruction. Because each component of the model is overlapping and integrated in and of itself, all factors are ultimately subject to influence and impact from the others.

Implications of the Model

Ruddell and Unrau (2013) constructed the model based on monolingual first language classes. In a WL class, there may be specific differences attributable to the distribution of authority and the way that meaning is negotiated due to asymmetric

knowledge and power bases, even when the teacher's main role is to orchestrate community negotiation. The model clearly allows for application in the World Language classroom because it draws from reading research grounded in both in general literacy studies and in second language acquisition.

Ruddell and Unrau have a long list of possible future implications that could be explored to interrogate their model. These include investigating how text-processing strategies might improve comprehension of reading across content areas, work on the role of metacognition, additional studies surrounding reader attitudes, and the influence of teacher stance on instructional decision-making. Reading research in secondary world language classrooms could be extended to investigate how readers make meaning from the texts they read, to discover in what ways their first language literacy knowledge is used, and to investigate how the teacher and a language-flexible classroom setting affect the meaning-making process.

Summary

This review of scholarship in reading, literacy, and second language acquisition research shows a sociocultural perspective on text as a context-specific semiotic system. The rediscovered work of Soviet theorist Vygotsky (1962; 1978) has had strong influence on both literacy and second language research, informing scholarship on approaches to learning second languages and on learning to read.

From this perspective of transdisciplinarity (Douglas Fir Group, 2016), current studies applicable to the secondary WL classroom fall into several avenues of research. 1) Recognizing that reading instruction is conducted by content teachers at the secondary level, literacy instruction models may be conceived of as best applying across all content

areas, to individual disciplines, or in a blend of both models. 2) In the WL classroom, current research overwhelmingly supports judicious and principled use of the L1 to enact metacognitive and pedagogical supports for students. 3) Studies of reading for comprehension are congruent in their focus on strategies that develop vocabulary through authentic sources in multiple modes; instructing for metacognitive strategies to construct meaning; and in using diminishing levels of guided support after modeling 4) Collaboration provides opportunities to enrich comprehension of text as well as to improve readers' affect about reading.

Ruddell and Unrau's (2013) model of interactive reading proposes an explanation of the complex sociocultural interaction of the cognitive and affective conditions of readers and teachers, including how their executive functions maintain the flow of knowledge processing during a reading event. The model further explains how the context of their classroom allows and constrains interaction among the students and teacher. I propose to examine the model from the transdisciplinarity principle that combined SLA and literacy perspectives deepen understanding of the meaning-making processes of readers in a WL classroom.

CHAPTER 3

METHODLOGY

Design

This is a case study (Yin, 2003; 2012; Cresswell & Poth, 2018; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016) of a single French III class that I taught in the spring of 2021 at Central Valley High School (all names of places and participants are pseudonyms). As the teacher, I had extended experience with the participants in the French III class, including teaching all of the students in their French II class, and about half of them in their French I class. As the practitioner researcher and a scholar of teaching (Shulman, 2000), my goal was to conduct this research within my own professional context to provide deeply connected, rich, complex data for exchange and critique in the professional and research community. The present study provides description of a high school world language class in which there were flexible boundaries between the uses of the students' first language (L1) and target language World Language (L2) as participants read for comprehension during four literacy Events. To do so, I analyzed four literacy Events that took place about every three weeks throughout the semester as part of normal instruction in the course. The goal of the Events was to read authentic texts in French and make meaning from them; I examined seven focal students' comprehending processes throughout each of the literacy Events. Cochran-Smith and Donnell (2006) describe the classroom as a site for researching ways of knowing that blur the boundaries between practice and research, examining the ways that teaching decisions are bounded by theoretical and pedagogical frameworks and methodologies.

Practitioner Research

According to Cochran-Smith and Lytle (2007) practitioner research in K-12 education focuses on "studying, understanding, and enhancing teaching and learning across disciplinary areas. By making scholarship conducted within school settings by teacher/researchers public, it becomes "accessible to critique by others and exchangeable in the professional community" (p. 608). Thus, the classroom is not only a productive site for investigation by researcher from outside the setting, but it is site for legitimate knowers in a professional context to conduct inquiry that is well-grounded in theory and consistent with thoughtful models of design valued in the discipline. Shulman (2000) asserts that in the scholarship of learning, "questions emanate from neither theory nor practice alone but from critical reflection on the intersection of the two… and such inquiry is integral to the complex practice of teaching and learning" (p. 61). Self-study of knowledge-in-practice leads to uncovering, conceptualizing, and improving teaching and learning.

Case Study

The present case study seeks to add to scholarly research through empirical inquiry describing a non-experimental, real-life context, specifically the experience of a single class of high school students reading in a secondary WL class. Case study is an appropriate and suitable methodology particularly in situations where the participants can be observed over an extended time, where large amounts of data can be collected from multiple sources of evidence, and where the researcher has an ability to provide thick, rich, description of the unfolding case (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016; Yin, 2003). For this

study, the case is a bounded French III class, with seven focal students observed over a semester-long course by a practitioner researcher with insider status.

The primary research question is: How do high school students in a WL classroom construct meaning when reading a text in the target language? Secondary questions are: In what ways do students use their first language literacy knowledge as a tool to influence the development of reading comprehension? In what ways does the WL classroom community influence the development of reading comprehension?

Theory

Literacy Events in world language classes can be puzzling to students since various pieces of sociocultural, linguistic, and metacognitive information must be fit together in order make sense of the passage, and these ways can differ from how they might fit together in L1 reading. My case protocol derives from a theoretical perspective that talking through a literacy puzzle, either in thinking aloud or by dialogic collaboration, results in deeper understanding and allows new learning to take place.

Sociocognitive Theory

I first locate my epistemological framework in a sociocognitive Vygotskian (1962) understanding that word and thought are inseparable reflecting and refining one another, that language mediates learning, and that social context is central to knowledge construction (Gee, 2014). I also ascribe to the “transactional sociopsychoneurolinguistic model” of language comprehension and literacy learning (Goodman, Fries, & Strauss, 2016, p. 35), which recognizes an iterative process that involves neurology, linguistics, socio-cognitive, and socio-cultural elements that work synergistically and are inseparable. Following the theory of Moll, Amanti, Neff, and Gonzalez (1992), I reject

deficit descriptions of learners and recognize the multiple sociocultural and linguistic funds of knowledge with which each learner comes prepared when acquiring new proficiencies, and which create particular and individual opportunities for scaffolding new information into existing schema. (Rosenblatt, 2013). Within this understanding, WL or L2 reading becomes not only decoding and translation of text, but a multilayered process of transaction; that is, comprehending and connecting sociocultural contexts, prior knowledge, and personal interaction with text.

Disciplinary Literacy

One focus of the research literature on reading at the secondary level is disciplinary literacy, the ways of knowing and learning that are specific to the ways experts in the discipline comprehend and use text (Fang & Schleppegrell, 2010). In WL, reading is a process of not only decoding and recognizing the semantic meaning of words, but metalinguistic and metacognitive strategies specific to the syntax and morphology that are different from the L1. Additionally, in instructed WL classes, the language of instruction is also the content of the course.

Disciplinary literacy in world languages incorporates linguistically based strategies into meaning making in ways that are distinct from reading in other disciplines. Whether focused on processes of reading (Grabe, 2009) or contexts of reading (Abdulrahman Almurashi, 2016; Halliday, 1993), linguists consider linguistic and metacognitive strategies form an essential building block in meaning-making.

Interactive Model of Reading

Ruddell and Unrau's (2013) sociocognitive model of classroom reading comprehension examines the roles of the reader, the teacher, and the texts and contexts of

the classroom in an interactive dynamic. Their model was designed for students reading in their L1, and in the current study I wanted observe whether their model is applicable in understanding the processes of comprehending reading in an instructed WL.

This interactive model of reading further serves as the foundation of this study to interrogate the complex interactions among the reader, the text, and the teacher in the classroom, each allowing and constraining processes necessary to meaning construction (2013). The design of the study incorporates individual reader reflections about their meaning-making processes as bookends to peer group conversation that pools sociocognitive, metalinguistic, and metacognitive knowledge to collaboratively construct meaning from the passage. Additionally, the classroom context as a specific and unique learning environment, the teacher/researcher's stance and pedagogical practices and, not least, the requirements of the actual text passage to be read all contribute to the literacy Event as it is experienced by the readers.

Positionality

Any study is shaped by the researcher's perspective (Cresswell & Poth, 2018); my long history as a high school French teacher and former English teacher, as the teacher of these participants, and my ontological position about the nature of reading and emergent bilingualism all find expression in the design of my study, beginning with the development of the research questions and carrying through the design methodology and data analysis. Merriam and Tisdell (2016) suggest that "qualitative research is a dialectical process that affects and changes both the participants and the researcher" (p 64). Clarity about my unique positionality, my reflexivity about the study, and a thick,

rich description of the learning Events in my classroom will allow others to judge if the dialectical process described in this study is relevant to their own contexts.

As the teacher of these participants and the figure of institutional and language authority in the world language classroom, I have many hats to wear. I am the ultimate insider, the designer of the official learning activities, and mine is the most privileged voice in the room. (Cresswell & Poth, 2018). Additionally, I am the only French teacher that some of these participants have ever had; I am the only voice and accent they have heard speaking French as a real communicative mode, though certainly they have listened to recorded voices with some regularity. I observed concepts I have taught and processes I have fostered to see how my students had internalized them. This is, however, what teachers do every day.

There are advantages and challenges to this insider perspective. The advantages include a strong rapport and trust between the researcher and the participants, and an opportunity to observe the participants' actions without intermediaries (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). On the other hand, power asymmetry represents a challenge to research with one's own students (Cresswell & Poth, 2018), who suggest that a collaborative stance can mitigate some negative effects. As a practitioner researcher, I needed to have a heightened level of introspection and reflexivity about what I observed in my classroom, and to incorporate systematicity and intentionality in my data collection (Cochran-Smith & Donnell, 2006; Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2004). I made clear to my students that their participation in my research would make no difference to my relationship with them as their teacher, and their grade would be unaffected by their choice either to participate or not. My students' comfort with the study's literacy Event activities was high because they

were the normal instructional activities of my classroom, which they had experienced in at least one other course with me. They had familiarity with one another. Their participation in the literacy Events provided an up-close understanding of a real-world setting (Yin, 2012), a real-life view of what emerging world language readers do, and how they processed French passages to make sense of them.

Setting and Context

The participants for this study are students enrolled in Central Valley High School, a public school in a mid-Atlantic state, with 1100 students. The racial-ethnic minority population is 11%, and there are fewer than 10 ESL students; 7.4% of the student body qualify for free and reduced meals, and 6.9% receive special education services. The graduation rate is above 95% and most students go on to either community college or four-year institutions of higher learning. Eighty-nine percent of the faculty have Advanced Professional teaching certificates (master's degree or above) and 96% of the classes are taught by teachers who have met state standards as highly qualified teachers. Central Valley High is in a small town in a mid-sized county of 250,000 and is part of the county school system. Though formerly part of a farming community, the town is now largely a bedroom community for people who work and commute to jobs in large cities. It is a higher income area of the county. I live in this community, and my children attended the school. This was my eighth year as a teacher in this high school where I taught French and Spanish classes.

French III at Central Valley High

French III is a course that moves beyond vocabulary-building and syntax-development as the core objectives with which French I and II are primarily concerned. In my French III course, students are introduced for the first time to complete fictional works that are written in French for speakers of French, and their reading becomes more multi-layered. In our school system, high school classes are conducted on a semesterized block schedule; therefore, each leveled WL class is approximately 80 minutes in length and the course is conducted in a single semester. Students sometimes choose to take "back-to-back" courses wherein they take French II and French III for example in the same academic year.

There is a high level of instructional multimedia in French III. Even prior to pandemic-forced virtual instruction, my public school system actively encouraged teachers to develop Blended Learning lessons, which, as defined by the system, include designing instructional activities that use multimedia resources to access digital text, write, create video, or audio record. Every student is issued a Chromebook to use for instructional purposes. Students may alternatively use their smart phones, personal computers, or other personal devices for these purposes. Schoology, the data management platform, allows students to upload writing, audio, and video recordings directly to the secure class site. Consequently, students were generally comfortable with using their devices to audio or video record themselves, as is part of this instructional design. Specifically, in World Language courses, multimedia sources allow students to read, watch, and listen to authentic sources of the target language.

Four literacy Events incorporating use of various media by the participants were analyzed for this case study. Each literacy Event was formatted similarly, with a set of tasks focused on a specific passage of printed text. Each instructional Event took between one to three 80-minute class blocks, depending on the passages themselves.

Four Literacy Events

The tasks for each of these four literacy Events were based around a goal of reading and understanding a short passage of authentic French prose. Three texts were fiction; the fourth was non-fiction. These instructional activities were designed to help students read and comprehend somewhat challenging reading passages (Krashen, 1982; Vygotsky, 1978). Their data provided insight into the ways in which the literacy strategies and skills that these participants had already developed either in their first or second language informed, aided, or otherwise affected their emergent literacy in the target language. The texts were in French, but students were instructed to use English to talk about their thought processes; they wrote answers in French to comprehension questions posed in French, and they used the language of their choice for discussion in their small groups and the reflection piece. The interviews were conducted in English, but the students and I referred directly to the texts in French. One reason to allow English for these activities was to let the students use the language that most clearly expressed their thoughts; they chose whichever language best expressed their communicative intent.

The Texts

The four texts came from the curriculum of the course and were typical readings in my course, representing the various types of text that I ask my students to comprehend. They include a blogpost written in French about ritual henna tattoos to celebrate a bride's

marriage; an excerpt from a piece of francophone literature printed in the textbook with reading support materials on the surrounding pages; a French language fairy tale printed as a children's picture book, and a chapter from a philosophical novel. The excerpts of the passages are included as Appendices A-D.

I augmented culture and vocabulary lessons about marriage rituals in North Africa from the textbook (Theisen, 2014) with authentic texts, including a blog post from a French language wedding planner site (*une negafa marocaine)* that explained the henna tradition in North African weddings. (Appendix A). I introduced this material with stories and photographs from the marriage of a friend in Morocco that I attended.

Also concerning the topic of marriage culture in the francophone world, the literature passage (Appendix B) was extracted from a larger work by Mariama Bâ, *Une Si Longue Lettre* (Theisen, 2014; pp 192-193). The English title is *Such a Long Letter*. The passage is placed on a double page spread in the textbook and surrounded by three boxes containing reading strategies, comprehension aids, and scaffolding supplied by the editors of the textbook. These include *Rencontre avec l'auteur,* (Meet the author); *Stratégie de Lecture (*Reading strategy): Making Cultural Inferences; and *Outils de Lecture* (Reading tools): Gender Criticism (all translations throughout my own.) Though the strategies have English subtitles, the text is completely in French. There is a sample graphic organizer accompanying the culture inferences paragraph, a painting of African women carrying baskets by Cécile Delorme, and footnoted glossary translations of 16 French terms from Ba's work translated into English. Finally, the page includes six *Pendant la Lecture* (During reading) questions in French that are placed inside arrow-shaped graphics to indicate the general area in the passage where the information can be located. The excerpt

is told in the voice of a new widow whose brother-in-law expresses his wish to marry her and add her to his other three wives.

For the fairy tale unit, I used children's picture books I had purchased in a bookstore in the city of Québec. Some were familiar tales that the students might have seen in American movie or television renditions, and some were more unusual titles for them. An example page is in Appendix C. In addition to large illustrations to convey the story, the fairy tales have complex sentence structure and are written in a literary verb tense, the simple past, that French III students have yet to encounter. I introduced the unit by asking the students to consider what they knew about typical genre conventions for fairy tales; for example, magical beings that can change form, potions, and evil family members. The scaffolding instruction for this literacy Event also included vocabulary building for the genre, and demonstration of how to use recognizable verb stems in unusually conjugated verbs. I hoped this would be useful in making educated predictions about meaning from the previously unencountered literary simple past conjugation on the pages.

The final passage was from *Le Petit Prince* (St Exupéry, 1943), a short novel about a pilot who has crashed in the Sahara Desert and encounters a mysterious boy who comes from a small asteroid. The little prince's journey on Earth, reported by the pilot, is a well-known story and is perennially popular with young people. The novel also employs the simple past tense and some illustrative drawings, and its themes cover philosophical questions of the meaning of friendship and life's purposes. Chapter X begins the hero's journey portion of the story, for which the long prologue has prepared readers. It describes the little prince's visit with the ruler of another asteroid, the first

adult he meets when he leaves his own home. It continues to develop a theme from the earlier chapters *"Les grandes personnes sont décidement bien bizarre"* (p. 35), "adults are definitely pretty weird" (translation my own). The first nine chapters have included the narrative frame of the pilot telling the prince's story, and the background of the prince's confusing relationship with a flower on his tiny home planet. By chapter X, the participants had encountered several repetitive syntactical and semantic structures and had gotten into the rhythm of the novel. The author's original drawings provide graphic support for meaning-making strategies. The illustrations for Chapter X is included in Appendix D.

The Format

Each literacy Event followed the same general format. Teacher instruction and scaffolding for vocabulary, culture, and structural elements in the reading began each unit, and then participants were given time to independently read the passage and audio record a guided think-aloud. When those were complete, participants shared their thinking in small peer groups to develop new insights. After collaboration, they wrote answers to specific comprehension questions and summaries of their comprehension. Each participant also completed a written self-reflection about the comprehending process. This step was usually completed as homework to allow students time to process the Event. Finally, I led a culminating whole group discussion, inviting participants to share their ideas with all classmates, and making sure that all the salient points from the lesson plan were brought out.

Participants

The participants in the study were 9th and 10th graders between the ages of 15 and 16 who were taking French III course in the spring semester of the 2020-21 school year at Central Valley High School. These students had participated in similar literacy Events in classes with me in their French II class and were familiar with the instructional tasks included in the study. The single inclusion criterion for this study was to be enrolled in my French III class in the spring of 2021. First, I discuss recruiting and selection of the focal participants and describe their L1 reading skills and the number of WL words which they might have been expected to recognize; then I introduce each of the participants and their voices.

Recruiting and Selection

I invited all fifteen students enrolled in the course to participate by discussing the study and sending home an explanation of it to discuss with their parents or guardians. Nine volunteers returned consent and assent forms, I selected them as focal students; however, ultimately seven participants were included in the case because two of the volunteers had absences that prevented them from full participation in the four Events. All seven participants were white, and six were girls. Jean-Pierre was the only boy.

Lexile Scores and Recognizable WL Word Count

The participants in the case that is the focus of this study were typical of most of the WL students I have taught over the years in at least one way: they were proficient readers of English. World Language courses often fall into the College Prep academic classification (MSDE, 2018). It is not universally true, but the expectation for WL students before beginning a new language is that they have strong reading skills in

English. In fact, these participants achieved above average Lexile Global Reading Scores between 1310 and 1555 on the measure they took in 9th grade. According to the MetaMetrics website (2021), a score below 400 is a Beginning Reader, and a score over 1825 is an advanced reader. The text demands of typical reading materials for 11th and 12th grade fall in the 1185 to 1385 band, below the scores of these participants. Nevertheless, though these participants have very good reading comprehension skills in English, they still needed to work very hard to comprehend authentic WL texts. Table 1 shows the Global Scholar Performance Series Reading standardized test Lexile score and performance range for the seven participants.

Table 1

Participant Data Including Reading Lexile Scores, Spring 2021

Participant	Age	Grade	Lexile Score	Performance Range
Alice	15	9	1345	Above Average
Amélie	15	10	1400	Above Average
Chantal	15	9	1475	Above Average
Inès	15	10	1310	Above Average
Jean-Pierre	16	10	1555	Above Average
Natalie	15	10	1510	Above Average
Simone	15	10	1305	Above Average

The WL curriculum in our school system focuses around six chapters of a commercial textbook in each course; students are exposed to roughly 150 lexical items in each chapter in the material they are expected to cover. This vocabulary is curated by textbook editors and constrained to selected topics. Over the two previous courses

students took before beginning French 3, they should have been exposed to about 1800 words or phrases, plus some incidental language to which they would have been exposed through movies, videos, music, and me or another teacher in classroom dialogue. However, this is far short of the 10,000 words Grabe (2009) suggests are necessary for proficiency in a second language.

Participant Profiles

The participants self-selected pseudonyms for the study.

Alice

Alice took two French classes in her freshman year, French II in the fall and French III in the spring. She was a virtual student for the entire school year, so I did not ever have her sitting in my classroom. Instead, she presented herself every day on camera and had a large wall hanging designed with a mandala behind her. She is a dancer who is active in our town's local dance company and likes reading and cooking. She is creative and likes to analyze people and deeper meanings, and is an open, friendly girl. She is completely undecided about what she would like to do in her academic future but had a clear idea about what she would do if the pandemic suddenly ended:

> I keep thinking about this a lot and I think I might just go to a cute little town, just me with other people. I don't want to go to an island anywhere. I wouldn't want to go to like a cute little cabin camping. I just want to go and be with people and look at people's faces, because it's going to feel weird. I think that's what we've been missing-- just seeing other people's faces. So that's what I would do.

Amélie

This was the third class in which I had taught Amélie, and I had taught her older brother through French 4 as well. I had met her parents in school and professional settings and had a warm connection with them. Amélie was a sophomore during the study, growing in her confidence. She expressed herself easily in groups and took the lead in discussions to move them along. She played on the school tennis team. She described why school was important to her:

> I like music and reading and that's probably helped me a lot with school too, just because I enjoy, you know, um, I enjoy learning, in general…Obviously there's some negative experiences sometimes, but generally I think school's just a great way to kind of figure out how to grow up… My attitude (about school) is to kind of realize this is how I learn how to become an adult. So I've, I've tried to keep a very positive attitude in class and staying motivated and productive.

Chantal

Chantal is another dancer who was in my French II class in the fall of 2020 and French III in the spring as a ninth grader. Outside school, she spent long hours in the dance studio and was part of the school's dance line that performed at football half-times and in competitions. She selected French as her WL because her uncle married a French woman, and she would like to be able to speak French with her two young cousins. Chantal laughed a lot, ended many of her statements with a rising intonation, and was dramatically expressive in her think-alouds and class contributions. Chantal's personality is evident in this snippet from her first think-aloud, which she was recording as I gave some oral instructions to the whole class:

Chantal: Um, this thing symbolizes the change of the status of the *jeune* young, young girl, *à l'honneur,* to a woman?? I, um, maybe, um, (laughs) I think it might be saying something about that!

Um, I lost my train of thought there for a second, but I think that this might be saying bachelorette party, or now, apparently that it's changing her from a woman, or from a girl to a woman? Maybe! Um, then it says something about like inviting everyone, like the people who are invited go to, uh, the parents' house maybe?...

Teacher's voice: When you guys finish your think-alouds, you can move into breakout rooms…

Chantal: I am not done yet, Madame.

Teacher's voice: …another set of directions for the group discussion.

Chantal: Okay. All right. To continue! (chuckle)…

Teacher: (inaudible)

Chantal: I'm not quite done talking about this! Um, um, and then it talks about symbolism, and I don't know too much about this paragraph in all honesty, but that's kind of what I got from this. Um, I hope this is okay!! I'm gonna join my breakout room right now.

I was continually struck by her indominable good spirit and sunny smile.

Inès

Inès was one of the quieter students in the class who shone in her think-alouds and whose written submissions revealed her to be a deep thinker. She was the one participant who independently connected a novel that she had read in her English class, *A Thousand Splendid Suns* (Hosseini, 2007) thematically with the polygamy passage in

Event 2. She played lacrosse and soccer on the school teams, was interested in studying medicine or science eventually at the university level and especially wanted to visit the Galapagos Islands. She described herself as "passionate" about work that she cared about, and told me about one of her passions:

> I like to bake a lot. I like making French pastries…I really wanted to make éclairs from pastry dough, but, um, I made cream puffs with like the, what is it? like *pâte á choux*? That was fun. You make the pastry yourself. Yeah…It was definitely fun to do. I, like, I like took a whole day to do it because I wanted to get it right. And …I was surprised. I thought they were going to like fail, but they actually turned out right!

Jean-Pierre

Jean-Pierre was not the only boy in the class, but he was the only boy who agreed to be a participant in the study. He was a serious ice-hockey player and a logical thinker whose main interests were in math and science, and whose college goal was to go to the Air Force Academy and ultimately serve in the military as a pilot. Jean-Pierre, along with Amélie and Natalie, had been my student for both previous French courses. He told me had chosen French over Spanish as his WL because he felt that a 9th grade French I course would have fewer and more serious students than a Spanish I class would have. (His middle school offered many sections of Spanish and so many of his friends had already taken their level one WL course by the time they entered high school.) His father had taken French and Jean-Pierre thought he would get some study help if need be. In his third French class though, Jean-Pierre was becoming a little frustrated with the lack of one-to-one correspondence between French and English words; figuring out the meaning

of “metaphors” and “deciphering” literary pieces did not interest him much. At one point in the semester, he told me he was struggling with procrastination and that possibly the pandemic “made it harder for me to keep myself accountable.” It is clear in his data that sometimes he was more focused than others. However, he was a great sport. He told me a bit begrudgingly that although reading in French was not exactly fun, he felt pretty good about doing it.

> Well, I would certainly prefer English over French, but, um, I don't, I mean, as long as the story is good and it's not, uh, and most of the meanings from the sentences are more literal than figurative, I think I (don’t) have too much trouble or (I’m not) too frustrated by it…Um, I wouldn't say they're my favorite thing…(but) I guess it is pretty satisfying.

Speaking of how he would describe our French III class to an outsider, he compared French to a math class with “one and done” answers:

> I guess it can certainly be challenging at times. So if you don't like challenges, I wouldn't recommend it to anybody. Um, and if you're easily frustrated, cause a lot of the times it might not necessarily be really challenging to learn, but it's not like one and done...Like it might be easier (than other classes), but (the length of the reading is) kind of tedious to some point.

Natalie

Natalie had also been in my French class from French I as a freshman. She and Amélie were very good friends and spent a lot of their free time together, and they both played on the tennis team. Natalie was creative and excelled in art classes. She earned her Girl Scout Gold Award with a literacy project in which she organized and created a free-

share library drop box system for our town. She was a fan of true crime novels and solving mysteries. Usually quiet in class and using a soft voice, Natalie made thoughtful contributions to class discourse and thoroughly explicated the reading. She told me that she liked discussion groups in our class because everyone was motivated to contribute, "so that just gives me more reason to participate. But in other classes it's just kind of like I don't want to participate cause nobody else seems to contribute that much."

Simone

I had met Simone's mother in a professional capacity when Simone was still in middle school, and her mother told me several times that Simone and her friends were very excited to continue studying French in high school. Simone described herself as a lover of reading and snowboarding, and as a "very like friend-orientated (sic) person." She had taken French II in the spring of her freshman year and was a sophomore during the study. She remained a fully virtual student for the entire school year. I found Simone to be quite adept at expressing her metacognition, and it was a pleasure to interview her or listen to her think-alouds because they were particularly rich in showing how she enacted her literacy. She told me that she chose French as her WL because "I've always envied the language. I thought it's beautiful. Elegant, pretty. I've always wanted to go to France or Europe…I just had more ambition for it than I did any other language." She described our class as

> a very tight community. Really. There's not like that much room to be like, "Oh my gosh, I'm so scared to like, say things" …there's a very small amount of us. And I would say that we do a lot of like step-by-step comprehension. Like we make sure that everybody gets it before we move on and we try to like to

communicate with each other as much as we can, as much as people will allow themselves to.

Data Collection

Following the Ruddell and Unrau model of reading comprehension (2013), I collected data from the readers, the teacher, and the texts for each literacy Event.

Reader Data

Independent Reading and Think-Aloud Recording

Participants read the selection, and then immediately used their smart phones or school-supplied Chromebooks to record a think-aloud procedure in English. Think-aloud procedures (Harp, 2006) provide windows to metacognitive processes and allow the researcher to probe for deeper insight. The participants were guided by a set of questions I provided to focus their attention on both the extensive and reflexive modes (Gebhard & Harman, 2011); in other words, what the passage says and also what they were thinking about as they discerned that meaning. This step allowed each participant to independently identify several ideas before meeting in the collaborative discussion group, ensuring that they would have something to contribute to the discussion. The think-aloud guidance is included as Appendix E.

Recorded Group Collaboration

The small group discussion in English referencing the French text was meant to be video recorded through WeVideo or in breakout rooms on Google Meet, both of which were approved platforms for virtual instruction through the school system and met

the system's privacy and security requirements. The purpose of video recording this step was to help with clarity in my later transcription of the conversation. Some students were present with me physically in the classroom for each discussion day, but all the groups met by Google Meet to include those attending virtually. There were technical problems with the recordings for the first two Events as we struggled to find the best way to adequately record everyone's voice. The situation required revised thinking about the best ways to record, until the media specialist at our school helped me devise a way to gather and record each individual small group in the media center.

Group discussion centered around answering comprehension questions that were specific to each work of literature, and the length of time spent in collaboration differed depending on each work. Students selected group roles to move the task efficiently to completion and work together to develop meaning. Collaborative work serves to harness the dynamic of peer group collaboration and give authority to students in the classroom (Duke, Pearson, Strachan & Billman, 2011; Ruddell & Unrau, 2013). O'Conner and Michaels (1996) offer a participant framework to "illuminate…a level of strategic joint activity" and "multiple and shifting roles available to students constructing, co-constructing, and displaying meaning" (p. 98). Directions for the group collaboration are in Appendix F.

Written Answers to Comprehension Questions

Participants answered a list of objective questions designed to ascertain their understanding of the conventional meaning of the passage they read. The number of questions for each passage varied according to its length, and the questions and answers were in French. Though as a constructionist I am convinced that meaning is socially

negotiated and I have designed the study to incorporate collaboration, there are constraints on what interpretations constitute "warranted assertibility" (Rosenblatt, 1938/1976, as cited in Ruddell and Unrau, 2013, p. 1050). That is, there are conventionally agreed-upon meanings for the words and sentences, and readers should find some degree of fidelity with what the author intended when they construct their comprehension. Particularly in a world language class, the ultimate authority in determining the meaning to which the text refers falls to more accomplished speakers of the language. In this case, the conventional meaning of the passage were determined by the editors writing the teacher's edition, or me as the classroom teacher. However, in order to observe reader construction of meaning, the participants did not receive individual feedback on their answers to the comprehension questions until after their summaries were completed.

Written Summaries of Comprehension

After the group deliberation and submission of the answered comprehension questions, each participant wrote an independent summary of their comprehension of the passage in the language of their choice. This data source was meant to allow readers to focus on whatever elements of the passage were meaningful to them, and to showcase whatever they elicited from the text, especially if the textbook questions did not access what the participants discerned. (Appendix I)

Individual Written Self-Reflection

Participants also completed individual reflections in the language of their choice in which they considered how the various elements of the literacy Event helped them construct meaning about the passage. The reflection guidelines asked participants to

consider their own thinking processes and focus on which elements of the text were useful in their comprehending processes. Students completed this reflection as homework the concluding day of the Event.

Whole Group Discussion

As a bookend to the teacher-provided scaffolding at the beginning of the literacy Event, we ended in a whole group discussion. All students in the class, including but not limited to the study participants, shared their ideas. I facilitated the discussion and gave "clues" as the students called them, to encourage students to discover main ideas that were still unmentioned. Discussion often drew upon the plot to discuss characterization or themes of the work as it would in an English class. For two Events this instruction was recorded and transcribed; for the last two Events, teacher plans and memos capture the ideas.

Semi-Structured Interviews

Finally, to confirm or disconfirm early analyses and to probe for deeper insights, I interviewed (Seidman, 2019) each participant at least two times, at the conclusion of the second literacy Event, and after the conclusion of the fourth. Both times, I used a semi-structured format to elicit deeper reflections from the participants about the data collected from the think-aloud, group discussion, reading summary, and self-reflection activities. The semi-structured interview questions are in Appendix J. Hoping to keep the interviews from getting stale and eliciting predictable answers, I only conducted the interviews two times for the entire group of focal participants. Table 2 displays all data sources collected from the practitioner researcher and the readers.

Table 2

Data Collection Matrix.

Source	Type of data	Language	Occurrence/ Total #	Mode/ artifacts
Teacher	Lesson plan	English	Before 4	Written
	Scaffolding discussion	French + English	During literacy event 4	Audio recorded
	Whole group discussion	French + English	During 4	Audio recorded
	Personal reflection	English	On-going	Written
	Feedback on student submissions	French + English	After event	Written
Readers	Think-aloud	English	During 4	Audio-recorded
	Small group discussion	French + English	During 4	Video recorded
	Comprehension questions	French	During 4	Written
	Summary/ retelling	English	During 4	Written
	Whole group discussion	French + English	During 4	Audio recorded
	Personal reflection	French or English	Homework 4	Written
	Semi-structured Interviews	English	Week following 2	Audio recorded

Teacher and Text Data

Teacher Data

I collected five different types of written and audio teacher data for each literacy Event. These began with the written learning objectives for each literacy Event and the

corresponding teacher lesson plans and any revisions noted (Cochran-Smith & Donnell, 2006). I audio recorded whole group instruction of anticipatory discussion to access relevant schema and a closing summative discussion and maintained an on-going written reflective journal. Finally, I collected feedback left on the focal students' submissions.

As the observer of the small group collaboration, I kept descriptive and reflective notes gathered during the literacy Events. Guided by an observational protocol (Cresswell &Poth, 2018) to focus my attention and prompt my thinking in each Event, I observed the readers' processes and the ways noted ways I was a factor in their meaning-making process and sought to notice how my own affective and cognitive conditions (Ruddell & Unrau, 2013) impacted the comprehending processes for each of the four literacy Events. Guiding questions for the observation protocol are included as Appendix G, which also includes prompts for noting context of the learning environment, as described below.

Texts and Context of the Learning Environment

Data concerning the texts included the reading passages themselves and supplemental text as published in the various books, as well as photos, illustrations, and other graphic data in the sources. According to Ruddell and Unrau (2013), classroom context is broad. It consists of the learning environment, including physical classroom structure as well as the classroom structure for instruction and assessment of learning; assigned tasks and procedures, and how voice and authority are distributed. It significantly includes the accepted meaning-negotiation process and the ways that the teacher and students interact with texts in the forms of Events, behavioral scripts, and situations that require interpretation "to shape—and reshape—meaning" (p. 1049). I

captured and described these data through field notes. As an observer of my own classroom, I depended on the reader interviews and reflections to provide perspective.

Data Storage

Organization and Storage

Organization and storage of large amounts of qualitative data was essential to ultimately being able to locate specific data for analysis (Merriam& Tisdell, 2016). I uploaded transcribed participant think-aloud data, classroom discourse data, and semi-structured interview data to NVivo for management, and added written participant, text, and teacher data. NVivo is a software CAQDAS program that organizes large amounts of qualitative data and assists with concept mapping of eventual parent and child nodes (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016).

Transcription of Recorded Data

I used the automatic transcription service Temi to initially transcribe audio and video recordings from the think-aloud, interview, and collaboration data (Saldaña, 2016). Temi provided a valuable first draft of a transcription. It was necessary, however, to subsequently carefully review the transcription while listening to the audio and video recordings to verify and revise the initial transcriptions. I uploaded and reviewed the data as soon as possible after it was recorded; in this way, I was able to begin analysis immediately, and captured those thoughts in analytic memos. The review of data suggested changes to my lesson plans for the upcoming Events and allowed me to determine additional lines of inquiry for participant interviews.

Data Analysis

In their model of reading, Ruddell and Unrau categorize the process in terms of affective and cognitive conditions based on Prior Knowledge; Knowledge Use and Control; and Text and Classroom Context. Because I hoped to investigate the fit of their model for WL reading, I used apriori categories for initial data analysis. I first describe these data in Ruddell and Unrau's terms, and as they specifically applied to my study of the WL class.

Prior Knowledge: Affective Conditions

Ruddell and Unrau's (2013) affective conditions for readers include their attitudes toward the content of the text and the classroom, their stance about reading in L2, and sociocultural values and beliefs based on prior knowledge. For the teacher, these data are similar, but also include motivation to engage students and perspective on instructional organization. I captured affective data through analysis of the reflection pieces by readers and the teacher, and transcriptions of dialogic interaction, think-alouds, and interviews (Florio-Ruane & Morrell, 2011; Harp 2006; Seidman, 2019). Prior Knowledge-Affective codes captured participants' feelings about reading and about their ability to ultimately make sense of the reading based on prior experience. For example, Amélie told me,

> Since I had read other passages before, I knew like usually the way that this goes is like, I have no idea what it means at first. And then like, I let it kind of sink in for a day. And then you just, you work on it day by day and it slowly becomes less frustrating as you spend more time thinking about it. Um, but it just takes time.

This statement describes that way that her prior experience in L2 reading prepared her to experience initial frustration as she grapples with a challenging text, and confidence that with effort over time, she can make meaning.

Prior Knowledge: Cognitive Conditions

Cognitive conditions for the reader include declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge, metalinguistic knowledge of both L1 and L2, word recognition, metacognitive strategies, knowledge of classroom interactions, and personal and world knowledge. These were documented through transcripts of talk and written evaluations, as well as participants' answers to objective questions about the content of the readings, retellings/summaries of the texts, and interviews (Adger & Wright, 2018; Au, 2012; Erickson, 1996; Harp, 2006; Hicks, 1996; Florio-Ruane & Morrell, 2011; Macaro, 2009; Seidman, 2019). The teacher's cognitive conditions include the same types of data, with the addition of knowledge of the reading process, content area, and teaching strategies. These data were captured in lesson plans, transcripts of recorded instruction, reflection notes. (Cochran-Smith & Donnell, 2006).

Knowledge Use and Control

For both readers and the teacher, Ruddell and Unrau (2013) define three main aspects of knowledge use and control: the knowledge construction process, the executive and monitor, and a representation of either the text or instruction. These data include the ways that readers and the teacher organized and planned how they would accomplish the tasks of comprehending, and how they allocated their time and attention to do so. In my study, evidence of knowledge use and control was collected through analysis of their reported metacognition for aspects such as strategy choices and meaning negotiation

among the readers. They also captured changes evident in comprehension from initial think-alouds to final summaries and interviews and reflective writing. For the teacher component, the data included, for example, restructuring of lesson plans.

Text and Classroom Context

These data revealed how participants viewed the interacting variables of text, teacher, and peers in the reading process, and the meaning negotiation process. For example, participants frequently alluded to the large number of unknown words they encountered in the texts, and to peer discussion as useful to figuring out what an unknown passage might mean. Participant evaluations of each Event and interviews included rich sources of data for this component of the model.

As we moved through the four literacy Events, I conducted on-going data analysis, and began immediately with transcription of the audio data and examining the submitted classwork. After three rounds of first cycle coding, I used second cycle pattern coding to tease out emerging themes (Cresswell, 2014; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016).

Analytic Memos

Throughout my analysis of each Event, I kept a detailed notebook of analytic memos as part of an audit trail (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016; Saldaña, 2016). These memos of my thoughts, impressions, hunches, and questions were captured immediately after each analysis session and usually had a section I called Big Take-Aways. The questions or thoughts suggested in the memos as I initially analyzed the written data from each participant generated individualized questions for the semi-structured interviews to be conducted after the second and last Events.

Coding

Coding is a heuristic, a cyclical act of discovery breaking apart and summarizing data, finding salient qualities, looking for similarities, and uncovering complications (Saldaña, 2016). It both proposes a direction and finds exceptions. Locke, Feldman, and Golden-Bidle describe coding as a "malleable process" (Saldaña, 2016, p. 9). This process is fluid and dynamic, and moves from coding to consolidated categorization, to deep reflection on emergent patterns, to another level of coding and re-categorization in search of themes that capture the essence of the data.

First Cycle

I began first cycle coding with a priori codes (Saldaña, 2016) from the Ruddell and Unrau (2013) interactive model of classroom reading integrating the reiterative processes of reader, teacher, and classroom context. The model describes first language reading processes, and to answer my research question about whether WL students engage their L1 strategies I used a priori coding from the model with parent codes from each of the main components and child codes for specific elements as defined by Ruddell and Unrau. These codes focused attention on the ways that the participants were evidencing or enacting affective or cognitive conditions, knowledge use and control, or executive and monitoring.

During first cycle coding, it became clear to me, however, that participants used strategies that were not described as components of the R&U model. I teased out these strategies through in-vivo coding. In-vivo is a qualitative method of coding that analyzes the verbatim voice of participants, with focus centered on

understanding how the participant captures of the meaning of their experience through particular word choices (Saldana, 2016). They included *visualize* to capture the ways that readers talked about being about being able to see what the reading was about, whether on the page or in their imaginations. *Piece it together* was the code for the way they expressed breaking sentence elements apart and then fitting together chunks of text to make meaning, and *heard,* which captured comments that largely concerned pragmatic meanings that were clarified by hearing the more knowledgeable reader's voice.

Finally, I conducted a third round of coding to reveal how the participants related various strategies to their comprehension process. Causation coding (Saldaña, 2016) noted the way participants linked a stated cause to its effect on their thinking and/or the comprehension outcome. For example, here are two examples from Natalie's data. I have added codes in parentheses.

1) We looked for cognates (cause) around words we didn't know (link) and used those as context to help figure things out (outcome).
2) I think the pre-reading about fairy tales was mainly helpful at the very beginning of reading my story (cause). This helped me think about the basic elements that might show up, so that I knew to look for those (link) and was able to recognize the words easier (outcome).

Second Cycle Coding

In the second cycle, I winnowed the data using pattern coding (Saldaña, 2016) to group the codes from the initial cycle to into a smaller number of categories. I searched for commonalities or connections, capturing them as emerging themes.

The final step I undertook was a codeweaving heuristic (Saldaña, 2016) to capture recurrent themes across all seven participants and all four literacy Events to illustrate how the "puzzle pieces fit together" (Saldaña, 2016, p. 276). This allowed me to generate findings that potentially transcend my particular study and might be considered analytically generalizable (Yin, 2012).

Trustworthiness

Validation and reliability in qualitative research are evolving concepts as researchers and scholars distinguish similar terms between quantitative and qualitative studies. For qualitative researchers, trustworthiness, validity, and generalizability may be conceptualized differently than in quantitative studies (Cresswell & Poth, 2018; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016; Shulman, 2000; Yin, 2012). Trustworthiness for qualitative studies was classically established by Lincoln and Guba in 1985 as *dependability, confirmability, reliability, and transferability* (Cresswell & Poth, 2018; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Cresswell and Poth (2018) more recently suggest it is defined by a thoroughly described process of "extensive field time, thick description, and closeness of the researcher to participants" (p. 255). In the end, a qualitative study is considered trustworthy if the researcher establishes consistency among theory, methodology, and analysis (Dressman, 2007), and a clear audit trail of diverse data and transparent positionality so that other scholars may determine that "the results are consistent with the data collected" (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 251).

I followed several validation strategies to support the rigor of my study (Cresswell & Poth, 2018). I envisioned validation from three perspectives: those related to my

positions as an observer of these classroom Events and as the insider teacher/participant, and that of the perspective of the reader of the study.

Observer Validation Strategies

I address trustworthiness through triangulation of multiple data sources for multiple literacy Events: varied types of texts for reading; both authentic language and edited textbook passages; use of multiple sources of data from readers, the teacher, the text, and the context of the classroom; and multiple modes of data. Robust triangulation strengthens emergent findings (Cresswell & Poth, 2018; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Another strategy is to engage in intentional reflexivity, which served to illuminate my orientations and the past experiences shaping my analysis (Cresswell & Poth, 2018; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). I strove to stay open to negative cases and search for disconfirming data (Yinn, 2012) to aid in confirming ultimate my findings.

Insider Participant Validation Strategies

Acknowledging my role as a practitioner researcher, I own my biases and my relationship with the participants as their teacher. My understanding of the complex nature of these participants' learning processes in this classroom setting of which I am a part (Lichtman, 2013, as cited in Merriam & Tisdell, 2016) and the extended level of previous collaboration and relationship between the focal students and me supported both an adequate engagement in the collection of data and the ability to create an especially thick, rich description of the classroom (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Additionally, because the study included only normal class activities, the readers' high level of comfort with activities as normal procedure provided the opportunity to observe a real-life problem being addressed in a real-life context (Cresswell, 2014).

I employed member-checks (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016) in the two semi-structured interviews (Seidman, 2019) for each participant to check whether my interpretations of their data are plausible and by sharing my findings with the participants for confirmation that I had understood their thinking. I took advantage of peer review and examination provided by my research mentors (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016) who made sure I was consistently applying rigor to on-going analysis of data and multiple levels of coding over the entire study period.

Enabling the Reader to Gauge Validity

Finally, to enable my readers to follow my data and findings and therefore provide transferability, I created an audit trail to account for the "methods, procedures, and decision points in carrying out the study" (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 259). I relied on research mentors to be an external check on my analysis and findings (Cresswell & Poth, 2018), and I have created an account that is detailed enough to let others ascertain whether my findings might be pertinent in their own contexts.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

My students and I explored four different genres of authentic French reading passages, and I wanted to examine how these emergent bilingual readers made sense of those passages. To review, my research questions were: How do high school students in a WL classroom construct meaning when reading a text in the target language? In what ways do students use their first language literacy knowledge as a tool to influence the development of reading comprehension? In what ways does the WL classroom community influence the development of reading comprehension?

My analysis of the data revealed four findings:

- WL readers actively build lexicon while reading.
- WL readers build layers of enhanced comprehension through repeated engagement.
- WL readers depend on interaction within the community to strengthen their comprehension.
- WL readers engage all their L1 strategies to build meaning, but it is not sufficient.

I now turn to explore each of these findings.

Finding 1: WL Readers Actively Build Lexicon While Reading

The first observation I noted about the process of making meaning for these participants was how few words in the authentic text they really knew. Even if I knew they had been exposed to a word or morphemic structure in a previous class, this exposure did not necessarily guarantee they could access the word's meaning when they encountered it in the text. Often, as I listened to their initial think-aloud recordings, it felt as though they were swimming in the text, looking for anything firm to grab on to. In L1, most words encountered are familiar, and the unknown or new word is the exception

readers can figure out through context clues. By contrast, in the L2, readers often need to unlock a sentence's meaning from a single known word, which may then reveal the meaning of previous sentences.

There were three different processes evident as these participants identified the meaning of single lexical elements. These were the recognition of cognates, focus on key words, and translation from another source.

Cognates

Identifying cognates, which are words that look similar and mean the same thing in more than one language, is a reading strategy I have specifically taught in my classes, and in this class predicting possible meaning from cognates is part of the classroom discourse. Some words are obvious matches to L1 words. In her think-aloud for Event 1 blog about the henna ceremony, Alice recognized several clear cognates:

> …in the first paragraph when it was talking about the history, like, um, *orientation, cérémonie, henné* (obviously) *positioné, origins, généralement, cérémonie,* (I already said that), that, um, (laughs) there is a lot of cognates and that helped me a lot.

In Event 2, the polygamy passage, Natalie noticed the cognate *pardonne* and shows how she extended the meaning of the cognate to unlock a much larger chunk of meaning: "It says *je lui pardonne*, which I'm guessing means that she pardoned him, which might be like she forgave him, which means that he was probably, he did something wrong."

However, recognizing cognates is also a metacognitive skill that participants can develop to find meaning. To successfully apply the skill, readers must be taught to recognize orthographic, phonetic, syntactic, and lexical elements of cognates to see the

connection to words in L1. Metalinguistic awareness makes it easier to see cognates like *piété* (piety) and *conclut* (concludes) in the *Lettre*; *l'autorité* (authority) and *durant* (during) in *Le Petit Prince* for example.

In her Event 1 think-aloud, Chantal easily saw the meaning of *traditions, cérémonie de henné, ritual, invitent,* and *parents* as cognates. But as she talks through her thinking in a later excerpt, she encounters a word requiring more consideration.

> Oh, wait. No that's saying, um, I just noticed something. It says, uh, *le changement, changer, changement, changer du statut de la jeune fille d'honneur*. So I think that's saying, uh, … this thing symbolizes the change of the status of the *jeune* young, young girl…

Here, Chantal demonstrates metacognitive thinking; while she recognizes this has something to do with change, she is working through a noun form (*le changement),* and a verb form (*changer)* and then considers the entire verb phrase (*changer du statut de la jeune fille d'honneur*). Her summary conclusion accesses cognates for change and status, and then she correctly translates the words *de la jeune fille* for "of the young girl" to make an appropriate sentence.

In her think-aloud for the polygamy excerpt, Inès used the cognates *Coran* (Qur'an) and *pieuse* (pious) along with an entry in the glossary for prayer beads to make sense of the passage.

Later in her evaluation of the Event, she showed how she used another cognate (*contraire*) to correctly flip the meaning of a proposition the group had already agreed on.

> I think, um, Tamsir was speaking to the widow and he was kind of saying, it's usually the younger brother who inherits the wife. And so I think my group then

> thought (he) was the younger brother, but I saw that the sentence after it was like, like, um, I like used a cognate and realized that it said this is like the contrary, and I think he might be the older brother.

Similarly in Event 4, *Le Petit Prince*, there are several examples of participants using cognates in the think-alouds to make meaning of the passage. For example, Chantal unlocked the meaning of a paragraph when she noticed two cognates:

> It really helped was knowing what, um, uh, where is it? *ordonne*, an order, meant, because that's basically what this whole thing's about, orders…The order has to be "reasonable" (*raisonable*) or something like that. Um, and so that helps because I think the King is saying like all of his orders need to be reasonable or it's his fault that they can't be (followed)? I think that's kind of what's going on?

She connected the two cognates and extended the meaning to correctly comprehend the paragraph.

Misfires. Occasionally, though, the cognate strategy backfired. For example, Natalie was confused by the false cognate *coin*, which really meant the Valiant Little Tailor was hiding in a corner, not on a coin. Amélie expressed confusion of a passage describing the king's robe as made of *hermine;* besides not recognizing the phonetically similar cognate, when Amelie looked it up and found the translation as "ermine," she still did not know it is the white fur in which a king's robe might be trimmed.

In summary, I noticed nearly all the named and overt use of the cognate strategy happened during the think-aloud portions of the Events and was rarely employed in the later stages of the process. It seems to be the most efficient initial strategy to build

meaning quickly when the readers are working independently. In her second interview, Amelie explained this to me.

> Uh, usually the first thing that I always do is look for cognates. I always look for cognates whenever I'm reading. That's the first thing I always do because it's what I can kind of rely on in any story. There's probably going to be cognates in there in most sentences. So that's what I do first.

Key Words

Once they have identified cognates, the participants still need to find ways to make meaning from words they do not know. Another strategy they employed was to search for what they assumed to be key words, and to use them as building blocks. How they judged what words were "key" involved a combination of intuition about what seemed important, connection to the whole-class pre-reading scaffolding, and noticing page illustrations and text features that gave them clues.

Intuition. In some instances, participants relied on amorphous feelings to identify key words. It might be one they simply recognized, was repeated in a passage, or seemed to be an action word. Inès said, "I would look for a word that I understood and that I could kind of piece it together …(and) kind of get a vague understanding of each sentence." Jean-Pierre said that if a word was used multiple times in a passage, he thought it might be important. When I asked Alice how she determined what the key words might be, she said she looked at "what's happening rather than small details… to make sense of the bigger picture."

Simone and Natalie looked for connection in the surrounding text. Simone referred to this designation of key words as "signaling" on a word that seemed like it

might lead to further understanding. “How does that [word] relate to anything that I've read? Like how would that play into this?” Natalie explained how she proceeded from a single key word: “I look at the sentences around it… or look at what, like actions were happening that I knew. And then I would try and like piece it together with how that word fits with everything else, like how it matches up.”

Scaffolding. At the beginning of each event, I designed whole-group discussion around the topics to be encountered in the reading. This pre-reading instruction was meant to provide or activate prior cognitive and affective knowledge to serve as scaffolding for the content of the reading. For Event 1, the henna blog, the scaffolding included a personal story and a number of photographs of the henna ritual I had taken during a wedding I attended in Morocco. During the think-alouds, students demonstrated connections between the pre-reading and the text meaning. Talking about the wedding photos, Alice said,

> That was very helpful to me…There were words that you said that, um, were in the passage …the things about the dates and the fruits. I don't think I would have understood what that was saying like, if you didn't say, like, we ate this at the wedding.

In her evaluation, Natalie explained her small group “recognized a lot of words and ideas” from the scaffolding. “It really helped to see a visual representation of everything, then apply that to the reading.”

For Event 3, the fairy tales, scaffolding included direct instruction on lexical items and genre conventions typical of fairy tales, including elements like “Once upon a time” and magical events. Several participants indicated in their think-alouds or interviews they

found scaffolding for genre conventions useful because they were prepared for genre-specific vocabulary items they encountered. In her initial think aloud Alice said, “I used a lot of my vocabulary (from scaffolding) and that really helped me with like the magic ball, the evil fairy, and the true love's kiss.” Amélie and Alice talked about relying on the class notes they had taken, and Inès said she had taken a photo of the example-filled whiteboard in the classroom to which she referred to while making meaning. Amélie was prepared for something other than a happy ending: “Cause I know this is a Brothers Grimm story, so there has to be some kind of like dark twist to it.”

Text features and illustrations. Event 2, the polygamy story, was a passage reprinted in the course textbook from Mariama Bâ’s work *Une Si Longue Lettre* (Such a Long Letter, 1979). Text features on the double-page spread in the textbook included comprehension questions written in French and printed on arrow-shaped graphics pointing to the paragraph in which the answer could be found. I asked Amélie whether she saw a difference in placement of comprehension questions at the end of the passage or printed in the arrows along the page margin. She answered:

> I probably liked (the arrow) format more just because, like, it would ask questions along the way. So, I would read something and then it would ask a question about that instead of reading the whole thing and then having a list of questions and having to go back and find where the answer might be.

She also astutely commented that the questions so-placed likely addressed the main idea of the paragraph.

When I asked Alice if the text features helped her make meaning, she addressed the value of the short author biography accompanying the passage.

> Reading the background of the author's story on the widow thing. I think it was in yellow…I thought that was very helpful. Cause …you already know what the passage is going to be about. You already know the narrator or the author's, like, thoughts on it. Um, and it said that she was a feminist, and she was against polygamy. So I already knew that in the story that the woman was going to be against the marriage.

Jean-Pierre and Inès admitted they had skipped initially reading the text features accompanying the polygamy story, and then decided they would benefit from going back to read them. Jean-Pierre initially avoided them because they were in L2 and said he would have been more "intrigued" to read them had they been in English. Inès said,

> I kind of, when I read through the passage, I kind of didn't have a really good understanding. When I read through it again, I decided to read what was on the page [two text features about "the author of the passage and then gender roles in society] so I could kind of get a better understanding, and that was really helpful.

For Event 3, the particular edition of the fairy tales I supplied to the class had a sort of "cast list" of the characters in the story on the title page, with a picture of characters such as the stepsister, fairy, or prince. Chantal spoke for the several students who used the characters' pictures to follow the story. "I really liked how on the first page they had the pictures, um, with the names of all the characters. You can put a name to a face, and I found that really helpful."

The fairy tales in Event 3 had rich illustrations, which sometimes alerted participants to an idea they had not already discerned. I laughed when I listened to Simone's small group discussion. She confessed to the group her reaction as she finished

reading the story for the first time: “Then at the end, there was a picture of him in a castle, and I was like, ‘Wait! What?? I thought they were humble farmers!!’” This caused her to go back and read for further information about the turn of events she had missed. Similarly, Jean Pierre was initially perplexed by the illustration of a feast being prepared in his story, and he reread to find the missing plot point. Inès asked during her think-aloud, “Why is there an archer in this picture?” which sent her back to find the word *chasseur* (hunter).

Characterization. Participants also referenced the way that illustrations gave them character information that they did not pick up from the written text. Simone told her small group how she had made some discoveries about a character and his jealous motivation after her first reading of *Puss in Boots*:

> When…the youngest son, when he first got the cat, I didn't know how he felt about it, I guess. But then I looked at the picture and he was like, *not* happy about the cat. Like you could see like his facial expression.

There was only one illustration in Chapter X of *Le Petit Prince*. In her final interview, Alice and I were talking about how that illustration affected her comprehension. I asked her if she looked at it before or after reading, and she told me both.

> I looked at the picture first, but I didn't look too hard at it…It actually helped me later on because, uh…later after I'd read it, I looked back and I saw that the king was like crying and…I was like, "*That's* interesting". So I noticed that like he was upset after reading. He was like, lonely. And he was sad.

Noticing the tear on the King's face in a more careful examination of the illustration allowed her to access one of the central ideas of the chapter, which she had not registered before.

In her think-aloud, Amélie called the pictures on her story pages a "visual glossary" because they alerted her to meanings of the new words in the text like *gourmand, regaler, crustiant* (gourmand or gluttonous, to feast, crusty). She said,

> So just seeing like descriptive words like that, going along with food made me think that it was saying like the people were, um, kind of gluttonous and it also shows that in the picture here, which helped me figure it out, like the people walking around with all this steaming food and the smoke coming out of the houses.

She explained the more global use of the visual glossary metaphor to her small group this way: "It doesn't like say specific words, but by looking at the pictures, it might help you understand some of the sentences that you don't get." Her group responded with enthusiastic agreement.

In the process of finding key words from intuition, scaffolding, and text features, participants demonstrate an ability to locate words that provide anchor pieces for them to build on as they continue to construct meaning. They were able to use them to accurately predict the meaning of whole sentences and even paragraphs.

Translations and Making Meaning

Another way participants can affix meaning to an unknown lexical item is to look it up in a dictionary, online translation application, or a predetermined list of vocabulary items that has been provided to them by the teacher or textbook editors. Students often

consider the translation source authoritative, divulging “true” meanings, even though as Amelie said, she knows Google Translate is sometimes inaccurate. Nevertheless, “that's what I usually use for words. And I can get a general idea of what it's trying to tell me.” There are about a dozen French/English dictionaries in the class for students to use, but it takes students longer to find the word of interest than by using a translation app or locating it on the list of words provided in a glossary. Consequently, though they know dictionaries provide translations for multiple meanings of words, students use them less frequently than other resources.

Glossaries. A text feature I pull out separately to discuss is the glossary provided in Event 2, the polygamy passage, because of this feature’s direct application to translation. Printed directly under the passage on the page, the glossary provided translations for about a dozen lexical items. In previous reading in our textbooks, I have advised students the glossary provides words that the editors doubt the readers have previously encountered. While these may or may not be key words for comprehending the main points of the text, a glossary nonetheless can be helpful to readers. Amélie identified the glossary as “really helpful because it mentioned a lot of the harder words that I wouldn't have figured out without the glossary, because they weren’t cognates and they didn't match anything that we had learned.” She used it in this passage to detect the speaker’s point of view.

> In the very last paragraph, there was that one sentence, and a glossary [entry] about how Tamsir would “sit around like a lord” [*tu te prélasses en seigneur vénéré]* or something. And that helped me understand like, Oh, she really doesn't like this guy… Seeing that in the glossary…helped me get a better understanding.

In addition, as previously noted, she and other students determined the answer to the comprehension question about whether the woman in the story was pious by noticing the words for Quo'ran, mosque, and prayer beads in the glossary**.**

Misfires. This text-feature strategy misfired as well. For example, Jean-Pierre specifically said he initially used the glossary terms "to find out what was more important to the meaning of the text" when he constructed his meaning of the Event 2 polygamy passage. Consequently, he significantly based a story around just the glossary items, and it bore minimal similarity to the actual passage. The glossary entries did not correspond particularly to main ideas, and they were not key to the passage as Jean-Pierre had imagined.

Translations. For Event Three, students selected a children's fairy tale to read. The tales were longer and more complicated reading than the previous passages. Though the participants viewed them as "little children's stories" as Simone said, in fact they were written in a literary past tense the students had never encountered and had genre and general vocabulary with which they were inexperienced. As an additional level of support for constructing meaning, I added a step after the initial think-aloud, allowing them to look up translations of up to 25 select words from their story using a dictionary or online application. This represented about 4% of the words in the full text. Being constrained to a limited number of words forced the participants to exercise metalinguistic thoughtfulness as to which words to choose. Inès recounted her deliberation in the event evaluation. "I had to go through and I'm like, almost like ration my words. I had to really think like, okay, could this be a cognate? Do I know this word? Is it familiar to me in any way?"

Benefits of Translation. Most participants used the opportunity to look up key words to enhance their understanding of the plot of the story or which might answer a perplexing question they had about it. The affordance to translate resulted in an improved comprehension score for every participant's second re-telling, especially Chantal's, as shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Impact of Translation on Growing Comprehension in Event 3.

Participant	**TA 1**	**TA2**
Alice	5	7
Amélie	7	9
Chantal	4	9
Inès	4	8
Jean-Pierre	7	8
Natalie	7	8.5
Simone	3	5

Note: I scored each student's comprehension on a scale of 1 – 10 for re-tellings at two points in the Event: at initial think-aloud (TA1); after they looked up translations (TA 2); no intervening discussion occurred between TA 1 and TA 2. A 5 represented identification of all major points of the passage. Less than 5 indicates that major elements are missing, and above a 5 indicates characterization, description, and small detail. Final is the comprehension score after all activities in the Event.

In the following examples, participants specifically spoke about the outcome of selected translations on their comprehension. Chantal's second think-aloud after

translation demonstrates the way the words she chose, *tige* and *envie*, helped her. She read Jack and the Beanstalk.

> And then the second page, um, he couldn't resist the, um, I think, uh, *il a envie de grimper cette longue tige* (He wanted to climb this long stalk). Um, I looked up a couple of those words to find out that that sentence was, um, that he could not resist the, *envie,* I, uh, it said it was "urge".

From those two entries for *tige* (rod) and *envie* (urge), she built understanding that Jack "couldn't resist the urge to climb up the beanstalk." Though her initial think-aloud comprehension was weak, using carefully selected lexical items on each page of the story, she ultimately made good sense of it. For example, here are three examples as she read the wife's description of the Giant's behavior with children, the Giant's reaction when he smells a child, and the Giant's magical harp.

> It said "crunching", um, when I researched it… I didn't get that sentence at all before and now I understand that the guy eats kids; I didn't get before...Oh again, the, um, giant says the same expression of "there is a child here!"… Jack takes the instrument, but the harps actually like screams. I didn't know the word for "scream" until now, but now I do.

Simone, who read *Puss in Boots,* used translations to help her improve a low initial comprehension:

> In the end with the castle scene, I was really confused because there was a picture with the cat's boots and then a mouse. And I was kind of unsure where the mouse came into play, but I found that it's a shape-shifting ogre or troll that lived in the castle previously. And the cat outwitted the ogre into shape-shifting into a

> mouse…He then ate him and then took the castle for his master's benefit with the princess. So the translating definitely did help clear a lot of things up for me.

Natalie read *The Valiant Little Tailor,* with which she was previously totally unfamiliar. Her second think-aloud shows how she used the translation to make sure she was understanding the complete story. At the climax of her story, the Little Tailor (under a false identity) has married the princess. She learns the truth when

> the princess heard the tailor, like *rêver tout haut* which means dreaming aloud. So he was like talking in his sleep. And I guess he said that he's just a tailor…Her dad promises to get rid of the tailor, so he sends his troops, his soldiers in to surprise him, but the *écuiller,* which I looked up, and that meant a squire. So the squire warned the tailor.

Alice's second think-aloud after she looked up the 25 words demonstrates how she used those words to clarify and build additional meaning.

> (Now, here's) what I didn't really add the first time, which the words helped me…I didn't understand the first paragraph really at all, but now I do. Uh, it says once upon time, which we obviously knew before, but it "Once upon a time a King had three beautiful daughters, but the youngest daughter was so beautiful that the sun sometimes lingered in the sky in order to light up her face longer" … I didn't understand the sun staying around of the sky longer, um, that makes a lot more sense to me now...When it got hot, the daughter or the girl [which is the same word in French], liked to go to the fountain in the woods, like to cool off. I didn't get the cool off.

Limitations of Translation. Even with the help of a translation app, glossary, or dictionary translation, readers were still required to actively construct the meaning of sentences, and in this class, participants embraced reader-centered meaning. During the first interview, I asked participants if there would be a difference in their mind if I were to ask them to "translate" a passage rather than "make meaning" from it. They all saw some degree of difference. Translation was regarded as a mechanical process. For some, like Alice, it meant using the original word order resulting in funny English sentences with "adjectives after the nouns" for example, which was less preferable. Amélie refers to the fact that a translation app usually gives a single L1 word, which she calls the "direct translation," even though the L2 word might have multiple meanings:

> When someone uses words in their writing, they don't always use like the "direct" meaning of that word. If I'm just going to do a direct translation of something, it might not be the exact thing that the author intended it to mean.

For Inès, the difference was more theoretical and reader-responsive. She said:

> …cause I feel like with translating, it's kind of direct…When you kind of ask people their take on the passage… you can get different perspectives and everybody interprets it differently.

Inès was not alone in expressing the idea that the source of authority for deciding what the passage meant was widely distributed. Jean-Pierre said, "There was a fair bit of vocabulary that we didn't know… but through some ideas bounced around we made…assumption(s) that seemed to fit [the meanings we agreed on]."

Simone affirmed her understanding of the passages "grew through collaboration, assessing, and group thinking." In summary, even with the use of translation tools, the

reader community continued to actively transact with the texts, to build meaning beyond what the translations told them, sharing and talking through their personal interpretations of the passages to construct meaning.

Finding 2: WL Readers Build Layers of Comprehension Through Repeated Engagement

All participants reported repeatedly reading the passages to better comprehend. In some events, I specifically directed them to multiple readings, but it was clear from the think-alouds they were reading the passages multiple times even before recording their first think-alouds. I teach repeated listening or reading as one technique for increasing oral and written comprehension; I was happy to see that the participants had adopted the strategy and used it without prompting. Jean-Pierre explained his process for the Event 2 polygamy passage:

> My method was to read through the passage a couple of times and mark down what I knew, then I would check the glossary and other resources in the book and add to the list of things I knew.

Chantal apologized in her first fairy tale think-aloud that she had not quite read it often enough:

> For the most part, I could understand what the story was saying…I think I just need to keep reading it and reading it to just really get a good understanding of it. But since that was only my second or third time going through it, it wasn't great yet, so I'm sorry.

During the interviews I asked about repetition of reading, and if there were a difference in the amount of re-reading, they did in WL versus in their L1 reading. Inès told me:

> I use it [re-reading as a strategy] in my other classes, but probably not as much…When I'm reading in other classes, like probably for like science class, I'll reread it again because I'll probably be kind of confused, but for French, I definitely do it because I think when I read through it, I get a general understanding. And then the second time through, I can kind of search for details that helped me make like connections.

However, a pattern emerged demonstrating repeated engagement occurred not only through re-readings, but in oral and written summations, and in listening to someone else read or talk about the text. For this finding, I will consider how repetition through restating in oral or written modes seemed to help the participant focus on the details of reading comprehension, then examine how multimodal opportunities for re-engagement with the text impacted comprehension.

Value of Restatements and Repetition

Beyond re-reading, I designed a series learning activities to encourage the students to re-engage with the material in multiple ways as they continued to build meaning. Throughout the events, I provided guidance meant to lead students through the text and make sure they noticed major plot, characterization, and theme points as I determined them. I encouraged the participants to work together using English and French to discuss comprehension questions. They were instructed to answer those questions in French, and to write summaries and evaluations of their process in English.

Thus, discussing and writing the answers in both L1 and L2 represented restatements and repetitions of meaningful text.

During interviews, I asked whether participants found the set of activities in the event repetitive, and they told me no, that each step in the process built on previous steps. Simone worded it this way:

> I like what you do with the timing, like breaking it up and then discussing, or like breaking up, doing a little activity...It helps me like divide and conquer sort of, and then I just get a confirmation on each part instead of just …moving on, like being a little bit unsure with everything. I like the like split-up timing.

By "split-up timing," she meant she found it helpful to intersperse the reading with activities requiring writing or speaking to capture her understanding at each stage as it grew.

Alice explained, "I think that everything helps me. I don't think there's anything that, like, felt repetitive to me personally." She wrote this summary of the steps to her improving comprehension on the evaluation for Event 4 about *Le Petit Prince.* In it, Alice names the repeated engagements with the text and tells how they helped her build meaning.

> Reading the chapter multiple times helped me to notice and understand words I hadn't before. Listening to the audio version helped me to find where the prince, the king and narrator were speaking. It provided a lot of verbal context. The [whole class] conversation about wether (sic) the prince is a child or adult helped me to understand the point St. Ex. is making throughout the book on adulthood vs childhood…The think aloud helped me to make sense of what I was reading and

> put it in a coherent explanation. The small group discussion helped me to find holes in the story that I didn't fully understand, and it was helpful to hear other people's opinion of what the lesson is in each scene. The comprehension questions helped me to think about everything that took place in the chapter more deeply. The whole group discussion helped me to hear other people's opinions on the characters and what they represent. I read the chapter rather slowly to help me get as much out of the chapter as I could, and I reread each paragraph multiple times before moving onto the next one. Altogether, I may have spent around 45 minutes reading this chapter.

Table 4 outlines the way she describes how she valued each of her re-engagements with the text in the *Le Petit Prince* chapter.

Table 4

How Alice Valued Each Re-Engagements in Event 4.

Activity	Outcome
Re-reading the passage multiple times	"Notice and understand" additional words
Listening to the audio version	Who was speaking; "verbal context"
Whole class discussion	Understanding the theme "St Ex(upery) is making throughout the book"
Think-Aloud	Opportunity to create "coherent explanation"
Small group discussion	Finding "holes"; hearing others' "opinions of…the lesson"
Comprehension questions	"Think about…the chapter more deeply"
Re-reading at the paragraph level	"get as much out of the chapter as I could"

The table is organized in the order that Alice named each of the steps, not in their sequential order, which may show the way she remembers their relative value to her. In her comments, Alice names how each step in the Event allowed her to build additional layers of meaning, extending from augmenting known lexicon, to noticing gaps in her understanding, to gaining pragmatic information, and to delving beyond surface-level meaning to access deeper meaning.

Students Value Opportunities for Repeated Engagement with Text

Although there were instances when a given participant's think aloud and final summary were quite similar, I frequently found for each iteration they produced, they added some new element of previously missing comprehension. In addition to re-reading the text, the data show how students used the think-aloud, small group discussion, listening and writing to reconsider the text and build their comprehension. Following a participant example, I consider how the design of the events themselves encouraged repeated multimodal engagement with the text and impacted comprehension.

Natalie's deepening enrichment is evident when I compare her Event 1 think-aloud and her final, written summary activity. In her think-aloud, she mentioned the etymology of the word henna "from Hebrew and Arabic origins," and said henna is a "ceremony for weddings" in which "it's applied to the hands and feet of the future bride" which brings "good luck and symbolizes a good future." After the henna, the "bride is dressed in like traditional attire and a robe, and then they dance and sing all day," and the bride receives "gifts" and "eggs thought to bring good prosperity." Each one of these concepts is repeated and extended in her final summary:

> The ceremony symbolizes the young girl's transition to become a bride, showing a change in status…is hosted close to the wedding, either a week or day before…and (is attended by) women in the family, like the mother, in-laws, and friends of the bride. Applying the henna is done by a professional known as the "nekacha" …(and after the bride,) the other women can have henna done also. (It) is meant to bring prosperity and good luck. It is also said to help ward off evil and jealousness…The ceremony after the henna is applied involves lots of dancing, eating, and singing. The bride receives gifts like fruit and eggs that are also meant to bring good luck to the marriage.

Her final summary, while missing small details, touches all the major points in the blogpost, including the main idea from all but two sentences.

Saying it out loud. The think-alouds helped students to move beyond a casual understanding and somewhat amorphous initial sense of the content. They not only explained their comprehension of the passage but identified specific places in the text from which they had gleaned meaning. The act of explaining their comprehension to someone else by putting it into "coherent" language, as Alice said, rendered the thoughts themselves more clear in their own mind (Vygotsky, 1962). According to Jean-Pierre, the think-alouds to cause him to "think more deeply." He felt that the act of speaking his ideas out loud required a concerted effort to make sense of his thoughts.

> It kind of motivated me to study it enough that I would be able …to get it down to a point where I could explain it to somebody else instead of just having the understanding in my head. So, I think putting it into words really helps to solidify my understanding.

Alice agreed, “The think-aloud helped my comprehension by making me think thoroughly about the answers to the questions and helped me to think through each part of my story deeper.” Simone simply said the think-aloud “de-scrambled” her thoughts.

Responding to questions. I provided comprehension questions for each Event to guide thought and discussion, as an assessment tool. Chantal explained her process for answering comprehension questions and how this helped her discover where there were gaps in her understanding:

> I just like read through the whole thing and then go back a couple of times. Um, once I think I have a general like, idea and what it means, I go to the comprehension questions and those help tell me if, what I think I read is correct or not… I know like the comprehension questions give you like basic plot points of the story. So then I have like a skeleton idea of what it's about and I can go back and look deeper with those questions.

Amelie also underlined the importance of the questions:

> Like the comprehension questions, I don't know, those have those have been really helpful for me because it gives me something specific to think about and kind of unpack. And without that, I don't, I guess, like, I wouldn't know where to start and I wouldn't know the important things in the chapter to pick out and really get.

Several participants named the questions as a useful strategy identifying important points to understand. Students reported they did not find it difficult to write correct answers because they had worked through them by discussing in their small groups, reinforcing the benefit of repeated engagement. Alice spoke for nearly everyone when

she said, “It was not challenging for me to write the answers to the questions after discussing with my group because we gave a clear answer for each one and made sure everyone understood the questions.”

Hearing it read aloud. While reading aloud is not a common instructional strategy at the high school level, participants in the study valued hearing an audio rendition of the passage. Event 4, Chapter X of *Le Petit Prince*, included listening to an audio recording of a professional reader as the participants read along. Simone identified reading along with the audio as a re-engagement in that she “read aloud in [her] head” as she listened and it “confirmed (her) understanding.” Some participants found following the audio rendition difficult because the reader moved more quickly than the participant’s eyes could follow along to read, but all said that the audio gave them additional information they had not picked up on their own. For most participants, the reader’s voice clarified some confusion over punctuation conventions and allowed them to “differentiate where the narrator is speaking and where the characters are speaking,” as Alice told me. Chantal confirmed that hearing the dialogue made it easier to follow because she knew “exactly who was talking…how the conversation was going back and forth.” Inès had a particularly favorable account of what the repetition of reading along with the audio meant for her comprehension, though she had been doubtful:

> What I found most helpful was actually, um, the like recording of the man reading *Le Petit Prince*. And I was like really shocked about that. Cause I was kind of skeptical about listening to it because I was like, this can't really help... I also think I got like such a better meaning out of it because I was able to read along with him. And I'm like, when he pronounced words, I was able to register by

> realizing like, oh, I heard that word before. And then I was able to kind of think about that and decide what it meant. So I actually found that to be the most helpful, which was a really surprising thing to me.

Inès mentioned that hearing words pronounced allowed her to recognize words she knew but had not recognized in print, but every student mentioned additional pragmatic value of the audio from which they acquired previously unknown information. For example, Natalie and Amélie noticed how the King's throat-clearing "Hmm Hmm" expressed his status in relation to the prince; Alice and Chantal noticed the timid nature of the prince's responses to the King's questions; Inès noticed more "emotion" in their exchanges and said it provided "better images and description in (her) head."

Writing it down. Finally, students reported that writing down their thoughts was useful in developing meaning. Simone told me that she wrote herself notes of ideas to share in group discussion; Chantal reported that as secretary of their small group, writing helped her "organize" her thoughts, and she valued being able to "see everyone's thoughts layed out (sic) on one sheet of paper." Jean-Pierre mentioned the value of writing his evaluation for Event 3.

> For me the thing that helped me comprehend the story the best was being asked to summarize it. I have to write down the events that I can remember/understand from the story, and this often makes me realize I didn't quite understand something enough so I have to go back to that part of the story to focus on it more.

In summary, Event 4 was the only one for which I asked the participants to formally rate their comprehension across the course of a single Event. The results, shown

in Table 3, reinforce the informal checks I had conducted in the earlier Events. That is, at the think-aloud stage, the participants were cautious about their confidence levels, but further experiences with the same text dramatically improved how they felt about what they understood. Participants experienced additional value in each task in the Event, building richness in their comprehension through added details for plot, characterization, and pragmatic non-lexical information.

Through multiple multimodal engagements, they consistently built additional layers of reading comprehension and confidence about their L2 reading ability.

Table 5

Self-Reported Comprehension Scores for Event 4, Le Petit Prince.

Participant	After Think-Aloud	Small group discussion	Whole class discussion
Alice	4.5	6.5	8
Amélie	3	5	8
Chantal	4	7	8.5
Inès	2.5/5*	6	9
JeanPierre	5	6.5	9.5
Natalie	3.5	5	9
Simone	7	8	10

Note: As part of the Event evaluation, participants rated their levels of comprehension at each step of the process. Inès independently submitted two TA scores, representing before and after listening to the audio version of the chapter. Because the text was more complex in this event, teacher-facilitated whole class discussion played an additive role in making-making.

Finding 3: WL Readers Depend on Community to Enrich Comprehension

An important finding of this case study is the degree to which participants valued the input of the classroom community. Whether in small group or whole class discussions, in general they valued "bouncing ideas around" with one another. Participants mentioned their own lack of understanding after the think-aloud stage, and how the ideas advanced by other people in the group helped them perceive more. They worked through the comprehension questions together, and not one participant told me that answering the questions was hard, because, as Alice said, "We made sure that everyone understood." I was struck by the wide use of the pronoun *we* in discussing their personal comprehension experience during the small group segment. Using phrases like "We're all in the same boat," it suggested a team spirit and shared sense of authority. Amélie's evaluation of Event 1 previewed ideas that I heard throughout all four events:

> Overall, the group work definitely helped me to better understand the passage. We were able to work together and share ideas about the passage, and each of us had things to contribute to the discussion so that we all got to listen to different opinions about what the passage was about. Some of my group members understood or previously knew words that I did not know, and I understood the passage much more after our group discussion than before when I recorded my think-aloud.

Jean Pierre summarized the value of group work to comprehension this way:

> Everybody has a slightly different vocabulary, right? So there might be a couple of words that I don't know, but other people might…There might be a sentence where, I don't know, (there are) one or two words that're crucial to the meaning of

> that sentence and somebody else might think they're different. And even if we're both wrong, or one of us is wrong and the other one's right, it still gets the rest of the group talking until we pin it down to something that is probably closer to the correct answer.

In other words, Jean-Pierre felt that the readers could arrive at the "correct" answer through the dialectic of small group conversation, talking out the possibilities to narrow down tentative propositions.

While the students seemed to know that I was helping them find connections or guiding them to an understanding, for the most part, it was group work and contributions of their classmates they valued. They credited group work with three major functions: it confirmed for them that they were on the "right track" in their independent understanding of the text; it demonstrated where there were "holes" in their understanding, or meanings they had simply missed; and provided alternate "tactics" or strategies to employ while making meaning. After discussing these functions, I close discussion of the finding with a consideration of the teacher's role in this classroom community.

On the Right Track

Participants enjoyed the affordance provided by small group discussion to hear what others had to say, and they felt confirmed and empowered when others reached similar understandings to the ones they had recorded for their think-alouds. In her evaluation of the first Event, Chantal wrote, "The group work helped me figure out the passage because I was able to talk things out with them. It helped me organize my thoughts." Later, in her Event 4 *Le Petit Prince* evaluation, she wrote:

> The small group discussion just kind of confirms that you are on the right track…(they) helped me have confidence that other people were having the same thoughts as me. It made me feel more comfortable speaking in front of the class during the big discussion. I like answering the questions as a group because we all get to explain different parts of the story and our interpretations of those parts… We were able to find the true meaning of the story by seeing if we were thinking the same things.

Natalie's Event 4 evaluation also credited group work for confirming her thoughts:

> After talking through the questions, I felt much better about the chapter. I confirmed some thoughts and ideas that I had, and also gained some new ones. After the group work, I was much more confident …

These examples demonstrate the positive effect that peer confirmation had in the Events. Participants rated themselves poorly and often expressed that they were unsure about the meanings they initially constructed in the readings (see Table 4), but the collaboration group confirmation of their ideas gave them confidence to contribute to discussion and improved their feelings of self-efficacy.

Holes in Understanding

Another important function of the collaborative small group work was to indicate to students where they had missed an idea, or otherwise had "holes" in their comprehension. One place where I found evidence of this was in the differences between the first and subsequent retellings. For example, in Event 1, Chantal independently suggested in her think-aloud that the henna ritual was the equivalent of a bachelorette party. All the members of her small group had adopted and included this metaphor in

their final summaries. Jean-Pierre's think-aloud and final summary from Event 1 show how he filled in many holes in his initial comprehension, including taking up the bachelorette party idea. His initial think-aloud is wandering, vague, and ultimately only states that henna is part of Moroccan weddings. However, by the final retelling, he was able to add very specific details:

> The first section talks about the ceremony itself, about what it symbolizes and how it is done. The purpose of the ceremony is to celebrate the transition of the about-to-be-wed woman from a young girl to a wife, and to give her good luck with her future relationship. The ceremony typically takes place a day before the wedding or throughout it with a bit of time before and after, it is the rough equivalent of a bachelorette party as in most cases only women are allowed and it takes place shortly before the wedding. The henna is applied to the hands and feet of the bride either in patterns or simply spread around, depending on the family traditions, and is performed by a professional known as a "nekacha" …The celebration typically starts in the evening and lasts until the early morning; people sing and dance and eat until the party dies out. Gifts are also given to the bride, things like sugar, fruit, and eggs. The gifts symbolize prosperity for the couple.

As they discussed small group collaboration, readers often talked about how they realized things they had misunderstood or missed altogether as they tried to explain their understanding in the group. According to Simone, "listening to thoughts and ideas from the class discussion today helped piece together the holes I had left in the passage." Alice said, "The group affected how I understood the passage by pointing out certain words and ideas I had not seen and considered and helped me think of other possible meanings in

phrases." Natalie said the group provided input with "a few other pieces I hadn't realized I was missing."

In her first interview, Amélie described how other people's ideas presented in her discussion group encouraged her to work for the next level of comprehension:

> Originally, I didn't know what certain sentences meant. And then someone would say something, and I'd be like, 'Oh, that makes sense now!' And I could, you know, figure the rest out for myself, but it was, it was really helpful having the, I guess, push or other ideas from other people to kind of help me get started with it.

Curious about how much thought went into accepting another student's interpretation, I probed to find out in the first interview. She told me she would ask,

> "Where did you see that?" [and they would] say the line that they were talking about or something so I could go back and look for myself. And then that way I could decide like, no, does that make sense to me? Or am I just believing whatever they say? (I would) put it in context and see if that would make sense with the sentences around it that I might've understood anyway.

In fact, the recordings of the small group work provide copious evidence of many participants asking one another for the wording in the passage that led to their conclusions, and closer re-reading of the identified passages. Simone also referenced how the group members shared the places in the text where they had been able to make meaning:

> Talking and sharing answers with my group helped everyone, including me, find unknowns from the passage and fill in some blanks…They shared what they found, and after looking back into the text, it was clear what some words and

> phrases then meant. We mutually helped each other and came out of the discussion with a lot of clarification.

Alternate Strategies

Sometimes what was most valuable about the group work was seeing the way that another reader had approached the text. Event 3 included a small group discussion for which each student read a different fairy tale. I designed discussion questions meant to elicit comparison among the stories and of the genre itself. In Alice's evaluation of the fairy tale discussion group, she called strategies "tactics." She wrote:

> The small group discussion helped me a lot because I got to discuss with the others and see what helped them to understand their story deeper so I could then take their tactics to help me understand my story better…Talking about multiple stories allowed us to share what tactics worked for each person specifically when trying to make meaning out of our stories…By sharing what worked for each person, it gave me new ways to further look into my story.

Simone concurred in her second interview. "I think the second [most helpful thing after the think-alouds] was talking to everybody and just trying to understand their thought process as well as mine." In these examples, the participants demonstrate how the strategies shared by more knowledgeable others (Vygotsky, 1978) provided them with additional ways to tackle the text. Because Event 3 involved different fairy tales for each reader, the collaboration groups were not able to help one another with specific story elements, but attention to different comprehension strategies by peers for their own stories provided new strategic reading possibilities to readers.

Impact of the Teacher's Instruction

My impact as the teacher and designer of this classroom community is woven throughout the findings. From the choice of texts to read to the organization of the process steps, my prior knowledge, knowledge use and control, and teacher monitor and executive, as Ruddell and Unrau (2013) conceive of them, provided deep classroom context. I led the pre-reading scaffolding and facilitated whole-class discussions that formed the bookends of each Event, designed the comprehension questions, and wrote the instructions for what topics students should consider for their think-alouds and evaluations. Beyond that, I planned and implemented the daily instruction between the Events. However, the students' data have few perceptions of my role in the class. Even when talking about whole group discussion, in which I lead them to generate new ideas, they perceived the Events as collaborative puzzle-solving with little direction from me. However, Natalie referenced my role in the whole-group discussions:

> One of the main things that was really cleared up during the whole class discussion was the section about the minister of justice and ambassador. I was pretty confused about this at first, and the small group discussion helped me form some new ideas, but I didn't fully understand it until the whole class discussion.

Inès attributed contemplation of the themes of the passages to me: "When I read things in French, reading between the lines is the last thing I do, but in the teacher discussion you made the themes a priority and the most important topic to discuss."

Though she does not mention the teacher's role in modeling the strategies, Simone's evaluation of the final Event demonstrated her uptake of the process I had taught over the course to make sense of a complex text. Speaking of beginning to read

chapter X in *Le Petit Prince* independently, she referenced the process I had modeled during instruction for earlier chapters in the book:

> So when we did class discussions…when we did earlier chapters…that just gave me like a layout for how I'm supposed to do it. Like we just separated each line and just like attacked it piece by piece, like as a class. And then chapter 10 doing it more on my own, I had like a method. I had what I wanted to go about, how I could find more vocab, how I could like use something previous.

In conclusion, Finding 3 is drawn from evidence that the participants in this class viewed meaning-making largely as a collaborative puzzle-solving activity. While each person independently read and drew basic meaning from each passage, the discussion with their peers validated that they were on the right track with their thoughts, demonstrated where they had missed information that others had noticed, and provided alternative perspectives and strategies for making meaning. Breaking the passages into smaller chunks to evaluate, then piecing together what they collaboratively discerned, they were able to understand challenging passages of authentic literature at a high level of comprehension.

Finding 4: WL Readers Engage All Their L1 Strategies to Build Meaning, But it is Not Sufficient.

The data in this case study exhibit an abundance of evidence for the components from the Ruddell and Unrau (2013) model of reading, and demonstrate the participants enacted a full arsenal of the literacy strategies Ruddell and Unrau describe. Broadly covering the model, Findings 1, 2, and 3 show how all the components are interwoven throughout the L2 reading process. Word recognition of French lexical items,

sociocultural knowledge of world and self, metacognitive knowledge, and cognate recognition formed the data to support Finding 1 and have been discussed earlier in this chapter. In Finding 2, data regarding repeated engagement with the text and participants' use of various strategies showed them to be using their Reader Executive and Monitor to make meaning and monitor their process simultaneously as they unlocked chunks of meaning. This was often clearly demonstrated in the intersection of reader/teacher/peer interaction in the classroom, as discussed in Finding 3. Participants' affective conditions were revealed in their feelings about reading, and about their ability to ultimately make sense of the reading were based on prior experience. For example, Amélie told me,

> Usually the way that this goes is like, I have no idea what it means at first. And then like, I let it kind of sink in for a day. And then you just, you work on it day by day and it slowly becomes less frustrating as you spend more time thinking about it.

In short, every component of the Ruddell and Unrau (2013) model was supported with widespread data from all participants in this study, which confirmed that they were employing their L1 literacy strategies throughout the Events.

However, the data also show that additional strategies were particularly salient for comprehending authentic L2 text. Though these strategies are available in L1 reading, they may be used infrequently in other high school content courses and take on an active role in the L2 reading process; some were simply used in a different way. For example, L1 literary texts at this level seldom have illustrations, and reading aloud occurs far less frequently than it does in primary education. In what follows, I describe two examples of such strategies: *piecing it together* and *visualize* after the ways that participants explained

their meaning-making processes to me. I conclude the chapter with a consideration of how participants dealt with frustrations and persevered to reach higher levels of comprehension.

Piecing it Together to Make Meaning

Readers recognize words by accessing them in memory, or through use of a specific strategy. Once they know or figure out what a word means, they use that knowledge to form a full proposition and integrate it into meaning of the passage. In L1, specifically for these proficient readers, unknown words are the exception on a page and comprise a small proportion of the words in a passage. Even a word previously unencountered in text may be familiar to these readers because of its use in spoken language. That is often not the case with L2 lexicon, where students have control of far fewer words and hear the language infrequently outside the classroom. Furthermore, WL students do not have sufficient language experience with word families to recognize many morphemic variations that would convert a known noun, for example, to a predictable adjective or verb.

The participants in this case study are adept at comprehending complex sentences with embedded propositions in L1. However, to navigate complex sentences in the L2, each single recognized word can become the catalyst for revealing the meaning of an entire proposition, clause, sentence, and perhaps for even larger chunks of the passage. This is often a multi-step process; the participants often describe it as “using context.” For example, Natalie shared in Event 1,

> At first when I read the passage, it was very confusing because I didn't know a lot of the words. The group work helped because we were able to work through each

> paragraph and contribute all of our knowledge and ideas. We looked for cognates around words we didn't know and used those as context to help figure things out.

But careful examination of their descriptions of "using context" and the meaning-making process reveals repeated and common descriptions of breaking apart the text into components and piecing it back together. For example, during the interviews, I asked participants if they were aware of any patterns in their process as they were reading. Alice shared, "I pick out words. First I skim through and find words that I already know and try to find new cognates…I can kind of piece together what that means." Inès said, "I looked for a word I knew…(and) pieced it together." Similarly, Natalie explained, "I just kind of skip over words that I don't recognize. And then I go back in later and piece stuff together when I have like a, I guess kind of general idea of what's going on." Simone described her process like this:

> I don't really write anything down when I'm trying to understand it…but, um, putting it back together, I just kind of have a bunch of mental notes. So, I look at a paragraph or a section that I just broke apart and I just like combine all of them…And then I like, look at how it transitions to the next part of it…Like I just have to connect it all back together after I've like viewed it as a bunch of different sections.

These comments make it clear that comprehension is not linear as readers progress through the passages, but rather that they latch on to a known word and then work both forward and backward in the passage and use it to uncover and assign meaning to the rest of the sentence, and perhaps to the paragraph itself. The single recognized word or phrase is leveraged to unlock much larger chunks of context, rather than context

unlocking the meaning of a single unknown word as it does in L1. Amélie summarized the comprehension difference in L1 and L2 when she come across an unknown word:

> So [in English] it's very easy for me to, you know, just kind of cut that word out and still get a complete understanding. And it's kind of the opposite for French. Like I'll read something and I'll know one word, and then all the other words around it I'll figure out and I'll to put it together that way.

Visualizing to Make Meaning

The data reveal the high level of importance to WL reading of visualization. In every event, participants mentioned how visualizing of the topic allowed them to make meaning of the words, whether through graphic page elements, illustrations, photographs, or simply a visual representation they could create in their own minds. In Finding 1, I discussed how visual page features and illustrations helped directly with identification of specific lexical items Beyond one-to-one correspondence between words and pictures, however, Natalie reported in her Event 1 evaluation that "it really helped to see a visual representation of everything [the Moroccan wedding henna ritual], then apply that to the reading," revealing that visualization worked at more complex levels to help create meaning.

The Big Picture. *The big picture* was a metaphor that participants used frequently over the course of the four Events. For them, it generally meant an overarching idea of the meaning of a passage, an "endpoint" as Natalie termed it for their meaning quest. In these instances, the readers had formed an interior visual representation of the meaning of the passage to which they could attach additional information that they further developed from the text. Often the big picture was like a detailed photograph or a movie in their

head depicting the meaning of the passage. In an evaluation, Inès explained that once she determined “the big picture and the main events on the page… I was able to read the text on the page better, because I knew what I was looking for.” For Chantal, having a mental visual meant she knew where she was going, and “I just need to get there somehow.” Alice explained,

> I think visuals really helped me cause like with a puzzle, obviously you need a picture. For me, I need a picture to see what I'm going to make, because if I don't have an end result, I kinda lose like what I'm trying to make. And same thing in like a book. If I don't have anything to go off of, and I'm just seeing words, it's kind of, it's harder for me to do that without an image.

These data reveal how interior visualizations create an endpoint toward which the reader can navigate, and from which they will be able to determine if they have successfully comprehended the passage.

Developing Precision. Inès referenced how her interior representation developed by talking through her think-alouds. “The first think-aloud helped me see the big picture, while the second helped me get the more precise details I wasn't sure about the first time through.” Jean-Pierre categorized his initial understanding of the big picture as a “blurry photo” that became clearer as he progressed through the stages of the event. He described his visualization metaphor in parenthetical remarks:

> I already had a pretty good idea of what happened in the story (like a slightly blurry photo) but translating some words I didn’t know helped me find some more minor details that I hadn’t seen before (like enhancing the blurry photo).

For *Le Petit Prince*, Event 4, Alice referenced how she used an interior visualization

developed from the scaffolding work we had done about the novel's structure and how it helped her focus on theme: "[It] helped me to understand the overall picture of the story and the importance in each chapter…the Little Prince will be learning a new lesson on each planet as he makes his journey as the hero." In these instances, their interior visualization representing of the meaning of the text passage gave readers a general architecture of the passage from which they could support more complex understandings.

Understanding Culture. Finally, some students used the pictures to better locate the sociocultural placement of the passage. Simone reacted to the photo of a batik artwork on the page for the polygamy passage that depicted Senegalese women carrying water.

> I remember a picture in the top… I don't know how to explain it other than saying kind of African…but it just kind of gave me a visual again, rather than just thinking like, "Oh, these are like ladies in a farmhouse." It just, it kind of pictured the culture a lot more.

Similarly, Amélie explained that the photo deck that I had shared in pre-reading discussion gave her not only visuals for the vocabulary in Event 1, but that my photos and story of the wedding "made the reading relatable." By this, she meant that the story and photos allowed her to tap a personal connection to the henna wedding ritual to virtually experience it. Amélie's first interview included specific memories of how the wedding story and photos made the henna blog more "relatable." She recalled:

> Oh, I see the word *egg*. I remember (you) talked about that. That must mean they were eating that at the ceremony…(and) like the fancy *robe* cultural dress that you wore, and they talked about that too…um, we all like related your experience with that to the story. So it was much easier to understand some parts because of what you've told us.

These processes are certainly present in L1 reading, but the evidence suggests a greater reliance on them as readers work in non-linear, non-lexical ways to create meaning from the L2 text. My analytic memos also show my surprise with "how much comprehension (the participants) showed" extending full sentence meanings from minimal known words, and on their "puzzle-solving" efforts to move back and forth in sentences around the single word they knew to come up with fairly accurate propositions. Though I have been teaching for many years, my memos also show that I continued to be surprised in every Event at the level of reliance my students placed on their ability to visualize the meaning of a passage.

Frustrations and Perseverance

General guidelines for comfortable free reading suggest 95% of words should be known to the reader; at an instructional level, at least 75% should be previously known (MetaMetrics, 2021). In these authentic L2 passages, neither of these benchmarks is initially met for any of the readers. Nevertheless, these participants surprised me with how much meaning they were able to construct, even after the first think-aloud, by building lexicon as they worked. Table 6 shows my teacher scoring for comprehension derived from their summary of the passage in the think-aloud, and again in the final written summary assignment.

Table 6

Teacher Scores of Comprehension for Four Events.

	Event 1		Event 2		Event 3		Event 4	
Participant	TA	Final	TA	Final	TA	Final	TA	Final
Alice	4	8	3	8	5	10	9	10
Amélie	5	8	6	9.5	7	10	4	10
Chantal	5	*	6	9	4	8	3	10
Inès	8	9	8	10	4	8	6	9
Jean-Pierre	5	9	2	9	7	10	3	10
Natalie	8	9	6	10	7	9.5	8	9
Simone	5	8	5	10	3	9.5	8	10

Note: As a comprehension baseline, I scored each student in the class on a scale of 1 – 10 evidenced in their initial think-aloud (TA) procedure. A 5 represented identification of all major points of the passage. Less than 5 indicates major elements are missing, and above a 5 indicates addition of characterization, description, and small detail.

* indicates that the assignment was not turned in.

The table shows that at the initial think-aloud, about half of the participants in each event had understood most of the main points in my judgement, while the other half were lacking important information. Think-alouds were individually recorded after the participant independently read the text and constructed meaning using their choice of strategies. All events followed scaffolding and had available page features beyond the text itself, while Event 3 included the instruction to use a translation aide, and Event 4 included the audio recording to hear prior to recording the think-aloud. Only Natalie initially scored higher than a 5 on all four Events, but everyone scored 5 or higher on at

least one Event. By the final summary for each Event, all participants demonstrated improved comprehension and scored at least a 8; in Event 4, all seven participants scored at 90% or above. Alice's TA 1 score in Event 4 is an outlier.

Challenge

I asked the participants to identify what was difficult or challenging about the passage. Unsurprisingly, most answered that the large number of unknown words was "hard." Speaking of the polygamy text, Simone said, "What's hard about reading this passage was that I haven't seen a lot of the words or like verbs that we used in here often." Natalie spoke for many concerned with how "long" the passages were when she mentioned the "length" of the *Le Petit Prince* chapter, by which she really meant, "there were a lot of words I was unfamiliar with."

Some challenges arose from gaps in sociocultural knowledge. These included the situation of polygamy and the names of characters in Event 2, which were similar phonetically, unfamiliar as first names, and difficult for the participants to distinguish. Most participants were unable to answer the comprehension question about how the named characters were connected to each other. Alice's judgment about the topic was:

> This sort of thing (polygamy) doesn't really happen that much. So we don't really know that much about it. Um, or least I don't have that much experience with the topic! Um, so that was a little tricky to me.

Additionally, French conventions for punctuation of conversation and reported speech are different from L1 and were also quite difficult for the readers, especially in the fairy tales and *Le Petit Prince.* French *guillements* (« … ») look different and are used differently than quotation marks; dashes and commas are also used differently to indicate

continued dialogue or mark the end of a speaker's words before the sentence continues. These are confusing for readers who have minimally if ever encountered them in the textbooks. Alice wrote, "Something kind of hard is that they don't let the people speak in quotes. It just looks like the rest of it."

In short, the large percentage of unfamiliar items presented a challenge some characterized as overwhelming at first glance. Jean-Pierre told me while ultimately he felt a sense of accomplishment, "I would say the reading itself isn't necessarily fun. I think if I learn more French it probably will become more fun because it's easier for me to do it." Jean-Pierre was the participant with the highest Lexile level in reading English, and perhaps coincidentally the one who was most bothered by ambiguities in his French comprehension.

Amélie was much more at ease about vagaries in her French comprehension. She told me, "I think there's always going to be things that like won't make sense to me… It's just because French isn't my first language. There's always going to be something that I don't know." Still, she admitted in her first interview that when she began a new reading text she wondered,

> How am I going to figure this out? ...Like, this is, this is very challenging. Um, but since I had read other passages before I knew like, usually the way that this goes is like, I have no idea what it means at first. And then, I let it kind of sink in for a day. And then you just, you work on it day by day and it slowly becomes less frustrating as you spend more time thinking about it. Um, but it just takes time.

Her statement speaks to an attitude about reading that her hard work will be eventually rewarded with a successful conclusion. Inès said something similar when she told me she did not "necessarily have to know what everything means here, but I got the big idea," and self-rated her final comprehension of the passage as "really close to a 5" (out of 5). Similarly, Alice's upward intonation at the end of many of her statements about comprehension during think-alouds reveals a dichotomy. While she lacks confidence and worries her comprehension may be incomplete, she feels nevertheless it is strong: "I'd like to think that I understand it pretty thoroughly?" In fact, when I asked them to informally self-rate their comprehension at the end of each event, students universally rated themselves at 80% or higher.

Ultimately, after several days of classwork and independent time at home to mull over the passages, which Natalie termed "moving through them at my own pace and spending the amount of time that I personally needed," all the participants were able to reach comprehension levels consistent with instructional levels of text difficulty. Table 2 shows that some even reached a comprehension level suggesting they had reached a comfortable free-reading threshold with these initially challenging texts.

Importantly, the participants also added to their reservoirs of positive affective knowledge about L2 reading. Universally, they reported that successfully meeting these reading challenges felt "good" and "satisfying" and made them feel "confident." Natalie said, "I thought it was good to have like kind of a challenge. It made me feel good when I could actually figure something out, I guess. It kind of made me feel proud." Inès told me,

I think it's like rewarding **t**o like go through it and then get an understanding. Cause like the first time you go through it, you're kind of just trying to figure out what it means. And (by the end) you really understand what you've read and it makes you feel pretty like accomplished.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Summary of the Study

This study describes the experiences of a high school WL language class as the students worked through a series of reading passages that each seemed overwhelming to them at first. Faced with a text that contained few words they solidly recognized, they demonstrated a wide variety of literacy strategies and ultimately were able to reach high levels of comprehension and feelings of pride, accomplishment, and agency. The findings support sociocognitive and interactive theories of reading and L2 language learning as well as demonstrate WL has distinct characteristics marking it as a separate discipline in which readers make sense by using strategies differently than in other content areas.

French III is a high school bridge course between the first two levels of WL instruction, which are heavily focused on learning basic vocabulary and verb tenses, and the advanced level classes that focus on communicative speaking and writing about literature and diverse genres of text in preparation for the Advanced Placement French Language and Culture exam. As the only French teacher in my school, I have some autonomy in choosing what exactly to teach, so when I teach French III, I try to infuse as much authentic language as possible, hoping through movies, music, and reading I can provide the massive amount of language input and repeated encounters with individual lexical items that lead to proficiency (Duke et al., 2011; Grabe, 2009; Nagy, 2007).

Extending lessons from materials in the course textbook, I designed four literacy Events for my students. These Events followed a similar 8-step format for repeated engagement with the same text: pre-reading scaffolding in whole-group instruction;

independent reading of the text; a self-recorded think-aloud to capture what meaning was first apparent to the reader and what text features aided in meaning making; small group discussion guided by comprehension questions; individual answers written in French to the questions; a re-telling of the text in L1 writing; a metalinguistic self-evaluation of the process of meaning construction itself; and finally a whole-group discussion wherein all students could share their ideas. The texts were four different genres of authentic literature including a blog, an excerpt from an epistolary novel, a children's fairy tale, and a chapter midway through the reading of a classic young adult novel. The works' complexity in text structure and theme increased successively, and I introduced additional literacy supports across the four Events.

The purpose of the study was to describe the literacy practice of English speakers as they become emergent speakers of French. Four findings emerged from the data I collected. The findings are (1) WL readers first actively build lexicon while reading, using a variety of metacognitive strategies to locate and interpret key words in the text; (2) they continue to build enhanced layers of comprehension with each re-engagement with the text; (3) they depend on the classroom community for a number of cognitive and affective supports; and (4) while they engage all their L1 literacy skills, some other skills are needed or used in different ways in L2 meaning construction. I discuss implications across the findings and suggest directions for future research.

Interpretation of the Findings

Collectively, the findings describe a community practice in which the individual readers began by locating any word or phrase at all they recognized, searching for any

other words they could identify as possible cognates, and using text features, including illustrations, to aide in individual word recognition. After constructing an initial representation of the text, they shared strategies and combined their ideas to confirm and extend understanding while deliberating the answers to comprehension questions about the passage. An individual written summary of the content in the L1 allowed them to express comprehension of ideas not covered by the direct questions; the evaluation of the process provided clarity about metacognition and the process of addressing a challenging L2 text.

In each Event, the data showed a similar progression from a sense of overwhelm at the beginning to strong comprehension consistent with high levels of text comfort. The initial attempts were significantly focused on strategies involving prior knowledge: recognized lexical elements, cognates, pieces from pre-reading scaffolding instruction, and leveraging text features such as a glossary, an author's biography highlighted as a text box on the page, or an illustration in order to figure out what was happening in the text. From these bits and pieces of information, the readers navigated in any direction in the text, building what they called "context" by knitting the pieces into a representation, using logic and metalinguistic prediction to create propositions that evolved into an understanding of narrative structure. Next, with the basics of the plot established, the readers created an interior visualization, which aided them in discovering where there were logical gaps in their comprehension.

Armed with their still incomplete versions, the participants met in groups where a sense of shared purpose was forged. They pooled their knowledge, gauged one another's interpretations, and elucidated their strategies. These community conversations of shared

authority and voice moved their collective comprehension forward, with participants expressing equal measures of "what I didn't know" and "what I contributed to the group." Participants were responsible for their own learning, but the community supported one another. None of the groups looked to me as the authority for what something might mean or how to figure something out.

Somewhere in this mixture of individual effort and group sharing, the creation of meaning often moved from surface level interpretations of what happened in the passage to deeper understandings of genre elements, characterization, and theme. Though my instructions did not direct them to develop deeper meaning in any Event, the participants expressed in interviews that once they had reached a comfortable level of understanding the "words," they began to approach the reading selection as they would approach one in L1; that is, they began to look for things like metaphoric meaning, subtleties of character description, and extending themes. Ultimately, the students responded with insightful understandings and were able to point to specific passages in the text to support and defend their views.

This case study extends the work of previous scholars by demonstrating the way WL emergent bilinguals use metacognition to build reading comprehension (Buescher & Strauss, 2015; Corbitt, 2013; de la Fuente & Lacroix, 2015; Duke et al., 2011; Grabe, 2009; Levesque & Deacon, 2019; Levine, 2009; McManus & Marsden, 2019; Nagy, 2007; National Reading Panel, 2000; Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009). It presents the case of how multiple metacognitive strategies are used in "daily life" in the secondary classroom (Brevik, 2019) and how authentic WL reading can be explored in a bridge course (Buescher, 2018). The data confirm and extend findings surrounding acquisition

of new lexical items and demonstrate how Duke et al.'s (2011) list of essential elements for reading comprehension was enacted in these literacy Events.

Building Lexical Knowledge

When first presented with the texts to be read, the participants experienced unpleasant feelings of being overwhelmed by the length of the text and the sheer number of words that were totally unfamiliar in the passages. Being in their third course of French, these participants would have been exposed to fewer than 2000 instructed vocabulary items, far fewer than the 10,000-word threshold Grabe (2009) suggests for L2 proficiency. Even though structural elements of grammar and sentence order had been explained and practiced in class, the participants were often perplexed when they read them in authentic prose, and they did not immediately recognize words to which they had been previously exposed, supporting the claim that lexical items require multiple encounters in variety of situations before they are uptaken as known vocabulary (Grabe, 2009; Nagy, 2007; Nagy & Scott, 2013). The think-aloud data show the participants "consciously groping for control of developing schemata" (Goodman & Goodman, 2013; p. 540). However, examination of the data and responses to questions about their metacognitive processes show how the participants immediately looked to a cognate strategy as the most productive way to build additional lexicon, and knowledge of syntactic and grammatical structures was rarely uptaken in early stages to create meaning.

Once they had exhausted known cognates in the passage, the students in this study turned to other strategies to identify lexicon and learn new lexical items. They relied initially on generic content reading strategies used in L1 to search the page for additional

supporting material, such as editor-placed background information about the topic, theme, or author; words defined in glosses; and graphic representations (in this case, illustrations) to locate ideas they had not yet discerned from the text (Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008; Lai et al., 2014). For example, in Event 2, they used graphic arrows pointed at paragraphs to locate the answer to the question printed inside the arrow. In Event 3, they were alert to genre-specific vocabulary we had considered prior to reading, but which had high likelihood of inclusion in their fairy tales (Duke et al., 2011; Troyan, 2020, 2021). They looked for words that were repeated in the passage or appeared in sentence position that potentially marked them as verbs, intuitively looking for high-value lexical items, demonstrating uptake of syntactic knowledge of the L2 (Goodman, Fries & Strauss, 2014; Grabe, 2009; Smith, 2012). Once the participants moved to the small groups, they further built lexical knowledge and comprehension through discussion and by asking "How did you know that?" then searching the text for the named word or phrase. Teasing out comparisons between L1 and L2 nominally equivalent words initiates additional lexical processing and creates new metalinguistic awareness, and it sometimes instigates new sociocultural concepts Macaro (2009).

There are many affordances of L1 use in L2 lexical development. Central to the task of building lexicon was use of the L1 either through inner speech, translation, or through peer discussion, which allowed participants to uptake new concepts by restating them in L1 (McMillan & Turnbull, 2009; Macaro, 2009; 2013; Swain & Lapkin, 2009, 2013; Wildsmith-Cromarty, 2018). Faced with what they identified as overwhelming passages in the L2, they worked to convert lexicon to L1 in order to dissipate cognitive overload (Dailey-O'Cain & Leibscher, 2009; Macaro, 2009; McMillan & Turnbull, 2009;

Swain & Lapkin, 2013; White & Storch, 2012) and hold the meaning for proposition building and situational modeling (Kintsch, 2013; Ruddell & Unrau, 2013). Although occasionally ideas appear to have been uptaken directly from the L2, the data show a preponderance of times when L2 ideas were converted to L1 for restating and building comprehension. In other words, these emerging bilinguals did not exhibit sufficient proficiency to capture and hold constructions in the L2 without using L1, though by using L1 as reference and scaffold, they were capable of deep learning (Wildsmith-Cromarty, 2019). As the teacher of these students, aware of the text structure lessons I had recently taught (Duke et al., 2011) about pronoun placement in complex sentences for example, I was surprised only a few students accessed knowledge of sentence structure to comprehend the text; at this emergent level of L2 knowledge, the authentic text was so challenging their first need was to grab on to individual lexical items to start to make sense of the reading.

The most surprising aspect of this finding for me was the success that the participants had in building propositions and comprehension from the disconnected pieces of lexical information they found sprinkled throughout a given passage. Once they had discovered the meaning for what they considered “enough” lexical information, they moved forward, backward, and across the text in non-linear ways to build what they called “context”. These students are aware of the metacognitive strategy *use context clues* to find the meaning of an unknown term in L1; however, their process in L2 was the opposite dynamic. In this study, the results show that participants used individual words to construct complete sentences or paragraphs by “piecing together” the individual bits of information they gleaned from single lexical items. Their initial think-aloud scores for

comprehension demonstrated strong command of the basics of the reading by the time they had worked through it independently, even though their recognized vocabulary was small initially. They predicted and confirmed the meanings they were developing based on growing connections in the text (Goodman, et al., 2013; Nagy, 20007). This finding questions Krashen's (1982) theory that L2 input must be modified for emergent L2 learners, which is still foundational in early language learning curricula and textbooks. The finding instead supports more recent scholarship (Duke et al., 2011; Nagy, 2007) proposing authentic language and "immersion in massive amounts of rich written and oral language" (Nagy & Scott, 2013, p. 471) in a full range of genres (Duke et al., 2011) are more effective ways of building comprehension even in a secondary bridge course with emergent bilinguals.

Repeated Engagement with the Text

The second finding in this study speaks to the way readers continued to build additional layers of meaning over their first attempts through re-visiting, re-imagining, and re-stating the text in diverse modalities. These recursive acts have powerful additive effects in meaning construction (Duke et al., 2011). In the Events, participants were required to re-engage with the text multiple times through reading, restating, discussing, and writing. The data revealed they often re-read on their own initiative, without teacher direction to do so, demonstrative of their active executive monitors engaged for comprehension, self-efficacy, and effective strategies in the comprehending process (Ruddell & Unrau, 2013).

Participants engaged with the same text through different modalities, including silent reading, summarizing orally in L1, answering questions in L2, talking about the

text in peer collaboration, listening to a more knowledgeable speaker read the text aloud, and evaluating illustrations to find content and characterization clues. Participants alluded to the way speaking their summaries out loud caused them to clarify vague and amorphous ideas in their minds so that they could be understood by an interlocuter (Vygotsky, 1962, 1978), and each iteration of their summaries of comprehension yielded more linguistic awareness and greater detail of comprehension. As Duke et al. (2011) suggest, "it may well be that revisiting and re-representing important ideas in many modes is what matters most" (p. 79).

Collaboration as Comprehension Building

The third finding of this study is that collaborative peer discussion groups were important in both cognitive and affective ways in this class. The data support Bakhtinian conceptions of meaningful dialogic interaction (Gánam-Gutierrez, 2018; Tracey & Morrow, 2017; Palmgren-Neuvonen, Littleton, & Hirvonen, 2021). Small groups of three or four participants were able to solve lapses and misunderstandings, increase each participant's comprehension of the assigned text, and support deeper learning goals such as cross-cultural, metalinguistic, and metacognitive awareness (Huber & Huber, 2008; Johnson & Johnson, 2008; Macaro, 2009, 2013; Swain & Lapkin, 2013; Turnbull, 2015). The participants reported that knowing other students in the class had perceived similar ideas from the text made them feel that they were "on the right track;" if students proposed different meanings for passages, they were able to ask one another for textual support for the other interpretation and the ensuing discussion of the text was often rich.

Discussion topics in the small groups seldom included cognates; perhaps driven by the task of answering the questions I had given them, the topics of conversation were

oriented to making meaning of larger chunks of text. However, this evidence supports Wang and Zheng (2017) who reported that collaboration precipitated a shift of focus from de-coding single L2 words to broader comprehension of the text and to work refining and extending meaning. The evidence from the present study also aligns with Buescher (2018) who found improved understanding of literature from broad sociocultural perspectives through collaboration.

A third advantage of collaboration was to develop the practice of learning how to read (Buescher, 2018; Gilles et al., 2017; Moore & Seeger, 2010; Seeger, 2009). According to Macaro (2013), comparing and contrasting L1 and L2 words initiates additional lexical processing and creates new metalinguistic awareness during reading. Participants were eager to learn the alternative strategies (or "tactics") their peers had used to make sense of the text. This advantage is important in a WL class where both generic content literacy and specific disciplinary literacy are strategically important (Lai et al., 2014; Turnbull, 2020). In growing as readers into the discipline of another language, some participants were quicker than others to take up strategies that were differently used than L1 literacy might suggest. One such example would be *piecing it together,* building meaning from a small percentage of recognized words. Therefore, sharing what had worked for them also built self-efficacy into the classroom context. Sharing techniques that worked also encouraged readers to engage multiple strategies for the same text at the same time (Duke et al., 2011).

In Event evaluations, participants frequently named small groups as the most effective step in the entire process of building their more-or-less complete understanding of the challenging passages. In previous lessons before or in between Events, I had

modeled strategies, demonstrating how I make meaning from a new L2 passage, and led the students through guided practice with other texts. However, I was still pleasantly surprised by the degree to which the participants demonstrated responsibility for naming and deciding which strategies to employ and evaluating the efficacy of each. In this way, the study shows how the GRR model for scaffolding strategies worked in this class (Brevik, 2019; Duke et al., 2011; McVee et al., 2018) and how there was a transfer of responsibility for learning to students. Further, Cresswell and Poth (2018) suggest collaboration can be a mechanism to counteract power asymmetry in a classroom between the teacher and students.

The final benefit of collaboration exhibited in this study is the improved affective conditions for these participants. I asked the participants in the Event 1 evaluation to parse out their own contributions in group discussion and the contributions of others. Each participant was able to name their own valuable addition to the conversation. In interviews, they universally rated everyone in the group as a contributing partner (even when that was not my teacher's perspective). Like Pishghadam and Ghardiri's (2011) report on symmetric and asymmetric pair reading, the present research suggests students valued both learning from peers and envisioning themselves as enacting the position of the more knowledgeable partner (Gee, 2014); they also had fun in the group activity. As they told me how they would describe the class to someone else, there was widespread positive regard for one another and for the value of collaboration with one another; group work fostered a spirit of teamwork to which all participants responded favorably. In summary, in collaboration group activities, the participants examined their own reading

behaviors and developed comprehension skills, confirmed self-efficacy, and displayed general enjoyment (Seeger, 2009).

L1 Literacy Skills in L2 Reading

Drawing on the Ruddell & Unrau (2013) model of motivated interactive reading, the fourth finding of the study is that the participants engaged all the L1 literacy skills described in the model. To make meaning from the challenging authentic L2 texts, however, the participants used strategies not described by the model. These strategies include deriving context from single lexical entry to full propositions, listening to oral reading to make connections between the printed text and meaning, and visualizing meaning either using illustration or imagination to create a full picture of what the passage meant.

Amélie named the difference between the L1 and L2 versions of *using context* to build meaning when she told me that in L1 she could "just kind of cut out" an unknown word and "still get complete understanding." However, in L2, she said, "It's kind of the opposite…I'll read something and know one word, and then (I'll figure out) all the other words around it…and I'll put it together that way." All the participants used this strategy to successfully build at least a basic understanding of the passage from the few words they recognized initially. While the process of reading L2 sentences is occasionally referred to in the literature as reading *backward and forward* and involves prediction of meaning (Goodman, et al.,2016), few scholars have yet described the process in L2 reading empirically or theoretically.

Two other important strategies for WL readers are more commonly associated with beginning L1 readers: hearing someone read aloud and using illustrations and other

visuals to focus meaning-making. The participants in the present study found additional meaning through a read-along with audio version of *Le Petit Prince* (St. Exupéry, 1943). Some participants recognized familiar words from pronunciation that they had not recognized in the printed text, and many were able to follow audio conversation that was unclear to them in the text due to their inexperience with the L2 conventions for punctuating conversation. Additionally, listeners gained additional pragmatic information from hearing the text read aloud, which resulted in greater understanding of characters and motivations in the passage. Readers used visualization as a strategy to form propositions of ideas across the arc of the passage, either by looking at provided illustrations accompanying text if there were some, or by creating them in their imaginations. These visuals allowed them to see where they might have comprehension gaps and directed them to re-engage with the text to find missing plot points or logical leaps.

Implications and Future Research

This study of a real-world high school WL class demonstrates that the use of rigorous, authentic reading leads to deeper learning of the target language, strengthens the metacognitive muscle, provides real encounters with complex linguistic content, builds lexicon, enhances feelings of satisfaction and self-efficacy, and engages WL learners. It also exposes how flexible use of the target language and L1 allows learners to access their first language literacy and express complicated thoughts still in the environment of rich exposure to the target language.

L1/L2 in the classroom

Policy makers at institution, school system, and state levels should step away from the outdated 90% target language goal that unintentionally hamstrings students and teachers by constraining use of their more developed literacies. The evidence in this case study suggests that principled use of the L1 frees students to do deeper thinking even while they remain actively engaged in the L2 text through multiple encounters (Brevik & Rindal, 2020; Grabe, 2009; Turnbull & Daily-O'Cain, 2009). In addition, honoring and valuing first language literacy skills begins to recognize WL learners as emergent bilinguals (Turnbull, 2020), and increases positive affect for self-worth and agency in surmounting what might appear to be overwhelming tasks (Dailey-O'Cain & Leibscher, 2009; Macaro, 2009; McMillan & Turnbull, 2009; Swain & Lapkin, 2009; Wang & Zheng, 2017; White & Storch, 2012).

Seal of Biliteracy

If the Seal of Biliteracy is meant to be a celebration of literacy achievement in more than one language, then L2 literacy should be evaluated by the same standards as L1 (Davin & Heineke, 2017; Hancock & Davin, 2020). Students who achieve biliteracy through WL courses should be expected to exhibit the same types of thinking in both languages. Beginning exposure to rigorous, authentic L2 reading before the courses conceptualized as *upper level* or *advanced* gives high school students more complex, interesting, and appropriate material to think about while also super-powering vocabulary and metalinguistic growth. Increased access to lexicon additionally supports augmented proficiency levels of L2 in both writing and speech and prepares students to produce advanced writing and speaking (Turnbull, 2015).

Disciplinary Literacy and a Blended Model

I submit that WL is a specific discipline. World language learners are not simply duplicating L1 literacy in a second language; they are emerging bilinguals whose language processing is complex (Turnbull, 2015; 2020). Reading in the world language classroom has three primary foci, including acquisition of vocabulary and morphemic knowledge to be internalized for efficient, automatic reading and fluency (Samuels, 2013); understanding of operative genre and features important to language choices (Troyan, 2021); and learning sociocultural contexts that are by definition *foreign* and underlie the meaning of texts (Vygotsky, 1978).

The findings of this research make evident that WL readers use their L1 literacy strategies and at the same time need additional support in discipline-specific ways-of-knowing. This suggests several disciplinary literacy strategies be taught or modeled in combination with generic content literacy in a blended model for secondary reading (Lai et al., 2014). World Language readers should learn effective methods to develop comprehension by moving in non-linear and non-lexical ways, and to build context from a single known word, differentiated from the reverse process common in L1. They need to use visual and audio strategies that are not commonly used in other secondary content reading.

Collaborative Work

The present study suggests educators should firmly embrace WL collaborative work as a pedagogical practice to increase higher order metacognitive processing and enrich comprehension (Duke et al., 2011; Gánam-Gutierrez, 2018; Palmgren-Neuvonen, Littleton, & Hirvonen, 2021; Simon & Kalan, 2017; Sormunen, Tanni, & Heinström,

2013; Turnbull, 2015) as well as building motivation and positive reader identities (Gilles et al., 2017; Moore & Seeger, 2010; Pishghadam & Ghardiri, 2011). Participants in this case found collaboration was important to their comprehension growth; it confirmed their own thoughts, expanded or disconfirmed ideas as necessary, and provided modeling of underdeveloped literacy strategies by more competent peers. (Buescher, 2018; Gánam-Gutierrez, 2018; Vygotsky, 1982; Wang & Zheng, 2017). In addition, it was essential to creating a positive classroom context for a shared sense of purpose, enjoyment, developing self-efficacy and confidence, and shaping reader identities as readers of L2 text (Gilles et al., 2017; Moore & Seeger, 2010; Pishghadam and Ghardiri, 2011).

Classroom Practice

The data from this study reveal three pedagogical choices that helped readers build comprehension and could be more widely adopted. First, think aloud procedures (Harp, 2006) are not commonly used at the secondary level, but they afford readers a chance to encapsulate their understanding and focus on metacognitive processes and strategies for reading. They allow the teacher to quickly make formative assessments for each student individually at any given point in the reading process. Second, the collaborative groups in this study were productive in part because each student had developed and stated an opinion of what the passage meant prior to the group discussion; each reader came to the group prepared to participate and having developed something to contribute to the discussion. I did ask the participants to take on specific roles to facilitate the way the collaboration groups functioned; however, their group responsibility did not seem to be key to the success of the process. Rather, with each person being prepared with ideas to offer, the participants routinely mentioned they felt that everyone in the

group equally shared in the meaning making, and that they felt comfortable offering opinions with their peers because everyone in the group presented their own ideas.

Third, this study shows the importance of normalizing re-engagement with text in multiple modes to build reading comprehension. Too often, teachers and students rush through a reading event expecting to gain full understanding in a single reading. In WL, for readers who are already proficient in L1 reading, it is especially important for everyone in the classroom community to be aware that repeated engagement is a powerful strategy and not a remedial one. Each instantiation of the content through reading, listening, creating or responding to questions, examining text features, focusing on metacognition, writing, and presenting opinions builds increased understanding that moves readers closer to the proficiency they achieve in their L1 reading.

Further Empirical Inquiry

Brevik (2019) and others have noted a need for systematic investigation of secondary L2 learners' reading comprehension strategies and the classroom practices that impact them. Few literacy studies have so far been conducted with upper secondary students, and even fewer with WL learners. This study provides one example, but more empirical research with students of different levels of proficiency and in different school contexts are needed. Additional questions to explore include: How do less proficient L1 readers approach L2 reading? What processes do readers use to extrapolate from a single known word to text comprehension? How does early exposure to challenging authentic reading influence later L2 speaking and writing literacy?

Limitations

This study is limited by its small sample size, and the context-specific nature of the case that is explored. Furthermore, as the practitioner researcher, my influences and biases are interwoven throughout. The participants were eager to help me conduct my dissertation research. Though the data collection took place over the entire course, they continued to take the work seriously and were invested in showing me what they could do. Of course, I could only report on their metacognitive processes as the participants reported them to me. My school district does not conduct proficiency testing and I cannot provide quantitative measures of increased proficiency. The findings of the study are not generalizable, but they represent the way that theory was enacted among one teacher's class of American high school students learning a WL in the classroom and may provide comparison for wider contexts.

Conclusion: It is a Puzzle

As I pondered the data and the outcomes the participants demonstrated, I visualized a representation of the meaning of the data, and the metaphor of puzzle-solving emerged. Each reading Event for them was something like opening a new jigsaw puzzle. To make meaning, the individual pieces or meaningful chunks of text had to be broken apart, and then sorted. Sometimes the piece was recognized as a known word or phrase; other times the piece offered just a suggestion of meaning and was held for later consideration. Working back and forth together to fit more pieces to the corner and border pieces of solid knowledge, the participants created meaning in non-linear ways. Once they were able to establish a visual image of what the puzzle was supposed to look like, it was easier for them to find pieces they needed. They filled holes, they found

pieces for one another, and eventually, they were able to build a version that closely resembled the picture on the box.

Reading in the WL is messy. It proceeds in fits and starts and benefits from repeated attempts and the assistance of some friends. It is good to realize that someone else may be holding on to the piece that is needed. It helps to have a solid image of the complete idea so the right pieces can be noticed, tested for fit, and added to the expanding solution. And ultimately, when students feel capable and successful in accomplishing the puzzle of challenging authentic reading, when they build positive social and academic feelings about the class, they are more likely to decide to continue in their study and work towards biliteracy.

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LIST OF APPENDICES

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Appendix B : Excerpt *Une Si Longue Lettre*

Appendix C : Fairy Tale example

Appendix D : Illustration from *Le Petit Prince*

Appendix E : Think-aloud directions

Appendix F : Group collaboration directions

Appendix G : Written summary and reflection directions

Appendix H: Semi-structured interview questions

Appendix I : Observation protocol

APPENDIX A: Blog Post Text - Henna

En termes de mariage, chaque culture possède ses propres traditions. Chez les orientaux, la cérémonie du henné se positionne comme un véritable incontournable. Même si son fonctionnement peut différer en fonction des origines des mariés, les bases restent les mêmes. Le terme henné vient du mot arabe Hena, qui lui-même vient de l'hébreux Hen et qui aura pour signification « trouver grâce ». On considère généralement que la cérémonie du henné aide la future mariée à trouver grâce aux yeux de son époux.

La cérémonie du henné : l'enterrement de vie de jeune fille oriental

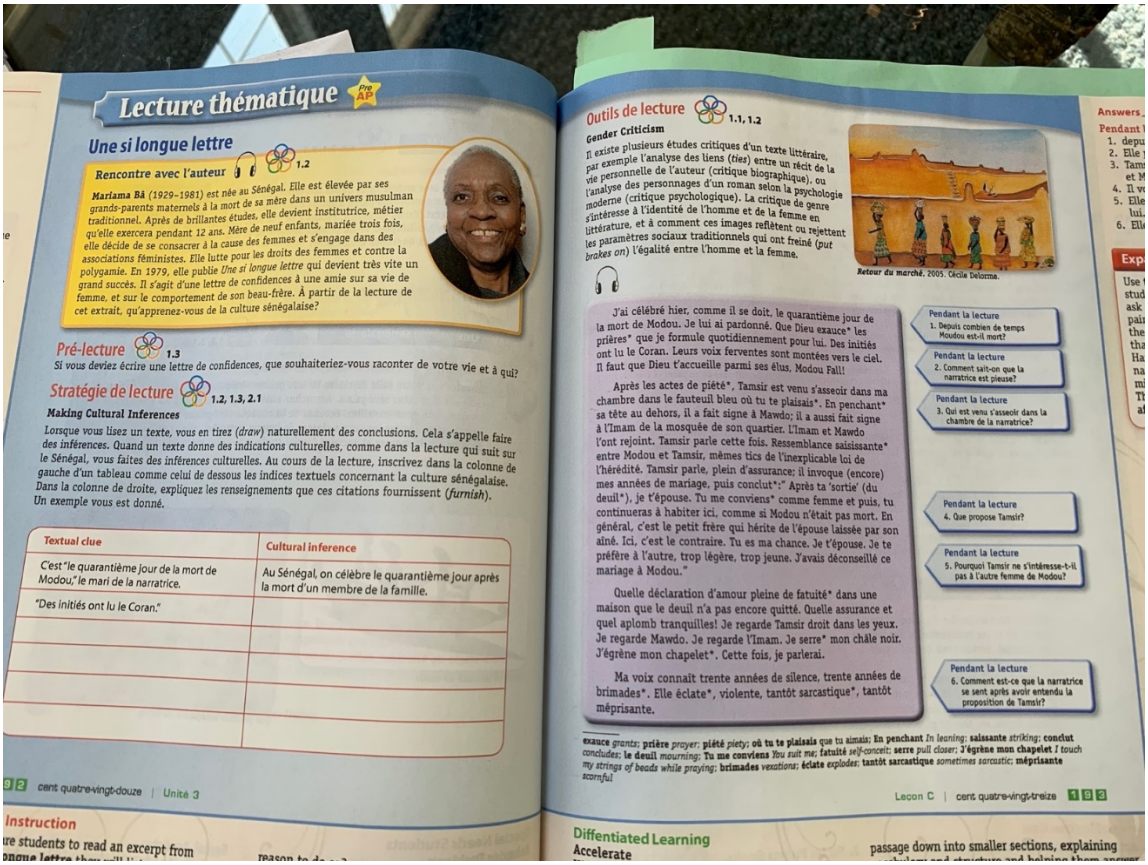
Cette cérémonie incontournable des mariages orientaux peut s'apparenter à l'enterrement de vie de jeune fille qui est organisé pour les futures mariées occidentales. Néanmoins, la symbolique ne sera pas la même, tout comme le déroulement de la cérémonie. Généralement, cette soirée est uniquement réservée aux femmes et elle viendra symboliser le changement de statut de la jeune fille à l'honneur. En effet, c'est à ce moment précis qu'elle laissera de côté la « jeune fille » pour devenir une « épouse ». De façon générale, la cérémonie du henné se tient soit une semaine avec les noces, soit la veille du mariage. Les personnes qui seront conviées, soit chez la jeune fille soit au domicile de ses parents, seront les femmes de sa famille, celles de sa belle-famille ainsi que ses proches amies.

Le rituel du henné visera à appliquer cette substance, se présentant sous forme de patte, sur les mains et les pieds de la future mariée. La symbolique est de lui apporter à la fois prospérité et fécondité tout au long de son mariage. Le henné est, en premier lieu, appliqué à la future mariée. Pour cela, il faut faire appel à une professionnelle portant le nom de « nekacha ». En fonction de la culture de la mariée et de ses souhaits, le henné sera soit appliqué directement sur la paume en étant étalé, soit sous forme de dessins que l'on appellera, dans la culture indienne, « mendhi ». Lors de la cérémonie, la future mariée portera également une robe prévue pour l'occasion qui est un vêtement traditionnel. Une fois que la future mariée aura été marquée par le henné, toutes les autres femmes invitées à la cérémonie pourront également s'en faire appliquer. Pour information, sachez que, dans la culture orientale, le henné est également perçu comme une protection contre le mauvais œil, la jalousie ou bien encore les autres mauvais sentiments que pourraient éprouver des personnes envers le couple.

Les autres spécificités de la cérémonie du henné

Outre l'application du henné sur la jeune mariée et ses invités, la cérémonie sera également une véritable soirée festive. La coutume veut de manger puis de chanter et de danser jusqu'au petit matin. L'usage veut également que des cadeaux symboliques soient apportés à la future mariée. Parmi ceux que l'on apporte le plus souvent, on retrouve le sucre, les fruits secs ou bien encore les œufs. Au même titre que l'application du henné, ces présents ont pour but d'apporter prospérité aux jeunes mariés.

APPENDIX B : Excerpt - *Une Si Longue Lettre*



Lecture thématique

Une si longue lettre

Rencontre avec l'auteur 1.2

Mariama Bâ (1929–1981) est née au Sénégal. Elle est élevée par ses grands-parents maternels à la mort de sa mère dans un univers musulman traditionnel. Après de brillantes études, elle devient institutrice, métier qu'elle exercera pendant 12 ans. Mère de neuf enfants, mariée trois fois, elle décide de se consacrer à la cause des femmes et s'engage dans des associations féministes. Elle lutte pour les droits des femmes et contre la polygamie. En 1979, elle publie *Une si longue lettre* qui devient très vite un grand succès. Il s'agit d'une lettre de confidences à une amie sur sa vie de femme, et sur le comportement de son beau-frère. À partir de la lecture de cet extrait, qu'apprenez-vous de la culture sénégalaise?

Pré-lecture 1.3

Si vous deviez écrire une lettre de confidences, que souhaiteriez-vous raconter de votre vie et à qui?

Stratégie de lecture 1.2, 1.3, 2.1

Making Cultural Inferences

Lorsque vous lisez un texte, vous en tirez (draw) naturellement des conclusions. Cela s'appelle faire des inférences. Quand un texte donne des indications culturelles, comme dans la lecture qui suit sur le Sénégal, vous faites des inférences culturelles. Au cours de la lecture, inscrivez dans la colonne de gauche d'un tableau comme celui de dessous les indices textuels concernant la culture sénégalaise. Dans la colonne de droite, expliquez les renseignements que ces citations fournissent (furnish). Un exemple vous est donné.

Textual clue	Cultural inference
"C'est "le quarantième jour de la mort de Modou," le mari de la narratrice.	Au Sénégal, on célèbre le quarantième jour après la mort d'un membre de la famille.
"Des initiés ont lu le Coran."	

Instruction

ure students to read an excerpt from

Outils de lecture 1.1, 1.2

Gender Criticism

Il existe plusieurs études critiques d'un texte littéraire, par exemple l'analyse des liens (tiez) entre un récit de la vie personnelle de l'auteur (critique biographique), ou l'analyse des personnages d'un roman selon la psychologie moderne (critique psychologique). La critique de genre s'intéresse à l'identité de l'homme et de la femme en littérature, et à comment ces images reflètent ou rejettent les paramètres sociaux traditionnels qui ont freiné (*put brakes on*) l'égalité entre l'homme et la femme.

Retour du marché, 2005. Cécile Deloma.

J'ai célébré hier, comme il se doit, le quarantième jour de la mort de Modou. Je lui ai pardonné. Que Dieu exauce* les prières* que je formule quotidiennement pour lui. Des initiés ont lu le Coran. Leurs voix ferventes sont montées vers le ciel. Il faut que Dieu t'accueille parmi ses élus, Modou Fall!

Après les actes de piété*, Tamsir est venu s'asseoir dans ma chambre dans le fauteuil bleu où tu te plaisais*. En penchant* sa tête au dehors, il a fait signe à Mawdo; il a aussi fait signe à l'Imam de la mosquée de son quartier. L'Imam et Mawdo l'ont rejoint. Tamsir parle cette fois. Ressemblance saisissante* entre Modou et Tamsir, mêmes tics de l'inexplicable loi de l'hérédité. Tamsir parle, plein d'assurance; il invoque (encore) mes années de mariage, puis conclut*:" Après ta 'sortie' (du deuil*), je t'épouse. Tu me conviens* comme femme et puis, tu continueras à habiter ici, comme si Modou n'était pas mort. En général, c'est le petit frère qui hérite de l'épouse laissée par son aîné. Ici, c'est le contraire. Tu es ma chance. Je t'épouse. Je te préfère à l'autre, trop légère, trop jeune. J'avais déconseillé ce mariage à Modou."

Quelle déclaration d'amour pleine de fatuité* dans une maison que le deuil n'a pas encore quitté. Quelle assurance et quel aplomb tranquilles! Je regarde Tamsir droit dans les yeux. Je regarde Mawdo. Je regarde l'Imam. Je serre* mon châle noir. J'égrène mon chapelet*. Cette fois, je parlerai.

Ma voix connaît trente années de silence, trente années de brimades*. Elle éclate*, violente, tantôt sarcastique*, tantôt méprisante.

Pendant la lecture
1. Depuis combien de temps Modou est-il mort?

Pendant la lecture
2. Comment sait-on que la narratrice est pieuse?

Pendant la lecture
3. Qui est venu s'asseoir dans la chambre de la narratrice?

Pendant la lecture
4. Que propose Tamsir?

Pendant la lecture
5. Pourquoi Tamsir ne s'intéresse-t-il pas à l'autre femme de Modou?

Pendant la lecture
6. Comment est-ce que la narratrice se sent après avoir entendu la proposition de Tamsir?

exauce *grants*; **prière** *prayer*; **piété** *piety*; **où tu te plaisais** que tu aimais; **En penchant** *In leaning*; **saisissante** *striking*; **conclut** *concludes*; **le deuil** *mourning*; **Tu me conviens** *You suit me*; **fatuité** *self-conceit*; **serre** *pull closer*; **J'égrène mon chapelet** *I touch my strings of beads while praying*; **brimades** *vexations*; **éclate** *explodes*; **tantôt sarcastique** *sometimes sarcastic*; **méprisante** *scornful*

Diffentiated Learning

Accelerate

passage down into smaller sections, explaining

APPENDIX C : Fairy Tale Example

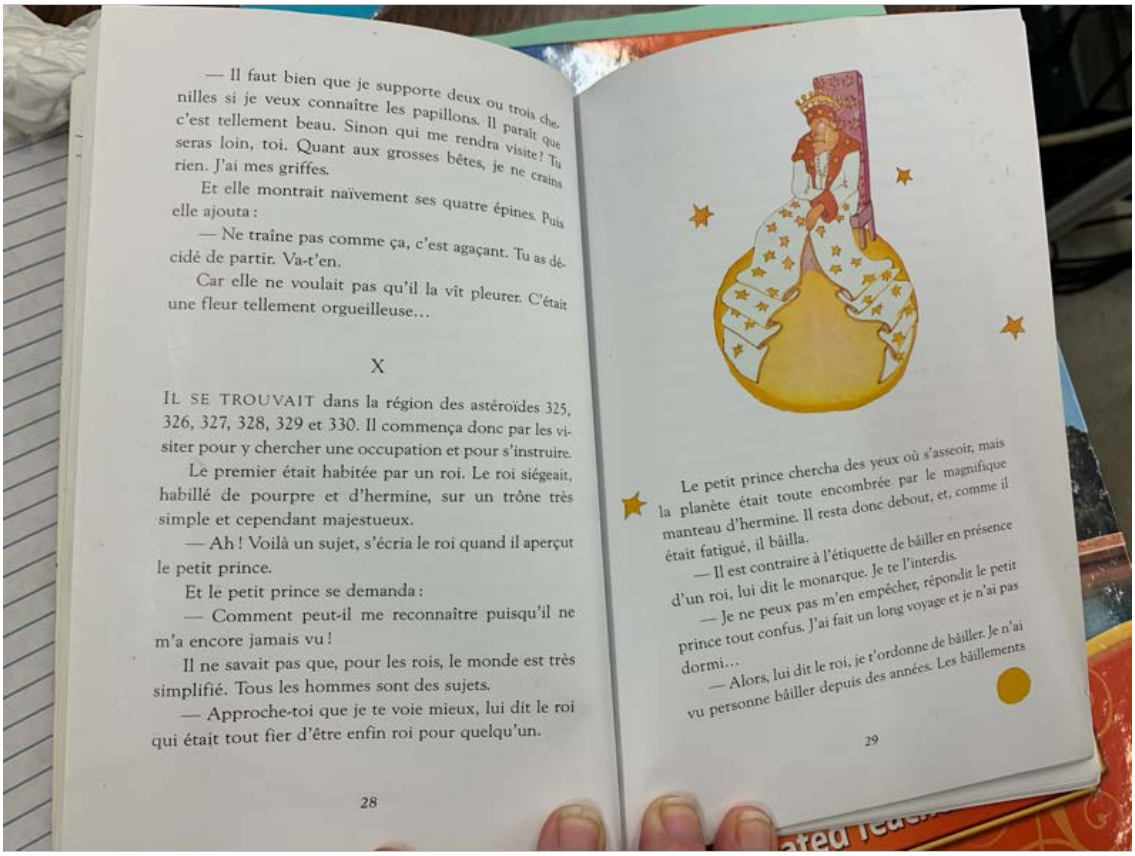
Pendant trois mois, la Bête demanda chaque soir à la Belle si elle voulait l'épouser. Et chaque soir la Belle refusait, non sans se reprocher de faire de la peine à ce monstre au cœur si doux.

Un jour, la Belle dit à la Bête qu'elle souhaitait retourner chez elle. La Bête accepta à la condition qu'elle revienne huit jours plus tard.

– Passez cette bague à votre doigt, expliqua la Bête, et demain vous serez chez vous. Dans une semaine, enlevez-la et vous reviendrez ici comme par enchantement.

– Je vous le promets, dit la Belle.

APPENDIX D : Illustration from *Le Petit Prince*



— Il faut bien que je supporte deux ou trois chenilles si je veux connaître les papillons. Il paraît que c'est tellement beau. Sinon qui me rendra visite? Tu seras loin, toi. Quant aux grosses bêtes, je ne crains rien. J'ai mes griffes.

Et elle montrait naïvement ses quatre épines. Puis elle ajouta :

— Ne traîne pas comme ça, c'est agaçant. Tu as décidé de partir. Va-t'en.

Car elle ne voulait pas qu'il la vît pleurer. C'était une fleur tellement orgueilleuse…

X

IL SE TROUVAIT dans la région des astéroïdes 325, 326, 327, 328, 329 et 330. Il commença donc par les visiter pour y chercher une occupation et pour s'instruire.

Le premier était habitée par un roi. Le roi siégeait, habillé de pourpre et d'hermine, sur un trône très simple et cependant majestueux.

— Ah ! Voilà un sujet, s'écria le roi quand il aperçut le petit prince.

Et le petit prince se demanda :

— Comment peut-il me reconnaître puisqu'il ne m'a encore jamais vu !

Il ne savait pas que, pour les rois, le monde est très simplifié. Tous les hommes sont des sujets.

— Approche-toi que je te voie mieux, lui dit le roi qui était tout fier d'être enfin roi pour quelqu'un.

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Le petit prince chercha des yeux où s'asseoir, mais la planète était toute encombrée par le magnifique manteau d'hermine. Il resta donc debout, et, comme il était fatigué, il bâilla.

— Il est contraire à l'étiquette de bâiller en présence d'un roi, lui dit le monarque. Je te l'interdis.

— Je ne peux pas m'en empêcher, répondit le petit prince tout confus. J'ai fait un long voyage et je n'ai pas dormi…

— Alors, lui dit le roi, je t'ordonne de bâiller. Je n'ai vu personne bâiller depuis des années. Les bâillements

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APPENDIX E: Think-Aloud Directions

Read the passage in your textbook to yourself. You will be asked to tell what the passage means. Use any resources on the page to help you figure out what the passage is saying; however, do not use a translation device. After you have read the passage, record yourself talking through these questions:

- what do you think the passage is about?
- what specific parts of the passage or on the page helped you figure out what it means?
- what is still unclear to you?
- what do you think is easy and/or hard about reading this passage?

When you are finished, upload your audio file to the class Schoology assignment page.

APPENDIX F: Group Collaboration Directions

Small group discussion directions:

Each person in the group will have a specific role, but everyone is required to participate in the discussion.

The roles are:

- Master of Ceremonies: keep the group on task and moving along
- Keeper of the Wisdom: write down important ideas that come up including where to find evidence in the passage to support your answers
- Secretary: write notes to answer the specific questions on a shared Google doc
- Official Recorder: record and upload the WeVideo for your group's work

Task:

1) Each person in the group should share what you think the article means.

2) The keeper of wisdom should keep track of what you agree on, and where there are differences, or where nobody knows yet. Continue as you complete the task. Note evidence in the passage to support your ideas.

3)The master of ceremonies should lead the group discussion through the questions written in the textbook labeled "Pendant"

4) The Secretary should take notes on how you answer the questions on a google doc for everyone to access

5) The recorder is in charge of making sure that your Breakout Meet is recorded and uploaded to Schoology.

Keep this complete discussion to 30 minutes. Then, each person should write the answers to the questions in French on your activities sheet. Label this activity (Lecture Thématique). You may collaborate.

APPENDIX G: Written Summary and Written Reflection Tasks - Event 1

Summary directions:

Write a summary of the passage. You should write approximately eight-ten sentences to cover all the ideas in the passage. Make sure you address each paragraph. You may choose the language(s) in which you wish to express your ideas. Turn in this work.

Reflection activity: (Completed for homework)

Think about the reading activity. Consider how your understanding of the passage changed from the first time you read it until you wrote the summary. You may want to listen to your 'think-aloud" again to remember your first ideas. Then write a reflection.

An excellent reflection will consider such things as: How did the group work affect the way you understood the passage? Which specific contributions to the group helped you see something new or differently? Which of your contributions seemed to have helped others? How challenging was it to write the answers to the questions after the discussion? Which was better at showing your comprehension— answering the questions or writing the summary? Why? How did you make choices about when to use English and when to use French?

APPENDIX H: Semi-structured Interview Questions

Interview 1:
I'm speaking with (insert pseudonym) on (insert date). Thank you for agreeing to talk to me about the way that you approached this reading project for our French class. I'd like to ask you a few questions about the project, and you can tell me anything that you would like to about your thoughts and feelings. You can also say that you don't want to answer any of the questions if you like. I'm really interested in the way that you figured out what the reading was about! Are you ready to go?

Semi-structured interview questions:

1) How would you rate your understanding of the passage when you read it for the first time on your own?

2) How did the think-aloud activity help you?

3) Did the small group work help your understanding? If so, how? Can you give specific examples of things that gave you new ideas or clarified what you were wondering about?

4) How often did you use French when you were talking about what the passage means? Why do you think you did that?

5) How often did you use English when you were talking about what the passage means? Why do you think you did that?

6) How challenging was it to write answers in French to the French questions? Did this help you understand the passage?

7) How did your understanding change between the think-aloud and the summary writing activity? Can you give any specific examples? Why do you think it did (or didn't) change?

8) Did you think specifically about anything that the teacher said (now or in the past) when you were trying to figure things out?

9) Are you aware of thinking at any time not just about what the words themselves

meant, but how language or language structure works to create meaning?

10) How would you rate your understanding of the passage now? Is anything still unclear to you?

11) Which activities were the most helpful to you in figuring out what the passage was about?

12) How do you feel about this reading activity?

13) Is there anything else you would like to share with me?

Interview 2:

1) How would you compare your comprehension of the fairy tale and Chapter X readings to each other? What makes you say that?

2) How would you compare these readings to the blog about henna and the passage about polygamy? Why?

3) Do you notice any patterns in your reading process for French?

4) In you think alouds for the fairy tale and Chapter X, you talked about…

5) In the group discussion for the fairy tale and Chapter X, you said…

6) How do you feel about reading in French?

7) How do you feel about the steps in the reading activities?

8) Do you think specifically about anything that the teacher (I) said (now or in the past)when you were trying to figure things out?

9) Are you aware of thinking at any time not just about what the words themselves meant, but how language or language structure works to create meaning?

10) How would you describe this class to an outsider? How would you describe the rapport or relationship among the students? (as an all-virtual or hybrid learner)

11) How do you feel about this reading activity?

12) Can you tell me a few things about who you are, what your hobbies and interests are, how the pandemic has affected you or your family, what qualities in yourself you are most aware of , either as a person or a student?

APPENDIX I: Observation Protocol

Note-taking structure: 2 columns labeled Descriptive and Reflections

Descriptive notes may include snippets of conversation or visual data
Notes should be jotted roughly every 2 minutes

Guiding questions: For the readers: What is happening? Is there evidence of:

- affective conditions?
- cognitive conditions?
- executive monitor?
- previous L2 instructed literacy strategies?
- L1 literacy strategies?
- teacher influence in meaning-making?
- social construction of meaning?

- In what ways do readers draw from the context of the classroom?
    - physical layout/attributes of the room (if hybrid)
    - aspects of Google Meet and document sharing
    - small group dynamics

- In what ways do readers draw from the texts themselves
    - Strategy boxes/text features
    - Graphics/illustrations
    - translations
- What disconfirming or surprising evidence is present?
    - Surprises????

For me/the teacher:
What are my thoughts/ feelings as I watch the students?
What executive function thoughts am I having?
What notes am I taking for re-teaching or whole group instruction?