Transitioning from a Monolingual to a Dual Language Program: A Case Study of an Elementary School

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TRANSITIONING FROM A MONOLINGUAL TO A DUAL LANGUAGE PROGRAM: A CASE STUDY OF AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

by

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ABSTRACT

This qualitative study investigated the lived experiences of administrators, teachers, and parents from an elementary school that was in its first year of dual language transition. The majority of past studies conducted on dual language education focused on students’ linguistic and academic outcomes (Lindholm-Leary, 2012). Studies investigating dual language schools’ planning, policies, and classroom implementation are significantly less, and those that have, were at schools that were already functioning as dual language with the intent to examine what made the school successful (Alanís & Rodríguez, 2008; Freeman, 1996; Hunt, 2011). Through a phenomenological and case study approach, the current study examined the overall effect that transitioning from a monolingual to a dual language school had on the school culture with foci placed on the curricular and policy planning at the macro-level and its implementation at the micro-level. The study collected data from a variety of sources, including classroom observations, documents, photographs, and interviews with the school’s principal, dual language teachers, and parents of the dual language program. Qualitative coding cycles concluded the following four themes, listed alphabetically: (a) classroom language use and second language differentiation, (b) dual language support, (c) language policy and curriculum development, and (d) teachers’ dispositions on dual language teaching. This study highlighted the importance of inclusive leadership when planning a new dual language program. Additionally, the study shed light on the implementation process of the planned dual language program in which teachers need flexibility to adjust the language and curricular policies that were established at the macro-level.
Classroom teaching is one of the most difficult professions that anyone could ever do, and it often goes unappreciated by the community at large. As classroom teachers, it is your determination and love for the profession that inspire students who have no hope, give a voice to students who are voiceless or have been silenced, value students who have otherwise been marginalized, and instill a love for learning to students who are considered unintelligent because of their ethnic and linguistic backgrounds. This dissertation is dedicated to all classroom teachers in both public and private PreK-12 schools who recognize that linguistic and cultural diversities are qualities that are to be embraced rather than assimilated.
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would be lying if I did not admit that as a child, I would often give speeches in front of a mirror in which I would thank a community of people who helped me achieve some type of monumental award. In my hands was usually some random object I found lying around the house that represented an MTV Music Video Award, a Grammy, or an Oscar – something that I had no talent or business pursuing! However, now that I have completed this dissertation and look to the future regarding a career in higher education and academia, I sincerely believe that I was in the right place, at the right time, and was guided and supported by the right people who helped me realize my talents and strengths for teaching and research. For these people, I am truly grateful.

First, to my parents, thank you for always supporting my decisions to be adventurous and outgoing and take risks related to my career and education, even if you did not always understand or agree with them. Even more, thank you for always taking my teachers’ side when, on the very rare occasions, I got called out on late assignments and did not work to my potential. It was these experiences that laid the foundation to be driven to start and complete this doctoral journey and dissertation with quality.

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others. Through your friendship, I learned to be confident and accepting of myself, humble and understanding even when others around are not, and that my work does have value and is meaningful. Words cannot express how truly grateful I am for you and Giorgio’s support and friendship. Thank you.

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Okay, I know you cannot hear it, but I can. They are playing the music telling me to wrap-up my thank-you speech. Thank you everyone. -Alex
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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

There is no equality of treatment merely by providing students with the same facilities, textbooks, teachers, and curriculum; for students who do not understand English are effectively foreclosed from any meaningful education [...] We know that those who do not understand English are certain to find their classroom experiences wholly incomprehensible and in no way meaningful. (Lau v. Nichols, 1974).

Despite the consistent findings regarding the research that has been conducted on grade school students who were enrolled into dual language (DL) schools, DL education and the overarching umbrella-topic of bilingualism still remain controversial concepts in American education and educational policy (Lessow-Hurley, 2013; Ovando & Combs, 2012). Furthermore, proponents of bilingualism and DL education continue to argue about the planning and policies for DL schools (Burkhauser, Steele, Li, Slater, Bacon, & Miller, 2016; Fajardo & Torres-Guzmán, 2016; Gómez, Freeman, & Freeman; 2005; Ovando & Combs, 2012; Valdés, 1997). The present study sought to explore the language planning, policies, and implementation process at a newly developed DL elementary school in its first year of establishment. This chapter discusses the current issues and context regarding the present study. Additionally, this chapter establishes the study’s theoretical framework, research questions, purpose, and the contributions to the field of DL education as it relates to language planning and policy.

Statement of the Problem

A variety of challenges have the potential to severely impede a DL school’s language planning and policy, at both the planning and implementation stages, which ultimately limits a DL program from reaching its goals regarding bilingualism and biculturalism (de Jong & Bearse, 2014; Freeman, 2000; Paciotto & Delany-Barmann, 2011; Palmer, 2010). Understanding the
achievements and challenges that arise from both the planning and implementation processes has significant influence on a DL school’s overall planning and policies (Forman, 2016). As both qualitative and quantitative-survey research have shown from both newly developed and well-established DL schools, for successful implementation of a school’s planning and policies, all members of the school, including the parents whose children attend, must have a mutual vision for such a program, as well as a clear understanding of their roles and responsibilities during the implementation of a DL program as they relate to the language policy that has been established for the school’s program.

Theoretical Framework

The current study adopted Schein’s (2010) organizational culture and leadership theoretical framework. This section of the chapter will provide an in-depth explanation of Schein’s (2010) model.

Schein’s (2010) Organizational Culture and Leadership Model

Because the current study is deeply rooted in the language policy that is established by DL schools and their implementation processes as the schools’ first year unfolds, it is important to note the overall school environment that has been created as a result. With this in mind, the current study was framed from an organizational, cultural approach to correlate the school’s planning and policy with the overall culture of the school regarding the behaviors and procedures that were to be followed versus the behaviors and procedures that were actually implemented in the school and classrooms and the individual reasoning for such behaviors and procedures.
Schein (1984) first suggested that the commonly used definition of *organizational culture* as being “a shared set of meanings that make it possible for members of a group to interpret and act upon their environment” (p. 3) was not enough to clearly understand the full gravity of the term. Schein (1984) furthered the definition as

the pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered, or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, and that have worked well enough to be considered valid, and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems. (p. 3)

Originally proposed in 1984, Schein’s (1984) model of organizational culture and leadership served as a means to understand “how culture is learned, passed on, and changed” (p. 3). Schein (2004) described the term *culture* as being all encompassing as culture is “being constantly enacted and created by [individuals’] interactions with others” (p. 1). At an organizational level, leadership personnel set the cultural tone with a “set of structures, routines, rules, and norms that guide and constrain behavior” (p. 1). As a result, the cultural tone that is developed from the leadership’s establishment of standards and norms often “constrains, stabilizes, and provides structure and meaning” (p. 1) to the individual members of that particular organization (Schein, 2004).

Since its conception, Schein’s (2010) model was slightly revised to provide an even deeper understanding of the complex dynamics of culture. For the purposes of this study, Schein’s 2010 revision of the model was used. Figure 1 provides a representation of the model and key highlights of each of the three levels that comprise an institution’s overall culture. Each of the levels are further discussed.
1. **Artifacts**
   - Visible and feelable structures and processes
   - Observed behavior
     - Difficult to decipher

2. **Espoused Beliefs and Values**
   - Ideals, goals, values, aspirations
   - Ideologies
   - Rationalizations
     - May or may not be congruent with behavior and other artifacts

3. **Basic Underlying Assumptions**
   - Unconscious, taken-for-granted beliefs and values
     - Determine behavior, perception, thought, and feeling

---

*Figure 1.* Schein’s (2010) Organizational Culture and Leadership Model.

**Artifacts Level**

At this level, Schein (2010) indicated that artifacts are “all the phenomena that you would see, hear, and feel” (p. 23) when first introduced to a new cultural environment. Items may include, as they relate to the current study, the physical environment, language, documents about the institution and its procedures, and appearance. Schein also included individuals’ behavior as well as body language and emotions as they can be observed by the researcher. Schein cautioned that although artifacts are easily observed, they are difficult to decipher and attach meaning due to the fact that “a person’s interpretations [of the artifacts observed] will inevitably be projections of his or her own feelings and reactions” (Schein, 2010, p. 25).
Espoused Beliefs and Values Level

Schein (2010) described the espoused beliefs and values within a culture as the “beliefs, values, norms, and rules of behavior” (p. 23) that are used to give a group of members a sense of cultural identity for themselves and outsiders. In other words, this level describes why members of a cultural group behave in the manner that they do as observed from the artifacts level. From an institutional context, the espoused beliefs and values are often set at the macro-level by the institution’s administration and leadership team. Often the beliefs and values of the group become so standard that they graduate to a type of ideology or philosophy for the organization by which to operate. In other instances, the beliefs and values only serve as a means to rationalize a way of behavior or operation; whereas, in other cases, these beliefs and values lay the foundation to underlying assumptions.

Basic Underlying Assumptions Level

At its most basic description, Schein (2010) indicated that this level explains the culture’s artifacts and beliefs from the previous two levels. The underlying assumptions that individual members may have are “typically unconscious but [...] actually determine how group members perceive, think, and feel” (Schein, 1984, p. 3). These assumptions become unconscious when they are taken for granted by the individuals who feel them, and as a result, one’s assumption regarding a particular viewpoint or topic becomes increasingly less debatable. An assumption exists when an individual refuses to have a discussion about a differing perspective “or when [he or she] consider[s] us ‘insane’ or ‘ignorant’ for bringing something up” (Schein, 1984, p. 4).
In a school setting, school culture has been referred to by many educational researchers and theorists as the values, norms, and routines that have been established by a school’s administration (Heck & Marcoulides, 1996; Hoy, 1990; MacNeil, Prater, & Busch, 2009; Parlar, Cansoy, & Kilinc, 2017). Here, the school becomes the organization, and the school’s administration (i.e., school principal) represents the organization’s leadership personnel. Just as Schein (1984, 2004, 2010) had indicated that an organization’s overall culture is set by those in leadership and authoritative roles, a school’s overall culture is set by its administration and its establishment of acceptable norms, structures, and rules for the school (MacNeil et al., 2009; Parlar et al., 2017). As noted by MacNeil, Prater, and Busch (2009), much research has been conducted on the correlations among administrators of PreK-12 schools, the overall school culture that was resulted, and how both teachers and students perceived this culture (Bulach, 1999; Kytle & Bogotch, 2000; Mortimore, 2001; Nomura, 1999; Taylor & Williams, 2001). In a DL context, research conducted by Hunt (2011) and Forman (2016) examined teachers’ perceptions of the school culture within DL schools that were created by the schools’ administration. These two studies are discussed in more detail in Chapter 2.

Context of the Study

This section of the chapter describes DL education by differentiating it from the term bilingual education. In doing so, this section provides background information regarding the nature of DL education by explaining its goals and benefits to its students. Finally, a summary of the most recent grade school-student demographics in the United States and changes in these demographics over past years is discussed.
Dual Language Education Under the Umbrella of Bilingual Education

Cazden and Snow (1990) suggested that bilingual education is a “simple label for a complex phenomenon” (as cited in Ovando & Combs, 2012, p. 9). Ovando and Combs (2012) pointed out that the term bilingual education is “neither a single uniform program nor a consistent ‘methodology’ […] Rather, it is an approach that encompasses a variety of program models, each of which may promote a variety of distinct goals” (p. 9). The overall goal of bilingual education in the U.S. is to provide content instruction through an additional language for students whose first language (L1) is not English (de Jong, 1995). Not all bilingual programs, however, encourage the same distribution of instructional time between the two languages in the classroom (Baker, 2001 as cited in Ovando & Combs, 2012). Some criticize mainstream bilingual education programs as holding the perspective that students’ L1 is a problem that needs to be corrected (Ray, 2009; Ruíz, 1984). Consequently, these programs impose a subtractive approach in which students are expected to either put aside or completely lose their L1 for their second language (L2) of English (Ray, 2009).

Dual Language Education

Over the years, the terms dual language education and bilingual education have become synonymous in meaning as DL education has “emerg[ed] as the general term to cover a variety of labels” (Torres-Guzmán, Kleyn, Morales-Rodríguez, & Han, 2005, p.454). There is much disagreement regarding what to call educational programs that instruct in two different languages (Cloud, Genesse, & Hamayan, 2000; Crawford, 2004; Lessow-Hurley, 2013; Soltero, 2004). Often times, dual language education, two-way bilingual education, two-way immersion, dual
immersion, and enriched education have been used to describe such a program (Gómez et al., 2005). For the purposes of the present study, the term dual language education follows Gómez, Freeman, and Freeman’s (2005) reference as the term “captures the essential component, which is the development by all students of full conversational and academic proficiency in both languages through the use of these languages for instruction” (p. 148).

Defined simply and matter-of-factly, dual language education refers to academic, content instruction that is provided in two different languages (Freeman, 1996; Lessow-Hurley, 2013; Lindholm-Leary, 2012; Mora, Wink, & Wink, 2001; Ovando & Combs, 2012; Ray, 2009; Torres-Guzmán et al., 2005; Valdés, 1997; Valdes, Freire, & Delavan, 2016). Dual language programs take the position that English learners’ (ELs) L1 use is both a basic, human right and can be utilized as a resource in the students’ academic achievement and L2 acquisition (Gómez et al., 2005; Ruíz, 1984). In doing so, DL education is seen as an additive model that falls under the overarching umbrella of bilingual education (Oberg de la Garza, Mackinney, & Lavigne, 2015). Typically, DL programs are established in elementary schools, beginning in Kindergarten and running through the entirety of the students’ primary schooling (Collier & Thomas, 2004; Oberg de la Garza et al., 2015).

Although DL education consists of various program models, which are described later in Chapter 2, there are several traits that are commonly shared throughout the models and have become characteristic of DL education (Gómez et al., 2005; Oberg de la Garza et al., 2015). Additive bilingualism and biliteracy, or the development of oral proficiency and literacy skills in two different languages (Joseph & Ramani, 2012; King & Fogle, 2006; Warhol & Mayer, 2012), are viewed as the most important (Adelman Reyes & Crawford, 2011; Lindholm-Leary, 2007;
Oberg de la Garza et al., 2015). Additional characteristics that are commonly referred to in DL education include having an equal distribution of students who are native speakers of both languages of instruction in a given classroom, developing a sense and appreciation for biculturalism, and academic instruction is divided between two languages (Adelman Reyes & Crawford, 2011; Lindholm-Leary, 2007; Oberg de la Garza et al., 2015).

Mirroring these characteristics, DL education has been cited as having three common goals: (a) to produce students who are bilingual, (b) to produce students who are biliterate, and (c) to produce students who are bicultural with a sense of cultural awareness for all cultures (Freeman, 1996; Freeman, Freeman, & Mercuri, 2005; Hunt, 2011; Oberg de la Garza et al., 2015; Ovando & Combs, 2012; Thomas & Collier, 2012). For the purposes of the present study, the term dual language education follows Gómez, Freeman, and Freeman’s (2005) reference as the term “captures the essential component, which is the development by all students of full conversational and academic proficiency in both languages through the use of these languages for instruction” (p. 148).

Research has consistently shown that students who were enrolled into DL schools met these goals, particularly the first two with statistical data from standardized state tests (Lindholm-Leary, 2012). Along with her colleagues, Lindholm-Leary found that the students who were enrolled into DL schools not only were considered to be on grade-level after taking their state tests, but many even outperformed their statewide peers in the areas of math, reading, and science when the tests were in both languages (Lindholm-Leary & Borsato, 2006; Lindholm-Leary & Genesse, 2010 as cited in Lindholm-Leary, 2012). Additional benefits of DL education have shown accelerated academic progress, improved creative and critical thinking, increased
school attendance, increased parent-school involvement and participation, improved self-esteem, raised ethnic and language status, and improved schooling behavior (Gómez et al., 2005; Oberg de la Garza, 2015; Thomas & Collier, 2012). English learners who did not succeed in other bilingual settings, such as English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) and transitional bilingual programs, have demonstrated significant growth and success when enrolled into a DL school (Lindholm-Leary, 2001; Thomas & Collier, 2002 as cited in Gómez et al., 2005). Lindholm-Leary (2012) pointed out that many of these academic, outcomes-based studies regarding students who were enrolled into DL schools were conducted with ethnically and linguistically diverse students from impoverished environments.

Recent Schooling Demographics in the United States

At the time of this study, the U.S. Census Bureau (2017) estimated the total population of the United States at 324,781,270 people. The Migration Policy Institute published an article indicating that the immigrant population in the United States exceeded 43.3 million people in 2015 (Zong & Batalova, 2017). Of this figure, approximately 19.5 million were considered to be of Hispanic origin (Zong & Batalova, 2017). Additionally, Spanish is the most commonly spoken language in immigrant households across the United States followed by Mandarin, Cantonese, Tagalog, Vietnamese, French, Arabic, and Korean (Zong & Batalova, 2017). As shown in the statistical data from the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES; 2016c), immigration has caused ethnic shifts among student populations in grade schools throughout the United States.
A report published by the NCES (2016b) estimated 50 million PreK-12 students were enrolled into public schools during the 2013-2014 school year. This includes both traditional public schools and public charter schools as indicated by the NCES (2016b). The enrollment for students between grades PreK-12 who were enrolled into private schools, including both religious and non-religious affiliations, was estimated at 5.4 million students during the same school year (NCES, 2017). Additionally, the NCES (2016c) reported that White student enrollment in public schools had declined from 28.4 million in 2003 to 25.2 million students in 2013; whereas, the enrollment of Hispanic students increased from 9 million to 12.5 million students between the same reported years. It was reported that the percentage of Hispanic students enrolled in public schools had surpassed the enrollment of Black students (NCES, 2016c). Projected student enrollment in public schools shows that Asian/Pacific Islander and Hispanic student populations are expected to increase while White and Black enrollments are expected to decline between 2014 and 2025 (NCES, 2016c). A closer analysis projects that White students in public schools will make up 46 percent of the total student enrollment in 2025 (NCES, 2016c).

Currently, ELs are the fastest growing student population in the United States (Nutta, Mokhtari, & Strebel, 2012). The National Center for Education Statistics (2016a) showed a steady increase in the public school enrollment for students who are considered to be ELs. During the 2003-2004 school year, the enrollment for ELs was estimated at 4.2 million students (NCES, 2016a). In the latest report, it was estimated at 4.5 million students during the 2013-2014 school year (NCES, 2016a).
Catholic Schools and Education

Because the participating school was a Catholic PreK-8 school, it is worth noting the context of U.S. Catholic schools and the hierarchical infrastructure in which the schools operate. In many ways, the administrative infrastructure of U.S. public schools is similar to that of Catholic schools. In public schools, directives are made at the federal level at the U.S. Department of Education. Certain policies are carried into the individual states; however, states have the authority to enact the federal mandates according to local needs and resources, as well as establish additional policies. Individual school districts, headed by a superintendent, have the same authority, to a smaller degree, and so do the principals of the individual schools.

McCoy (1961) explained that the most basic educational policies are set by the Pope and are then “carried on, interpreted, and implemented at the local level by the bishops” of each diocese (p. 48). The diocese can be viewed as similar to a school district or region’s board of education. Because each diocese is governed by individual bishops, the overall organizational structure of each school may vary due to the differences in the individual key actors within the diocese, including “school boards, superintendents, pastors of parishes, and principals of schools” (p. 49-50). This includes the schools’ policies that are created and how they are implemented (p. 49). Each school has a pastor of the parish who oversees the school’s operations, budget, and staffing (p. 50); however, many of these responsibilities may be given to the principal (p. 121-122).

McCoy (1961) described the accountability that Catholic schools have to the state. Many Catholic schools do not receive state funding as states have created policies that prohibit these schools receiving state-allocated funds (p. 104). However, Catholic schools are required to meet
specific mandates as governed by the individual state in which the schools are located (p. 105). The most significant of these mandates concern the following: (a) accreditation, (b) compulsory education, (c) compliance with safety (e.g., students’ immunizations and vaccinations, building codes), and (d) curriculum in which U.S. history and government are compulsory subjects (p. 105-106). Unlike public schools, Catholic schools do not necessarily require teaching certification or certification in the state from which the school is located (p. 106). However, this is at the discretion of the individual schools. Despite these state mandates, “the power of enacting policy for Catholic schools remains with the bishop himself” (p. 114).

In their most recent report, the U.S. Department of Education (2009) indicated that the majority of states, including the District of Colombia, do not require private schools to complete a statewide, standardized assessment. It is worth noting that the participating school in the current study is a private, Catholic school and is located in a state that does not require the school to complete a state assessment. Despite this mandate, the majority of Catholic schools do have their students take some form of a standardized assessment, although the particular assessment may vary depending on the school and its respective diocese (McCoy, 1961). Testing is not uncommon within Catholic schools as it is seen to evaluate the following: (a) basic information about the students, (b) the curriculum and its overall effectiveness, and (c) the overall effectiveness of the teachers.

**Purpose of the Study**

The majority of studies regarding DL education were conducted to demonstrate the cognitive outcomes regarding the academic achievement of students who were enrolled into DL
education programs (Lindholm-Leary, 2012). With respect to this focus of research, the amount of empirical research conducted regarding DL schools’ planning, policy, and implementation have been far less. The purpose of the current study was to investigate the first year of implementation from within an elementary, DL school as it related to the school’s individual planning and policy. Through critical analysis, the current study sought to first examine the school’s ideal planning and policy at the macro-level by employing a content-discursive approach. Next, the study investigated how the school’s ideal planning and policy aligned with its actual implementation at the micro-level in order to realize the achievements and challenges that arose during its first year of implementation. Therefore, the current study seeks to add to the existing literature regarding the planning, policy, and implementation process of newly developed DL schools.

**Research Questions**

The current, qualitative case study included the following three essential research questions:

1. What key processes and activities characterized the transitioning DL school’s language planning and policy?
   a. In what ways did the school’s planning and policy consider the sociopolitical environment of the community in which its students reside?
   b. What types of collaboration occurred in the development of the school’s planning and policy?

2. How did the school implement its planning and policy?
a. How was the school’s planning and policy implemented at the macro-level (i.e., administration)?

b. How was the school’s planning and policy implemented at the micro-level (i.e., teachers)?

3. How was the change from a monolingual, English school to a DL program experienced by the school and its key actors?

   a. How did faculty, administrators, and parents of the students who attended the school experience the change?

   b. What impact on the school culture resulted from the experience of becoming a DL school?

   c. What alignment, if any, existed between the school’s planning and policy and its implementation?

**Significance of the Study**

The type of DL program that is selected by the school should be “responsive to the needs of the children, the school, and the community” (Alanís & Rodríguez, 2008). As such, the well-being of a particular DL school’s students’ academic, linguistic, and cultural successes, as well as the community’s sociopolitical environment, need to be considered before planning can begin (Freeman, 1996). Therefore, the selected program is essential to the planning and policy of the school and its implementation. The studies investigating schools’ planning, policy, and implementation have primarily been conducted in DL schools which have been in operation for at least two years at the time of the study with a primary objective to investigate why these
specific DL schools were considered to be “successful” (Alanís & Rodríguez, 2008; Freeman, 1996; Hunt, 2011; Lindholm-Leary, 2012; Valdés, 1997). Through qualitative data collection methods, the current study provides a rare glimpse into the beliefs, attitudes, and values that educators held regarding DL education, their school’s planning and policy, and their school’s first year of implementation. The study’s findings may inform schools that are considering a DL program about the challenges and realities that may ensue in the schools’ first year as a DL school. Classroom behaviors and teaching practices found from the study may better inform professional development sessions for in-service educators as well as teacher preparation programs regarding instructional practices relevant to DL education. All of the findings, including the dispositions, instructional practices, and the alignment of a school’s planning and policy with its implementation, may lead to significant factors that must be considered when planning the language policy and curriculum of a DL program. This study has the potential to yield implications regarding educational policy and leadership as they relate to planning and policy implementation at both the administrative and instructional levels in DL programs. Additionally, the current study may better inform educators about the nature of collaborations between administrators and teachers when planning for and implementing a first year, DL program.

**Operational Definitions**

The following operational definitions have been described and clarified for a better understanding of the context and content of the study:
• **Additive bilingualism**: The process and product of becoming proficient in two languages (Joseph & Ramani, 2012; King & Fogle, 2006; Warhol & Mayer, 2012).

• **Biculturalism**: The ability to negotiate between two different cultures (Ovando & Combs, 2012).

• **Bilingual education**: An educational system in which the overall goal is to provide content instruction through an additional language (de Jong, 1995; Ovando & Combs, 2012).

• **Bilingualism**: Having native-like control between two languages (Bloomfield, 1933; Lessow-Hurley, 2013).

• **Biliteracy**: The ability to read and write in two different languages (Ovando & Combs, 2012).

• **Dual language education**: Education in which the curriculum is instructed in two languages (Lessow-Hurley, 2013). For the purposes of the current study, it is assumed that one of the two languages is English.

• **English for speakers of other languages (ESOL)**: A field or content area specifically designed to develop students’ English acquisition in PreK-12 schools (Nutta, Strebel, Mokhtari, Mihai, & Crevecoeur-Bryant, 2014).

• **English learner (EL)**: A student who is learning English and whose L1 is a language other than English (Nutta et al., 2014).

• **First language (L1)**: A speaker’s native language (Nutta et al., 2012).

• **Language planning and policy**: The formulation and implementation of linguistic policies that have been designed to prescribe and influence the language to be used in a
particular community, society, or institution and the purposes for which it will be used (Wiley, 1996).

- **Linguistic assimilation**: The belief that everyone in a society or community should become speakers of the dominant language that is upheld by that particular society or community (Wardhaugh, 2010).

- **Macro-level**: As it relates to planning and policy and the current study, macro-level refers to an institutional level that dictates policies to be implemented and is typically comprised of legislators, district officials, and at times, school administrators (Freeman, 1996; Paciotto & Delany-Barmann, 2011).

- **Micro-level**: As it relates to planning and policy and the current study, micro-level refers to an institutional level that carries out and implements policies that come from the macro-level and is typically comprised of teachers and at times, administrators, parents, and community members (Freeman, 1996; Paciotto & Delany-Barmann, 2011).

- **Minority Language**: Presents a language other than English in an English-dominant environment (de Jong, 1995).

- **Monolingualism**: Speakers are proficient in only one language—their L1 (Ellis, 2008).

- **Partner language**: The non-English language that is used as the medium of instruction that accompanies English in a DL program (Burkhauser et al., 2016).

- **Second language (L2)**: A language acquired after the process of a speaker’s L1 acquisition has begun (Nutta et al., 2012).
• **Two-way immersion (TWI):** A DL program in which both native- and non-native-English speaking students learn in the same classroom. Academic, content courses are divided between the two languages of instruction (Lessow-Hurley, 2013).
CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

The current study is rooted in the language planning and policies that dual language (DL) schools have established for implementation of bilingual and DL education programs and curricula. As such, this chapter begins by exploring the existing, theoretical literature regarding the nature of language planning, policies, and implementation in both mono- and bilingual, educational settings as well as a description of the various DL programming models. Next, this chapter presents existing, empirical literature regarding the implementation of DL schools’ planning and policies and ideal implementation plans at both the macro- and micro-levels, as well as the sociopolitical and institutional contexts of the DL schools. Schein’s (2010) organizational culture and leadership model, the theoretical framework the current study adopted as discussed in Chapter 1, can be indirectly applied to the existing studies that will be reviewed in this chapter. This chapter concludes with a brief discussion that summarizes the gap between the existing literature regarding DL education and the research relating to language planning, policy, and implementation.

Theoretical Literature Regarding Dual Language Planning, Policy, and Implementation

The following sections discuss the existing, theoretical literature as it relates to language planning, policy, and implementation. First, a broad description of language planning and policy is presented followed by a discussion as it relates to educational settings. A brief summary regarding the historical, legal contexts of bilingual and DL education follows. This section also provides theoretical literature on monolingualism and its impact on the planning and policies in
school settings. Finally, a brief description of the various programming models that are
commonly used in DL education is provided as a transition to the empirical literature.

Description of Language Planning and Policy

Language policies are the product of an institution’s language planning. In order to
understand the language policies and the reason for implementing them, it is important to first
understand what language planning is. There have been various proposed definitions for
language planning; however, these definitions vary slightly depending on the perspective on
which they are grounded. Wiley (1996) offered a broad definition by indicating that “language
planning is generally seen as entailing the formation and implementation of a policy designed to
prescribe, or influence, the language(s) and varieties of language that will be used and the
purposes for which they will be used” (pp. 107-108). The current study assumed this description.

Kloss (1969) saw language planning as being composed of two interconnected
components: corpus and status planning. As further described by Cooper (1989), corpus planning
refers to the modification of a language’s corpus, whether written or spoken, such as a
language’s orthography or grammatical structure. Status planning, on the other hand, refers to the
prestige and devaluation that is assigned to a language and those who use it (Cooper, 1989).
Status planning may include such political implications as language restrictions and official
language policies (Cooper, 1989; Wiley, 1996). Similar to Kloss’ (1969) perspective on corpus
and status planning, as it relates to language planning, Halliday (2001) indicated that language
planning involves an intricate set of activities which are comprised of two conflicting themes:
meaning and design. Further, language planning introduces “design processes and design
features into a system (namely language) which is naturally evolving” (Halliday, 2001, p. 177). It is institutional in nature due to the planning not being related to the form of any given language but rather to the individuals who use a particular language (Halliday, 2001). Although different wording was employed, a central theme runs through both Kloss (1969) and Halliday’s (2001) definitions of language planning: power and privilege through language. Corpus planning dictates which language or language variety should become standard and proper, thus setting the status and relationship of those who speak the standard, proper language from those who do not (Wiley, 1996).

Additional scholars of language planning proposed a different perspective regarding the definition of language planning. Both Bright (1992) and Jahr (1992) suggested that the objective of language planning is to solve language and communication problems from within a community or society. According to Bright (1992), language planning is a “deliberate, systematic, and theory-based attempt to solve the communication problems of a community by studying the various languages or dialects it uses, and developing a policy concerning their selection and use” (as cited in Wiley, 1996, p. 108). Similarly, Jahr (1992) indicated that language planning attempts to solve language problems within a given society […] Through [language planning], attempts are made to direct, change, or preserve the linguistic norm or the social status […] of a given written or spoken language variety of a language. [Language planning] is usually conducted according to a declared program or a defined set of criteria, and with a deliberate goal. (p. 12-13)

Wardhaugh (2010) cautioned that using language planning to solve language and communication problems is not free from controversy. Wiley (1996) noted that although language planning gives the impression of producing social benefits for community and society
members, using language planning as a means to solve problems related to language and communication may lead to a form of social control.

**Linguistic Goals of Language Planning and Policy**

As suggested by Wiley (1996), language planning and policies typically fall under one or a combination of linguistic, political, or economic goals. Although all three goal types are interrelated, for the purposes of the current study, focus is placed on the linguistic goals that such planning and policies attempt to achieve, as described by Wiley (1996). The type of policy that is selected for achieving these goals is dependent on how stakeholders, or the individuals who have decision-making authority, view language diversity (Wiley, 1996).

Ruíz (1984) proposed three different orientations to language planning as it relates to language diversity which view language as a problem, as a right, and as a resource. In the first orientation, Ruíz (1984) suggested that a particular language, often a minority or subordinate language or variation, may present problems for an entire community or society or for their individual members. Such problems include “poverty, handicap, low educational achievement, little or no social mobility” (Ruíz, 1984, p. 19). When language is viewed as a right, one’s preferred language is viewed as a basic human entitlement, and denying this right would be an ethical and legal violation against the speaker (Ruíz, 1984). Language as a resource not only views language as a right, but language can be used to support initiatives in bridging the social gaps that have been identified (Ruíz, 1984).

Linguistic goals, as they relate to planning and policy, can be broken into three policies: language shifting, language maintenance, and language enrichment (Wiley, 1996). Language
shifting is a common practice throughout the history of humanity and human interaction (Wiley, 1996). When language and linguistic diversity are viewed as problematic, the policy of language shifting is implemented for the purposes of linguistic acquisition and assimilation (Wiley, 1996). Despite not having a constitutional, or official language, the United States has a history of enforcing language shift policies from minority languages, often spoken amongst ethnic minority individuals, to English (Fishman, 1981; Ovando & Combs, 2012).

Loyalties to one’s first language (L1) have led to language maintenance policies (Wiley, 1996). This allegiance to one’s L1 is known as language loyalty (Wiley, 1996). Fishman (1981) provided a sociolinguistic approach to language loyalty, as it relates to language maintenance, by describing it as one’s effort to retain his or her ethnic identity in spite of contrasting linguistic and cultural dominance. In the United States, efforts to enforce a language maintenance policy have been met with considerable opposition and backlash stating that maintaining one’s L1 will lead to national separatism (Fishman, 1981; Wiley, 1996). Although met with much criticism, schools that promote bilingualism, such as DL schools, have been used to support language maintenance policies (Wiley, 1996).

Fishman (1981; 1991) proposed what is now known as the language enrichment policy. This policy seeks to reverse language shifting by finding and executing strategies and assistance to languages that have become subordinate to dominant languages and consequently, have been viewed as less prestigious (Wiley, 1996). Additionally, policy seeks to raise the social and political status of individuals who speak these “lesser” languages (Wiley, 1996). As a result, Tucker’s (1994) concept of ethnic revitalization has often been paired with language enrichment policies (as cited in Wiley, 1996).
Steps Toward Monolingualism and Linguistic Nationalism

Wardhaugh (2010) asserted that language planning is a deliberate human intervention that seeks to interfere with a particular language either by changing, devaluing, or completely eradicating it. Wardhaugh (2010), however, did note that even in the few instances in which language planning was well-intentioned, negative implications arose that were not planned or considered. Historically, language planning has been at the forefront of nationalism and the development and reconstruction of nations (Wright, 2004). As an academic discipline to be studied, language planning and policy more often than not has been accompanied with the topic of nationalism (Wright, 2004). As stated by Wardhaugh (2010), language planning “has become part of modern nation-building because a noticeable trend in the modern world is to make language and nation synonymous” (p. 378). In unifying a nation or society of people, decisions regarding the nation’s language planning may impose policies that recognize an official language, whether it is constitutionally officiated or not, making it the dominant language of the nation (Aikman, 2015; Ovando & Combs, 2012; Wardhaugh, 2010; Wiley, 1996). Blommaert and Verschueren (1998) suggested that societal coherence and cohesion benefit under a monolingual government and ideology. This ideology has been “embedded in top-down and centrally controlled [language policies] based on assumptions that languages can be effectively taught and developed through rational and linear processes of policy design and implementation” (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010 as cited in Aikman, 2015, p. 224).

Linguistic assimilation is just one of many methods in moving a nation towards monolinguism (Cobarrubias, 1983; Lessow-Hurley, 2013; Wardhaugh, 2010). Linguistic assimilation is one of four linguistic ideologies identified by Cobarrubias (1983) that is used to
inform stakeholders and policymakers about language planning. As defined by Wardhaugh (2010), linguistic assimilation refers to “the belief that everyone, regardless of origin, should learn the dominant language of the society” (p. 380). Achieving linguistic assimilation can be accomplished in a variety of methods (Lessow-Hurley, 2013; Wardhaugh, 2010). The recognition of an official language pressures individuals of non-dominant, subordinate, or minority languages to conform to the language that is recognized as dominant or superior, either explicitly or implicitly (Ovando & Combs, 2012; Wardhaugh, 2010).

Language restrictionism, or restricting the use of a particular language, is another common method to achieving linguistic assimilation within a nation (Lessow-Hurley, 2013; Ovando & Combs, 2012). There are many methods for restricting the use of a language; however, complete outlawing of a language and enforcing language-only movements are two common methods (Lessow-Hurley, 2013; Ovando & Combs, 2012; Wardhaugh, 2010). Ovando and Combs (2012) pointed out that language restrictionism does not just place restrictions on one’s preferred language choice. Rather, language restrictionism is a ploy that targets ethnic minorities by evoking extreme nationalistic feelings toward anyone who does not fit a nation’s or a society’s ideal makeup (Ovando & Combs, 2012). Furthermore, “language restrictionism distracts attention from an agenda of immigration restriction” (Ovando & Combs, 2012).

Language Planning and Policy in Educational Settings

Wright (2004) argued that “although formal language policy making and language planning is a relatively recent development in terms of human theory, as an informal activity it is as old as language itself” (p. 1). It was not until the 1960s, however, when language planning
gained academic relevance as a discipline due to various countries, particularly developing nations, experiencing significant social, economic, or political unrest (Wiley, 1996). With various definitions used to explain the purpose and execution of language planning, often allowing the language policies enforced by dominant linguistic ideology to correct problems that were supposedly caused by language, Cooper (1989) offered a different perspective to the purpose of language planning. Cooper’s (1989) language acquisition planning suggested that “language policy-making involves decisions concerning the teaching and use of language, and their careful formulation by those empowered to do so, for the guidance of others” (p. 31) through language spreading. Wiley (1996) described language spreading as “promoting the acquisition of a new language or promoting a variety of a particular language as the standard” (p. 109). As maintained by Cooper (1989), language acquisition planning is particularly relevant in the field of education.

**Language Planning and Policy in Grade Schools**

Stakeholders and policymakers, regardless of their background in the field and profession of education, have considerable, if not full, influence on the planning and policies that are implemented in schools (Aikman, 2015). Ultimately, planning and policies are created from “particular ways of thinking about what language is and the positive and negative identities attributed to languages and their speakers” (Aikman, 2015, pp. 221-222). Furthermore, dispositions regarding the role of languages in schools stem from what individuals believe about a particular language and its capabilities (Aikman, 2015). Three different approaches to how language is viewed in schooling have been identified by Aikman (2015), and as such, each
approach informs the type of policy to be implemented in the schools. The first approach recognizes a dominant language to be used which produces monolingual environments (Aikman 2015). The second references language as a resource for human and social development thus, creating a multilingual and multicultural environment (Aikman, 2015). The third approach views students’ languages as a type of capital that can be accessed at any time and are beneficial to the students’ overall well-being (Aikman, 2015). These three approaches are similar to Ruiz’s (1984) three language orientations related to language planning as referenced previously in this chapter.

In contrast with Aikman’s (2015) three approaches to language planning for schools, two of which support bilingualism and bilingual education, Woolard (1998) stated that schooling places languages on a hierarchal scale, and one’s social status will be reflected based on his or her language. This has implications for policies that are normative and dictate what values and behaviors are acceptable because these policies prescribe the proper form of schooling (Ball, 1990; Levinson, Sutton, & Winstead, 2009). What is deemed proper is determined by certain factors, including one’s L1, social status, ethnicity, and/or socio-economic background. Skutnabb-Kangas (2000) indicated that languages that lack a formalized system of writing are often viewed as being unfit for “proper” schooling.

Historical Overview of the Legalities Regarding Language Planning and Policy in Bilingual Education in the United States

In order to better understand the reasoning for the legal implications that have resulted from federal and state court decisions regarding equitable education for ethnic and language minority students in grade schools, a discussion on the sociopolitical climate related to
bilingualism and bilingual education in the United States is first presented. A summary of the legal ramifications that were derived from the court cases follows.

Sociopolitical Environment Regarding Bilingualism and Bilingual Education

As noted by Ovando and Combs (2012), bilingualism and bilingual education in the United States are controversial topics not only for educators but also for politicians and the general public as they “[evoke] conflicting views of American identity, ethnic pluralism, immigration policy, civil rights, and government” (p. 49). Although bilingual education has received both social and political support, the overall, general public opinion has been in disfavor and resistant of such a concept (Lessow-Hurley, 2013; Ovando & Combs, 2012). Such disdain may stem from language parochialism (Lessow-Hurley, 2013). This type of linguistic disposition “holds multilingualism in low regard and fails to acknowledge the benefits of language sophistication” (Lessow-Hurley, 2013, p. 6).

Bourhis (2001) offered four approaches to bilingualism in which a society or nation can impose upon both linguistic and ethnic minorities: pluralism, civic, assimilation, and ethnist. Of the four, only the pluralist approach promotes and encourages bilingualism and multiculturalism (Bourhis, 2001). Although the civic approach allows minority individuals to retain their personal values, it still expects these individuals to assume the public values of the dominant culture and language (Baker & Wright, 2017). Both the assimilation and ethnist approaches expect minority individuals to completely abandon their native language and culture, either on their own or through governmental policies; however, an ethnist approach may prevent individuals from full assimilation to the dominant culture regardless of their desire to seek membership (Baker &
Additionally, an assimilation approach transforms a speaker’s L1 to a language that becomes invisible or at least viewed as a handicap (Kontra, Phillipson, Skutnabb-Kangas, & Várady, 1999).

Traditionally, the United States has applied the assimilation tactic to minority individuals (Baker & Wright, 2017). Historically, this approach was so strongly endorsed that Presidents Theodore Roosevelt and Woodrow Wilson discouraged minority individuals from even identifying themselves as binational Americans (e.g., Mexican-American, Italian-American, etc.; Baker & Wright, 2017). In the 1980s, Californian Senator S. I. Hayakawa initiated an English-only movement by proposing an amendment to the United States’ Constitution that would proclaim English as the official language (Ovando & Combs, 2012). In doing so, government agencies at all levels (i.e., federal, state, and local) would be prevented from providing services, programs, and translational support for in any language other than English (Ovando & Combs, 2012). Upon his retirement from politics, Hayakawa went on to found U.S. English, an organization that lobbied for English-only regulations and laws (Ovando & Combs, 2012). Hayakawa’s English-only movement was so effective that by 2010, 26 states, including states with high language minority populations such as Arizona, California, and Florida, passed their own official English amendments (Ovando & Combs, 2012). Furthermore, in 1996, the U.S. House of Representatives passed the English Language Empowerment Act which sought to allow the federal government to limit its communicative interactions to be conducted only in English (Ovando & Combs, 2012).

As Aikman (2015) suggested, the languages that are used both in- and outside of schools are “the results of choices made by institutional power holders such as policy makers” (p. 221).
According to Lessow-Hurley (2013), government is included as an institutional power holder as “bilingualism in society and in schooling exists in political contexts, and governments often overtly support or suppress the use of particular languages” (Lessow-Hurley, 2013, p. 18). As a result, schools’ planning and policies are directly impacted by their political environment. Researchers have pointed out that the impact of Hayakawa’s English-only movement, as well as subsequent English-only advocacy groups and governmental statutes, have had a significantly negative influence on America’s perception of not only bilingualism but bilingual education (Baker & Wright, 2017; Lessow-Hurley, 2013; Ovando & Combs, 2012).

Proponents of the English-only ideology often view bilingual education as an act of national and linguistic separatism (Crawford, 2003). As a means to deflect bilingual and DL programs in schools, popular American dispositions support the assimilation approach to schooling as it relates to language-use in schools (Baker & Wright, 2017), both as a social activity and as the medium of instruction (Aikman, 2015). From this perspective, language is seen as a problem (Ruiz, 1984). When language is viewed as a problem rather than as a right or a resource, the ability for language minority speakers to use their L1 as a form of linguistic or cultural capital is stripped away from their basic human rights (Kontra et al., 1999). Additionally, an assimilation approach pushes the concept of the “American melting pot” in which those in favor of assimilation among schools cite the notion that various cultures and languages are “melted” together to create one American model, and as a result, not one is dominant over another (Baker & Wright, 2017). However, a closer analysis of this concept shows that minority individuals actually do compromise their heritage culture and language in order to adopt the host’s (Baker & Wright, 2017).
Legal Ramifications Regarding Bilingual Education

Despite the attacks that have incurred against bilingual education, whether they be from governmental language policies or English-only social movements, proponents of bilingualism and bilingual education have resisted these attacks (Ovando & Combs, 2012). English Plus, a counter-movement to the English-only reforms, advocated for the linguistic rights of individuals who speak minority and subordinate languages (Ovando & Combs, 2012). The English Plus Information Clearinghouse (EPIC; 2017), an advocate group of the English-Plus movement, recognizes that English is the dominant language in the United States and having the capacity to communicate in English has political, economic, and social benefits. However, EPIC (2017) rejects the objectives of English-only ideologies and encourages the use and maintenance of multiple languages through the language as a right and resource orientations (Ruíz, 1984).

Federal policies that support the education, and in some instances the bilingual education, of both ethnic and language minority students can be said to have been grounded in the language as a right orientation (Ruíz, 1984). As early as 1868, all persons, regardless of race, were guaranteed equal protection under the Fourteenth Amendment of the U.S. Constitution (Ovando & Combs, 2012). In analyzing this amendment within the historical context of its ratification, it should be noted that the Fourteenth Amendment was created at the end of the U.S. Civil War. As such, the protections that were constituted by the amendment revolved around the issues of racial discrimination and not explicitly education, per se. As a result, education among grade schools in the United States was stratified through racial segregation.

In the historic 1954 U.S. Supreme Court decision of Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, schools were to be desegregated (Lessow-Hurley, 2013). A decade later, Title VI of the
Civil Rights Act of 1964 declared that no one on the basis of race, color, or national origin could be denied federal assistance (Ovando & Combs, 2012). Like the Fourteenth Amendment, Title VI did not explicitly address education. However, ten years after the ratification of Title VI, the Equal Educational Opportunities Act of 1974 (1974) indicated that educational institutions could not deny students an equal education “on account of his or her race, color, sex, or national origin”. This new act also stated students with “language barriers” (Equal Educational Opportunities Act of 1974, 1974) could not be denied an equal education.

It was not until Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1968, also known as the Bilingual Education Act, that bilingual education and the education of English learners (ELs) were specifically addressed (Lessow-Hurley, 2013). This legislation appropriated $7.5 million to fund educational programs that supported bilingualism and emphasized students who were not from English-dominant environments (Lessow-Hurley, 2013). Revisions to the act in 1974 and 1978 extended this support specifically to ELs (Lessow-Hurley, 2013). Further, over a 25-year span, the Bilingual Education Act funded various training activities and requirements associated with DL education as well as provided basic services to ELs, both pre- and in-service teachers, and program evaluation initiatives (Lessow-Hurley, 2013). The Equal Educational Opportunities Act of 1974 also supported the rights of language minority students as stated in Section 1703(f) of the act:

No state shall deny equal educational opportunity to an individual on account of his or her race, color, sex, or national origin by … (f) the failure by an educational agency to take appropriate action to overcome language barriers that impede equal participation by its students in its instructional programs. (1974)

In addition to the federal mandates to ensure an equitable and quality education for all students, several court decisions ruled in favor of bilingual rights for ELs. In 1974, the U.S.
Supreme Court ruled that the education Chinese ELs were receiving was not equitable in comparison to their native-English speaking (NES) peers in *Lau v. Nichols* (Ovando & Combs, 2012). The Court ruled that by providing “the same facilities, textbooks, teachers, and curriculum; for students who do not understand English are effectively foreclosed from any meaningful education” (as cited by Lessow-Hurley, 2013, p. 141). What resulted from this decision became known as the Lau Remedies which set standards for identifying students as ELs, assessing their language proficiency as it pertains to English, and providing appropriate instruction (Lessow-Hurley, 2013). Subsequent court cases (e.g., *Aspira v. Board of Education of the City of New York [1974], Cintrón v. Brentwood [1978], Castañeda v. Pickard [1981]*) ruled in favor of language minority students and bilingual initiatives in education (Lessow-Hurley, 2013; Ovando & Combs, 2012). In the 1982, U.S. Supreme Court case of *Plyer v. Doe*, the Court ruled it unconstitutional to deny undocumented immigrant children admission to and education in a free, public school (Ovando & Combs, 2012).

In more recent times, 2002’s No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act saw to it that primary funding was allocated to programs that exclusively emphasized the English acquisition of ELs and neglected any mention of bilingual programs (Lessow-Hurley, 2013). At the end of 2015, President Obama replaced NCLB with the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA; U.S. Department of Education, 2018). As it relates to ELs, ESSA “is the reauthorization of the 1965 ESEA” (Migration Policy Institute, 2018) in that separate funding was allocated specifically to the education of ELs through Title III funding (American Federation of Teachers, n.d.). Schools now need to take into account their ELs and their students’ English proficiencies as they relate to school quality and evaluations (American Federation of Teachers, n.d.; Migration Policy Institute, 2018).
Institute, 2018), teacher accountability, and ELs’ academic progress (American Federation of Teachers, n.d.). States and school districts must also establish standards that better identify ELs (e.g., newly arrived, long-term, an EL with a learning disability) and provide ELs with linguistic support and resources both in and outside of the classroom (American Federation of Teachers, n.d.).

Although the United States’ government issues federal mandates regarding educational reform to be handed down at the state level (e.g., NCLB), schools’ planning and policies are widely determined by the individual states’ legislative dispositions on the roles languages play in education (Ovando & Combs, 2012). It should be noted, however, that in the United States, standard English is the de facto official language of government operations and the medium of instruction in schools (Freeman, 1996). Since the initiation of the Bilingual Education Act in 1968, a handful of states have required some level of assistance to support the implementation of bilingual and English for speakers of other languages (ESOL) programs in grade schools (Ovando & Combs, 2012).

By 1983, bilingual education was implemented in 43 states despite state laws explicitly prohibiting minority language instruction in public schools (Ovando & Combs, 2012). Furthermore, all 50 states have recognized ESOL programs as an important aspect of bilingual education, and a handful of states follow the ESOL inclusion/mainstream model (Ovando & Combs, 2012) in which both ELs and students whose L1 is English are together in the same classroom and not separated by the students’ L1. This recognition paved the way for the acknowledgement of DL education and the prospective benefits that ensue, as well as the development of DL schools across the United States.
As Sanchez (2016) pointed out, one notable case is California’s Proposition 227, an amendment that prohibited bilingual instruction in Californian public schools and implemented English as the sole medium of instruction. Critics of bilingual education cited that children’s literacy and oral proficiency in English would be delayed if taught in a DL setting (Sanchez, 2016). Parents who wanted their children to receive bilingual services needed to request a waiver in order for their children to receive such linguistic accommodations in school (Sanchez, 2016; Ulloa, 2016). Proposition 227 was passed by 61 percent of California’s voters in 1998 (Sanchez, 2016). In 2016, Proposition 227 was overturned by nearly 75 percent of Californian voters – a higher percentage than the amount of voters that passed the original proposition (Ulloa, 2016). After 18 years, Proposition 58 allowed Californian public schools to develop and offer not only bilingual programs, but DL instruction as well.

Language Planning and Policy Regarding Dual Language Education

Dual language education seeks to produce high academic-achieving students who are bilingual, biliterate, and bicultural (Freeman, 2000; Freeman, Freeman, & Mercuri, 2005; Hunt, 2011; Lindholm-Leary, 2012; Paciotto & Delany-Barmann, 2011; Torres-Guzmán, Kleyn, Morales-Rodríguez, & Han, 2005). Yet, Lindholm-Leary (2012) identified several challenges that may impede the successful implementation of a DL program and ultimately affect the students from reaching these goals. There is considerable disagreement regarding the specific DL immersion models and how much time should be allocated to instruction in English and the partner language (Burkhauser, Steele, Li, Slater, Bacon, & Miller, 2016; Lindholm-Leary, 2012). A partner language refers to the non-English language of instruction that accompanies English in
a DL program (Burkhauser et al., 2016). Administrators and teachers alike in DL schools have felt that English should be emphasized more than the partner language; therefore, either an unequal balance of content area instruction between English and the partner language results, or the program ceases altogether (Lindholm-Leary, 2012). Similarly, despite research indicating that students who are enrolled into DL programs typically achieve higher results in literacy and content area knowledge in both languages than their non-enrolled peers (Bialystok & Craik, 2010; Burkhauser et al., 2016; Cummins, 2000; Lindholm-Leary & Borsato, 2006; Lindholm-Leary & Genesee, 2010), Lindholm-Leary (2012) indicated that this goal may be not be reached quickly or at all due to accountability issues in the implementation of DL schools’ language planning and policies. Additionally, assessing students’ oral and written academic literacy and proficiency, especially in the partner language, poses a challenge as there are no bilingual assessments to evaluate biliteracy (Lindholm-Leary, 2012).

Many educators and parents whose students attend DL schools assume that enrolling in a DL school will automatically result in successful outcomes for their children (Lindholm-Leary, 2012). However, these goals cannot be achieved by mere enrollment alone; rather, the nature of DL education and the various components that are associated with quality implementation of a DL program need to be clearly understood by all involved (Lindholm-Leary, 2012; Mora, Wink, & Wink, 2001). As Mora, Wink, and Wink (2001) proposed, DL implementation relies on the following three items in order to be successful:

1. a pedagogically-sound model of instruction that fits the demographic realities and resources of the school community;
2. fidelity to the model of instruction in all aspects of implementation, that is congruence;
3. a means of assessing and addressing appropriately, and in a timely manner any incongruity between the model of dual language instruction, the needs of the school community, and the systems created to faithfully implement the model. (p. 445)
Teachers and Their Roles in Dual Language Schools

Teachers are crucial to the success and implementation of a DL program (Goldenberg, 2004; Hunt, 2011). Ovando and Combs (2012) suggested that DL instruction should move past the traditional teaching approaches of typical, monolingual classrooms. García (1991) proposed that in order to be an effective and successful teacher of DL education: (a) instruction must be meaningful to the students and in thematic units so that language and literacy development becomes more accessible, (b) hands-on and collaborative learning amongst the students must occur with instruction, and (c) students must be integrated into collaborative learning groups in which students from both native-language groups comprise a given learning group equally. In this manner, “both learners and teachers share a vision of and responsibility for instruction…, [and where] integration of the student’s home, community, and culture are key elements” (Fern, Anstrom, & Silcox, 1995, p. 1 as cited in Ovando & Combs, 2012). Research conducted on effective DL programs has shown that teachers’ responsibilities should not be strictly limited to the classroom but should include leadership roles (Alanís & Rodríguez, 2008). Hunt (2011) recommended that teachers have equal representation and influence on a DL school’s language planning and policy as well as on the school’s leadership team. At the macro-level, this responsibility enables teachers who are in leadership positions to “work together in a way that their collaboration is always forward moving, reflecting on the past as a way to look toward the future” (Hunt, 2011, p. 189).
Administrators and Their Roles in Dual Language Schools

Research regarding the role of DL school principals has shown that the principals’ “level of commitment to a program is essential to implementing and maintaining enriched education programs such as dual language education” (Alanís & Rodríguez, 2008, p. 315). Some scholars view the principal as having the greatest impact on the long-term success of bilingual programs (Reyes, 2006; Theoharis & O’Toole, 2011). The research of Alanis and Rodríguez (2008) and Hunt (2011), both of which are discussed in greater detail later in this chapter, have shown that when administrators develop leadership teams which include their teaching faculty, DL schools experience more success than DL schools that operate from a completely top-down approach. Hunt (2011) posited that primary responsibilities of administrators from DL schools, as they relate to planning and policy and its implementation, include fostering a collaborative learning environment in which leadership teams are created, entrusting teachers and listening to their concerns regarding the school’s language planning and policy, and allowing for flexibility, where available, in the planning and policy of a DL program.

Dual Language Teacher Shortage

Due to the growing number of DL schools being established throughout the United States, schools are facing a shortage of teachers who are qualified to teach DL education (Oberg de la Garza, Mackinney, & Lavigne, 2015). This could be due to teachers lacking the following qualities required of DL teachers: (a) DL proficiency, (b) knowledge of educational theory and methodology, (c) content knowledge in two languages, and (d) second language instructional skills (Fortune, Tedick, & Walker, 2008). Even DL schools with qualified teachers are seeing a
high turnover amongst their teachers (American Association for Employment in Education, 2008). This could be due to the pressures of being both a content area teacher responsible for meeting state testing scores in English as well as being charged with the responsibility of developing students’ bilingualism in the partner language (Fortune et al., 2008). Oberg de la Garza, Mackinney, and Lavigne’s (2015) study on the challenges that teachers and administrators of DL education face showed that administrators found it difficult to recruit and hire teachers for DL education who possessed all of the necessary credentials to teach in such educational environments. A teacher who possessed DL proficiency, state certification, and content mastery as indicated by state certification was difficult to find (Oberg de la Garza et al., 2015). Moreover, current DL teachers responded that a lack of resources and time, communication issues with parents, and high workloads presented challenges to teaching in DL programs (Oberg de la Garza et al., 2015).

Types of Programming Models in Dual Language Education

Dual language education has become increasingly popular among PreK-12 schools in the United States and is the fastest growing enrichment model (González-Carriedo, Bustos, & Ordóñez, 2016; Hunt, 2011; Valdes, Freire, & Delavan, 2016). Several scholars have referenced DL programs as being the most effective model of bilingual education (Baker, 2011; Cummins, 2003; González-Carriedo et al., 2016; Thomas & Collier, 2010). Many different program models exist within DL education. However, the researcher of the current study chose to focus on the most common: (a) transitional programs, (b) maintenance and enrichment programs, (c) immersion programs, and (d) two-way immersion. All of the models vary in their approach to
DL instruction; however, each model shares the same belief that content instruction, although varied in the amount, is instructed in two different languages.

Lessow-Hurley (2013) provided a more detailed and straightforward description of the various DL program models. Keeping the characteristics of DL programs in mind, the primary goal of each model is to provide academic, content instruction in two languages (Lessow-Hurley, 2013). Transitional programs targeting ELs have the goal of acquiring English. In three years’ time, ELs are to transition from an instructional environment that uses their L1 as a support to an English-only classroom. Maintenance and enrichment programs mirror two-way programs where both groups of native-speaking students reflecting each language of instruction are taught in two languages. These programs allow linguistically diverse students to maintain their L1 while NES students learn an L2. Additionally, students not only are taught in the L2 but also learn their respective L2 through prescriptive language instruction. In other words, students are taught both in and about their respective L2. Immersion programs are similar to maintenance and enrichment programs; however, immersion programs do not teach language prescriptively. Each language is used only as the medium of instruction. Enrichment-immersion programs are designed for monolingual, English speaking students to be immersed into an L2-instructional environment. Contrary to enrichment-immersion, English-immersion programs, also known as structured immersion, immerse language minority students into classrooms and instructional environments in which English is the language of instruction.

Two-way immersion (TWI) programs, also known as two-way development immersion or two-way bilingual immersion, involve both native- and non-NES students learning in the same classroom. Academic, content courses are divided between the two languages of instruction.
Within the TWI program, the 50-50 and 90-10 models are the most common in DL schools (Lindholm-Leary, 2012; Oberg de la Garza, 2015). In a 50-50 model, content courses are divided equally so that 50 percent of instruction is delivered in English and 50 percent is in the partner language (Lindholm-Leary, 2012; Oberg de la Garza, 2015). In a 90-10 model, 90 percent of instruction is delivered in the non-English, partner language while the other 10 percent is in English (Lindholm-Leary, 2012; Oberg de la Garza, 2015). This model typically is implemented in the lower grades of elementary (i.e., Kindergarten and/or first grade) and gradually adds English as the instructional medium as the grades progress until they reach a 50-50 model by the fifth or sixth grades (Lindholm-Leary, 2012). The TWI program is most common and preferred in the United States, and the Spanish-English model is the most common within TWI programs (Lindholm-Leary, 2016). It is worth noting that in reading over the existing literature, the majority of researchers have used the TWI program as a blanketed definition to refer to the terms dual language education and dual language program.

### Empirical Literature Regarding Dual Language Planning and Language Policy and Implementation

The existing literature regarding research studies that have been conducted on DL education as they relate to DL schools’ language planning and policies is summarized in this section of the literature review. Additionally, this section includes literature on DL schools in which the studies were conducted both during and after their first year of implementation and establishment as the majority of these studies have been conducted after a school’s first year. Finally, it is worth noting that all studies presented are arranged by their year of publication, beginning with the earliest.
Lambert and Tucker’s (1972) St. Lambert Experiment

It is only appropriate to begin the empirical literature review with a description of Lambert and Tucker’s (1972) St. Lambert experimental model. In the 1960s, parental concern in St. Lambert, a suburb of Montreal, Quebec, Canada, grew regarding the socio-political environment of French rising to be the dominant language in the Montreal area. English-speaking families realized the need for their children to acquire French, and thus they consulted with McGill University faculty. In 1965, after much planning, Lambert and Tucker implemented an experimental DL immersion program in which NES students would receive their content instruction in both English and French beginning in Kindergarten. The primary purpose of the experiment was to “assess and evaluate the impact of elementary schooling conducted primarily in a second language on the linguistic, intellectual, and attitudinal development of children” (Lambert & Tucker, 1972, p. 8) and to determine the effect that the children’s primary language of instruction (i.e., French for the experimental group and English for the control group) had on their overall language acquisition and perceptions of English.

The experimental class, as Lambert and Tucker (1972) termed it, was comprised of NES students who received their instruction entirely in French until they entered the fourth grade. Once the study participants reached the fourth grade, academic English was introduced. The control groups consisted of two different language categories: the first was comprised of NES students while, the second was comprised of native-French speaking (NFS) students. The NES control class received their instruction entirely in English; whereas, the NFS control class received their instruction solely in French. By seventh grade, students from the experimental class outperformed their peers from both the NES and NFS control classes in literacy-based
assessments and overall academics in both French and English. Additionally, it was observed that students from the experimental class exhibited more favorable attitudes and perceptions toward the French language, culture, and people than the NES control class. Due to its overwhelming success, along with the fact that this was one of the first DL models to be implemented, the St. Lambert experiment is often credited as the model that led to the development and implementation of subsequent DL programs (Wesche, 2002).

Freeman’s (1996) Research at Oyster Bilingual School

Freeman’s (1996) research at Oyster Bilingual School (OBS) spanned over a two-year period and investigated the school’s language planning and policy and how it was implemented. Through an ethnographic case study approach, Freeman employed a discourse analysis in which she investigated how OBS’s planning and policy functioned in its sociopolitical environment. Freeman conducted continuous, open-ended interviews with OBS’s policymakers, administrators, teachers, parents, and students as well as observations both in and outside of the classrooms (e.g., lunchroom). A content discourse analysis was also conducted on OBS’s policy statements and other pertinent documents relating to OBS’s planning and policy and sociopolitical environment (e.g., newspapers, curricular materials) as well as materials and documents that were distributed to the students and families.

Freeman (1996) categorized her findings from OBS into the three levels. At the sociopolitical level, Freeman provided a description of the school and its student population. The school is a part of District of Columbia Public Schools and has been functioning since 1971. At the time of the study, the student body represented over 25 countries in which the majority of
students, 58 percent, identified as Hispanic. Caucasian students made up 26 percent, African American students represented 12 percent, and Asian students comprised only 4 percent of the student population. Additionally, 74 percent of the students were considered to be from language minority backgrounds, and 24 percent were considered ELs. By the time Freeman began her study, OBS was already an established two-way, Spanish-English DL school and had received several awards and recognitions for its success amongst both its faculty and students. Freeman posited that OBS made a purposeful statement against the norm which assumed that language was a problem (Ruiz, 1984) by viewing the students’ and families’ L1 as resources (Ruiz, 1984). Further, OBS’s DL program was initiated through a grass-roots effort by the local Hispanic community who struggled to meet the needs of the growing Hispanic population in Washington, D.C. Both parents and educators in the area insisted that the superintendent advocate for a two-way immersion (TWI) program in the school.

At the institutional level, Freeman (1996) noted that OBS’s language planning goals encouraged its linguistically and ethnically diverse students to have a positive self-perception. Several researchers suggest that one’s language and culture are interrelated and make up an essential aspect of their overall identity (Bucholtz, 2011; Norton, 2013; Wintergerst & McVeigh, 2011). Freeman (1996) stated that OBS positioned its language planning by emphasizing the language minority (i.e., Spanish) through collaboration with the school’s language majority (i.e., English). As Freeman learned, the teachers at the school did not feel that the language planning process was completed as a top-down scenario, but rather, the planning included administrators, teachers, parents, and other community members.
Freeman (1996) pointed out that OBS emphasized bilingualism, academic biliteracy, and biculturalism among all of its students through equal linguistic representation. As the language plan indicated, content area instruction is divided into equal parts to promote a 50-50 TWI model. As such, 50 percent of the content subjects are taught in Spanish and the other 50 percent are in English. Native-English and native-Spanish speaking students were integrated into the same content area classes rather than separating the two language groups. Within the classes, students were placed into cooperative learning communities which included both Spanish- and English-speaking students. Another goal for OBS was to encourage Spanish language maintenance as it was considered to be the language minority of the school and the area. This was also initiated as a means to elevate Spanish to have the same social status as English.

Mainstream curricula in grade schools emphasize a Eurocentric perspective which ultimately marginalizes and negatively stereotypes language and ethnic minorities and devalues their experiences (Nieto, 1992; Aikman, 2015). With this in mind, as Freeman (1996) noted, OBS made a conscious effort to promote and encourage the concept of multiculturalism by infusing academic and literary contributions from various regions of the world, specifically from Latino, African American, African, and Caribbean backgrounds which reflected the majority of the school’s students and faculty. Additionally, students, both Spanish- and English-speaking, were encouraged to “look critically at representations of different groups in the curriculum content and to relate their own lived experiences to the various constructions of history” (Freeman, 1996, p. 573).

Drawing upon classroom observations, interviews with both teachers and students, and analyzing documents at both the macro- (e.g., policy) and micro-level (e.g., student homework),
Freeman (1996) was able to identify areas in which OBS’s situational level, or actual implementation, was or was not meeting the school’s institutional level, or ideal language plan and policy. Diversity amongst the faculty was considered to be a resource; however, whereas all Spanish-designated teachers were required to be able to speak English, not all English-designated teachers needed to speak Spanish. Freeman concluded that bilingualism, although essential for OBS’s students, was not essential for its faculty.

Another observation fell within the program model itself. Because OBS employed a 50-50 TWI model, all students in the English-dominant classes were expected to use English with one another and the teachers and vice-versa for the Spanish-dominant classes. Additionally, the same expectation was to be upheld by the teachers when communicating with their students. However, it was found that a considerable amount of Spanish-to-English code-switching, or the use of two or more languages in a single communicative interaction (Nava Gómez & García, 2012), was used by both the Spanish-speaking students and Spanish-dominant teachers. Freeman (1996) observed, however, very little to no code-switching from the English-speaking students and English-dominant teachers. An additional discrepancy lay within the distribution of the two languages as they related to students’ evaluation. A student was able to fail a reading or content area course if the language was in Spanish and still be promoted to the next grade; however, if the student failed a class that was in English, he or she would be retained for that grade level. Finally, Freeman noted that although all students appeared to be able to recognize discriminatory practices against others both in and out of school, they still associated amongst themselves based on their L1 and ethnic groups in such places as the cafeteria.
Freeman’s (2000) Research at Julia de Burgos Bilingual Middle School

After her research at OBS, Freeman (2000) conducted a subsequent study at Julia de Burgos Bilingual Middle School (JBBMS) in Philadelphia. At the time of the study in 1996, JBBMS had just received a grant to transform the school from a monolingual environment where English was the medium of instruction to a DL school. Freeman began her study at JBBMS as it was beginning its first year of implementation as a newly developed TWI school. The school’s DL program was created because its students came from low-income backgrounds of Puerto Rican descent. Before JBBMS began its DL program, it was identified as being one of the lowest socio-economic serving schools in the district.

As reported by Freeman (2000), JBBMS’s ideal language plan and policy was created at the macro-level by administrators and consultants and was implemented in a top-down manner in which the teachers had no influence on the language planning that went into the program’s development. As consultants, so-to-speak, teachers were expected to attend various professional development workshops on bilingual and DL education. Even though JBMMS shared the common goals threaded throughout most DL education programs (Freeman, 2000; Lindholm-Leary, 2012; Paciotto & Delany-Barmann, 2011; Torres-Guzmán et al., 2005), JBBMS strongly emphasized the need for high achievement in content areas such as math and science. Therefore, a 30-70 model was employed in which 30 percent of content instruction was to be in Spanish and 70 percent was to be in English. The school was organized into small learning communities where each community consisted of four to five teachers and 100-125 students with at least two bilingual teachers. Further, both native-Spanish and native-English speaking students were integrated into each learning community.
Freeman (2000) found that although the content area classes were taught in their respective languages, there was considerable code-switching amongst students within their learning communities. Even more interesting was that the teachers often encouraged their students to code-switch as a means to draw upon their individual strengths. Vocabulary was often written on the board in both languages by the teachers. The school recognized that the distribution of students in each learning community was not balanced, and as such, both the administrators and the teachers began developing a plan to ensure equal distribution of native-Spanish and native-English speaking students in each learning community. This unequal distribution was partly due to the confusion of how to place students who were, for example, of Hispanic descent but were native-English speakers versus students who were of Hispanic descent but considered to be ELs. The goal of becoming bicultural and bilingual proved to be more challenging than initially planned as the school found an overwhelming large population of students who resisted speaking in Spanish. This was attributed by many teachers as being the result of Spanish not having the same importance as English in the school. Like OBS, Freeman found that Spanish still had lower status than English at JBBMS because students were promoted to the next grade level despite failing a course that was taught in Spanish, yet retained if they failed a course that was taught in English. Finally, Freeman noted that although the teachers did not find the professional development workshops to be relevant, they did use them as a catalyst for requesting structural changes to the program from their administrators. Some of their requests were incorporated into the revision of the school’s language planning and policy while others were not.
Alanís and Rodríguez’s (2008) Research at City Elementary School

Alanís and Rodríguez (2008) conducted a study at a DL school in Texas that was already considered to be a successful model of a DL school. The purpose of this study was to “explore the factors that may have contributed to the success and sustainability of [the school]” (Alanís & Rodríguez, 2008, p. 307). The DL school, City Elementary School (CES), was a K-5 school with 321 students in which 85 percent were considered to be of a low socio-economic status, nearly 88 percent were of Mexican descent, and nearly 30 percent were classified as native-Spanish speakers. The school’s DL program was established in 1995 and employed a 90-10 TWI model where 90 percent of content instruction was in Spanish. However, by the fourth grade, all content instruction was taught through the 50-50 TWI model.

Alanís and Rodríguez (2008) employed a mixed-methods design that analyzed data from school and classroom observations, interviews, and fifth grade students’ state testing scores in reading, math, and science. All 10 interview participants were considered to be native-Spanish speaking, Mexican-American teachers whose teaching experience in bilingual education ranged from 1-19 years. Findings showed that the students at this school consistently outperformed other students throughout the district in English literacy. The students’ math and science scores were similar to their reading scores; however, the math scores were higher than their grade-level peers throughout the state. From a qualitative analysis, it was found that the teachers were cautious not to promote one language over another so that both Spanish and English had the same status. Additionally, essential to the classroom makeup, all students were integrated in learning communities and pairs. It was also understood that students from both native languages
appreciated opportunities to learn the other language which was in opposition to Freeman’s (2000) results at JBBMS.

Alanís and Rodríguez (2008) concluded that teachers were essential to the success of CES. All of the teachers who were interviewed were excited and confident in their school’s DL program. They also indicated that they felt well supported by the administration to adjust the curriculum to meet the needs of the students; however, Alanís and Rodríguez did not specify which parts of the curriculum, as related to the CES’s language planning and policy, were specifically adjusted. It was observed that instruction was learner-centered with plenty of hands-on activities to accompany instructional lectures. At the macro-level, the principal of CES was considered to be knowledgeable about DL education and committed to the program’s success. As such, the principal participated in continuous professional development with her teachers regarding DL education and allowed both her teachers and students’ parents to have ample influence on the program’s planning, policy, and implementation.

Hunt’s (2011) Research in New York City Bilingual Schools

In continuing with the importance of DL schools’ leadership and administrative role, Hunt (2011) conducted a year-long, qualitative study which sought to compare the roles of different leadership teams from three different DL schools, with a particular emphasis on each of the schools’ principal, in the New York City vicinity. Each of the three schools (i.e., School A, School B, and School C) have been established as a DL school for at least 10 years at the time of the study. All three schools had a Hispanic-majority, student population where Spanish was the L1; therefore, the two languages of instruction were Spanish and English. Hunt did not reference
the specific TWI model (e.g., 50-50, 90-10, etc.) for each school. Methods of data collection included a one-week shadowing of each principal and interviews with the principals, assistant principals, leadership team members, and classroom teachers.

Hunt (2011) framed her study in the principals’ dispositions and actions relating to their DL school’s mission, collaborative leadership, amount of flexibility allowed for the school’s language planning and policy, and amount of trust they had in their teachers. Results showed that both the principals and their teachers had the same shared vision and philosophy for the school by producing students who are bilingual and biliterate. It was also found that all three principals encouraged collaboration amongst and with their teachers, and both the teachers and principals viewed leadership as a shared responsibility. Teachers also felt that they were included in the leadership teams and decision-making as they related to the whole school’s implementation of the language planning and policy. Hunt found that the topic of trust became categorized into two separate aspects. First, the principals actively worked and sought to trust their teachers, and many of the teachers expressed that they felt trusted by their principal so much that they enjoyed coming into work. Second, it was learned that both the teachers and the principals trusted and believed in the school’s plan and policy and overall program for producing biliterate and bilingual students who can achieve high expectations related to content area learning. Finally, flexibility was “visible in both decision-making and how the dual language program [was] implemented, supported, and continue[d] to develop” (Hunt, 2011, p. 200). All three schools had elements of the policy that were mandatory; however, principals encouraged teachers to teach to their own styles. Additionally, the teachers remarked that they felt that they were allowed to
make adjustments as needed, based on their students’ needs, to certain aspects of how the implementation of the school’s policy was executed.

Lee and Jeong’s (2013) Research at Woori School

Lee and Jeong (2013) conducted a study at a Korean-English DL school in its second year of implementation. The Woori School had a 50-50 TWI model. At the time of the study, Korean-speaking students made up the majority of the school at nearly 80 percent of the student body and the Korean language was the dominant L1 of the school. Lee and Jeong observed classroom instruction for eight days over a course of one year and visited six Korean families whose children attended the school. The teachers who participated, Ms. Park and Ms. Kim, were generation 1.5 Korean-Americans having immigrated to the United States as children. Both were fluent in English and Korean and possessed bilingual certification.

Lee and Jeong’s (2013) findings were categorized by (a) the benefits of the DL program, (b) concerns and challenges of the DL program, and (c) any tensions that the parents and teachers experienced throughout the year. The parents, students, and teachers felt that the program was beneficial to the students’ bilingual development in Korean and English. Additionally, they felt that the program reinforced the students’ Korean ethnic and cultural heritage. The parents recognized that if the school was a monolingual-English school, they would not have felt comfortable talking with their children’s teachers.

Reported concerns and tensions from Lee and Jeong’s (2013) results showed that the teachers and students both code-switched between Korean and English despite the 50-50 model. The parents were concerned that their children’s development of English was slow due to this
reasoning and felt that the school was more of a 70-30 model in which English was spoken 30 percent of the day rather than 50 percent. Additionally, they were uncomfortable with the teachers’ level of Korean fluency as they felt that the teachers’ Korean proficiency was not native. Further, the parents reported that much of what the teachers had been teaching, the Korean that was used during instruction and in informal settings, and the materials going home that were in Korean were often plagued with spelling, grammatical, and lexical mistakes. All of these issues were cited as being the reasoning behind the student enrollment attrition that occurred among the Korean families.

Whitacre’s (2015) Research on Administrators’ Attitudes Regarding Dual Language Education

Although not a study that specifically discusses the implementation of a DL school’s language planning and policy, Whitacre’s (2015) research on administrators’ attitudes and perspectives on the effectiveness of implementing a DL program is worth noting. Surveying 20 administrators of DL schools and interviewing 10, Whitacre found that in order for a DL program to be effective, “there needs to be a favorable attitude toward bilingualism and language minority students from community, administration, and faculty” (Whitacre, 2015, p. 40). Additionally, similar to Gómez (2000), Whitacre (2015) suggested that a clear mission statement, effective teacher preparation in DL education, a leadership team consisting of both faculty and administration, well-defined instructional practices, and community and family involvement are essential to effectively implement a DL program. A closer analysis of the findings showed that the majority of administrators fully supported DL programs and felt that DL education, as a whole, was superior to English immersion and ESOL programs. Further, all
administrators believed that a strong leadership team was essential. Faculty, parents, and community members needed to have a common belief and support in the DL program.

Administrators from Whitacre’s (2015) study also felt that stronger professional development from their school districts regarding DL education was needed at both the macro- and micro-levels. They acknowledged that they were unclear as to how to observe teachers appropriately when it came to DL education. Additionally, on-going professional development was needed for new teachers. Academic language proficiency in both languages, particularly in Spanish, was also an issue for both faculty and administrators.

Forman’s (2016) Research at Mountain Ridge Middle School

Forman (2016) conducted a study, through a critical lens, of Mountain Ridge Middle School’s (MRMS) early phases of implementation in Washington. At the time of the study, MRMS had not yet transitioned to a DL school, and Forman’s 12 interviews focused on the political and personal differences that faculty had to the upcoming language planning and policy. The school’s student body was comprised mainly of Hispanic students whose L1 was Spanish and Asian/Pacific Islander students at a combined 48 percent. Caucasian students formed 11 percent of the study body. Further, 17 percent of the students were considered to be ELs; however, Forman noted that the percentage of students who spoke a language other than English at home was far higher. Such languages included Spanish, Vietnamese, Samoan, and Somali.

Forman (2016) interviewed teachers of Spanish, social studies, math, ESOL, special education, and science as well as counselors, family liaisons, bilingual paraprofessionals, literacy coaches, and school union representatives. At the time of the interviews, the district had not
specified to MRMS of the planning and policy for the upcoming DL program; however, most teachers concluded that it would include either Spanish or Vietnamese and English. As such, the faculty interviewed were confused as to the new planning and policy and felt uncomfortable about not only having to teach English to ELs but also a new language that they may or may not know. Despite this misgiving, the faculty did acknowledge the academic, cultural, and linguistic benefits that a DL program would have on the students and their families. A few of the members worried that the new change would only segregate and stratify the students. Because of the upcoming planning and policy, many faculty members indicated that their personal perspectives of ELs and ESOL education changed. They began to realize the value of ELs and appreciate their backgrounds. Only two faculty members questioned whether or not students should be learning in a new language despite not having mastered English.

The majority of faculty members, as Forman (2016) found, were concerned that their jobs were at jeopardy due to not being bilingual in the unannounced partner language. Another fear of theirs was the increased workload that they assumed would ensue with the new policy. As a result, some members were worried that other teachers in the school would leave their jobs; thus, they would have to pick up their workload until a replacement was hired. Similarly, teachers were unsure as to the role of the administration and the district once the DL program was initiated. Faculty also worried that their teaching styles and approaches would be restricted or dictated by a top-down approach.
Fajardo and Torres-Guzmán’s (2016) Bilingual Professional Development

Lastly, Fajardo and Torres-Guzmán (2016) conducted a study regarding the identity struggle of one particular teacher who underwent a workshop on DL education. In this study, Fajardo and Torres-Guzmán originally sought to investigate the identities of four teachers who taught in English at a DL school in New York; however, their findings focused on the identity struggle of one participant named Veronica who had a low proficiency in Spanish. During the workshop, Veronica became frustrated with the learning when it was in Spanish as she applied learning the L2 under the same parameters as she did English, her L1. At the beginning of the workshop, she had the understanding that her students learned because her teaching style was effective despite it being framed in a monolingual format of instruction. As such, the contexts of second language acquisition as they relate to language teaching and learning were not available to her students. Once Veronica started to share the same feelings as her ELs may have felt in her class by not being able to understand what the workshop leaders were teaching in Spanish she began to feel empathy for her ELs. Fajardo and Guzmán were then able to observe Veronica’s changing disposition on teaching, and she began to realize that her own monolingual teaching style needed adjustment so that it could be accessible to all students, including her ELs.

Gap in Dual Language Education and Language Planning, Policy, and Implementation

The majority of research regarding DL education investigated student outcomes as they relate to both language acquisition and academic progression (Lindholm-Leary, 2012). As shown in the literature, there are few studies regarding DL education with a focus on language planning and policy and its implementation in DL schools. Even within these studies, much of the
research was conducted in schools that were already established, and the researchers went into the studies with the intent to investigate what made each school successful (Alanis & Rodríguez, 2008; Freeman 1996; Hunt, 2011; Lee & Jeong, 2013). Very few studies have investigated DL schools’ policies, the planning that went into the policies, and the implementation of these during the schools’ first year of transition. Forman’s (2016) study detailed the early planning stages of MRMS’s DL program but not the implementation phase. To the researcher’s knowledge, the only two DL schools to investigate all three elements include Lambert and Tucker’s (1972) St. Lambert experiment and Freeman’s (2000) research at JBMS.
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the current study’s research design, sampling and recruitment methods, the participants, and procedures for data collection and analyses. This chapter ends with a discussion regarding the role of the researcher in the study and his disclosure of subjectivity.

Research Design

The current study followed two qualitative designs: a transcendental phenomenology (Creswell, 2013; Edmonds & Kennedy, 2013; Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007; Moustakas, 1994) and a content analysis (Krippendorff, 2004). As such, this study sought to describe, rather than interpret (Creswell, 2013; Moustakas, 1994), the participants’ (i.e., administrators, teachers, and families of the sample school) “immediate experiences” (Edmonds & Kennedy, 2013, p. 136) of the phenomenon by exploring “the meaning, composition, and core of the [participants’] lived experiences” (p. 136). Through a phenomenological approach, the researcher was better positioned to understand how each participant constructed his or her reality (Creswell, 2013; Edmonds & Kennedy, 2013; Gall et al., 2007). For this study, the participants’ constructed reality was their lived experiences as educators and parents of students who are in a school in which a new, DL program was being implemented.

In order to gain a deeper and fuller understanding of the etiquette perspectives of each participant, this qualitative study employed a case study design (Creswell, 2013; Edmonds & Kennedy, 2013; Gall et al., 2007). A case study is one type of research design that falls under the overarching umbrella of a qualitative, phenomenological approach (Edmonds & Kennedy, 2013;
Gall et al., 2007). Additionally, case studies allow for in-depth analyses of an individual or small group of participants (Creswell, 2013; Edmonds & Kennedy, 2013; Gall et al., 2007) in order to understand their individual experiences as well as “examin[e] commonalities across individuals” (Edmonds & Kennedy, 2013, p. 138). As described by Creswell (2013), the current study assumed a case design as it investigated the individual experiences of all participants from the sample school rather than a single-case of an individual person.

A content analysis, as described by Krippendorff (2004), is grounded in how the content of what is being analyzed is considered. Although most scholars think of a content analysis as being limited only to the written words of a text, such items as images, signs, and symbols can also be analyzed in a content analysis approach (Krippendorff, 2004). Therefore, the word text is not restricted to only written words or phrases (Krippendorff, 2004). When analyzing the elements of a text, including the text itself if available, underlying meanings and intentions may present themselves that go beyond the surface level by also considering the context of their use (Krippendorff, 2004). In other words, a content analysis can find “hidden” or “subliminal” messages that may not be apparent at first glance or an initial read. Context is an important factor as “texts have meanings relative to particular contexts, discourses, or purposes” (Krippendorff, 2004, p. 24). This type of analysis was appropriate due to the large amount of data that was collected. A content analysis allows researchers to analyze large amounts of data (Krippendorff, 2004). The current study employed this design when analyzing the written language policy that was established at the sample school as well as various artifacts such as pictures, visuals, posters, students’ artwork, documents sent home to the students’ families, and any other pieces of communication as they relate to the school’s planning and policy and its implementation.
The current study was reviewed and approved by the researcher’s university’s Institutional Review Board (IRB). Approval for research was granted by the sample school’s administration. Because the current study was approved by the IRB as ‘Exempt Human Research,’ participant consent was granted orally; however, consent forms were distributed and explained to the participants during the consent process.

**Participant Sampling and Recruitment**

The following sections describe the study’s sampling method. The recruitment procedures that the researcher followed to first develop a professional relationship with the sample school and its faculty and then gain access to conduct research is also detailed. Finally, the criteria that the participants had to meet in order to participate and a description of the study’s participants, including the sample school, are provided.

**Sampling Method**

Case studies seek to investigate the experiences of a limited number of participants (Edmonds & Kennedy, 2013) whether the participants include a single individual or a small group (Creswell, 2013; Edmonds & Kennedy, 2013; Gall et al., 2007). Because the current study investigated the lived experiences of an elementary school’s first year as a DL school, the study drew upon a purposive sampling method (Creswell, 2013; Gall et al., 2007). Additionally, a purposive method was determined to be appropriate as the participants needed to meet specific criteria not only to participate in the study but also to meet the study’s objectives in order to
investigate individuals who have directly experienced the phenomenon as it relates the DL transitional experience.

Recruitment Methods

The researcher was introduced to the principal of the sample school from where the current study was conducted in the summer of 2017. The principal of the school reached out to the researcher’s Dissertation Chair to discuss her school’s new transition from a monolingual English to a DL school. The researcher’s Chair extended the invitation to the researcher as an opportunity to meet with the principal to discuss an upcoming partnership between the Chair and researcher’s university and the sample school. From this meeting, the researcher secured his presence with the school as its language education liaison. After two more meetings with the principal, the researcher asked the principal if she was interested in participating in the researcher’s anticipated study. After receiving confirmation from the principal, the researcher met with the school’s faculty to deliver a small-scale, professional development session regarding DL instruction and second language acquisition to the school’s PreK/VPK-4 and Kindergarten teachers. These teachers were considered crucial to meet with as they would be the first to experience the DL program due to the school’s roll-up model in which the DL program would start in PreK/VPK-4 during the 2017-2018 school year and then advance to Kindergarten for the 2018-2019 school year. It was during this session where the researcher also met with the School Director of the area’s Catholic schools to discuss the current study. The Director gave her immediate approval. Finally, the researcher met with the two teachers who were the first and only teachers to teach in the school’s new DL program at the PreK/VPK-4 level to discuss the
current study and secure consent. After clearing a national background clearance with the area’s Catholic Diocese and a second for the Voluntary PreKindergarten (VPK) program, the researcher received official approval to begin the current study at the school.

Participant Criteria

As mentioned previously, a purposive sampling method was determined to be appropriate as the participants needed to meet specific criteria in order to participate and for the study to meet its objectives of investigating the lived experiences of individuals directly involved with the sample school’s new DL program. The study included faculty from the sample school and the parents whose children were enrolled at the school. The following criteria were met by faculty in order to participate: (a) must have been a current administrator or teacher at the sample school and (b) must have been educating in the DL program at the school. Parents must have had at least one child enrolled into the DL program at the sample school.

Participant Demographics

This section provides a broad description of the study’s participants and reasoning for selecting the school. A more detailed description of the participants and the school is provided in Chapter 4 via the participants’ individual vignettes.

Participants

The current study included 11 participants ($N = 11$). Of the 11, the study included the school principal ($n = 1$) and the school’s first and only two DL teachers ($n = 2$) from the sample
school’s new DL program. The remaining participants were parents ($n = 8$) whose children were actively enrolled into the school’s PreK/VPK-4 DL classrooms.

All three participants from the school (i.e., the principal and teachers) were women. Additionally, all three held teaching certifications in either English as a Second Language (ESL), English Language Learning (ELL), or English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL), depending on the language used in the respective states from where each individual received her certificate. Each participant from the school received her teaching certificate and university degrees from a different state than from where they are currently teaching at the sample school. Both the English-medium teacher and the principal held Master’s degrees in Education but do not have any formalized training in DL education from a university’s teacher preparation program. The Spanish-medium teacher held a Bachelor’s degree in Bilingual Elementary Education and is the only participant from the school who received explicit training in DL education at her university’s teacher preparation program. The 2017-2018 school year marked the English-medium teacher’s third professional year of teaching, third year at the sample school, but first year teaching in a DL program. Likewise, the academic year marked the Spanish-medium teacher’s second year of both professional teaching and teaching in a DL program but first year at the sample school. The 2017-2018 school year was her second year at the sample school as principal.

Both the English-medium teacher and the principal identified themselves as native-English speaking (NES). The English-medium teacher considered herself to possess an intermediate proficiency level of Spanish and Portuguese; whereas, the principal considered herself to be a monolingual, English speaker with a limited proficiency of Spanish. The Spanish-
medium teacher identified herself as native-Spanish speaking (NSS) and considered herself to be fully bilingual in both Spanish and English, which she credits to her childhood upbringing.

With assistance from the school’s leadership team, the researcher hosted two separate parent-focus group interview sessions that explicitly invited all of the parents and legal guardians whose children were currently enrolled into the school’s PreK/VPK-4’s DL classrooms at the time of the study. A total of 10 parents attended the sessions; however, two of the parents, a married couple, did not meet the participant criteria due to not having children enrolled into the DL program. Because this was advertised by the school and this set of parents attended the session to get more information about the program and the current parents’ perspectives to help with their decision-making regarding whether or not enroll their children into the school’s PreK/VPK-4 DL program for the 2018-2019 school year, the researcher felt it was not his place to ask them to leave. As a result, data from the interviews were taken only from the parents whose children were attending the PreK/VPK-4 DL program at the time of the study and interviews \((n = 8)\). All but one parent identified themselves to be NSS; however, they had an advanced proficiency in conversational English. The one, non-NSS parent identified himself as native-French speaking (NFS). Six of the parents were women, and two of the parents were men. One of the fathers, who was NFS, attended alone. He stated that his first language (L1) was French, his wife’s was Spanish, and together, they spoke English to their son. The second father attended with his wife, and they were both NSS. From their own admission, five of the mothers had NES husbands, and one attributed this to the acquisition of her second language (L2), English.
Reasoning for Selecting the Sample School

The school was purposefully chosen by the researcher, upon the recommendation from his Chair and supervisor, for this study for the following reasons: (a) the school was transitioning itself from a monolingual, English school to a DL and (b) the school welcomed research to be conducted on its first year of transition. These two components were essential to the purpose of this study as very little research has been conducted in DL schools with a focus on the program and language planning; whereas, the majority of DL studies have focused on the student outcomes. Furthermore, few schools welcome outside researchers to observe and collect data during their planning, and even fewer welcome research to be conducted during the first year of implementation. The majority of studies conducted with this focus were at schools that have been established as DL for at least two years. Additionally, as shown in Chapter 2, the researchers in previous published studies of DL schools entered the study with a biased disposition in which they considered the school to already be successful; thus, the researchers were looking for elements that made the school successful. The administration and faculty at the sample school generously extended an invitation to the researcher so that he was able to conduct research during their first year of implementation and granted access to a variety of facets, including the school’s planning and implementation stages at the macro- and micro-levels. A contextual description of the school is provided in the participant vignette section of Chapter 4.
Data Collection Procedures and Instruments

Classroom observations began October 16, 2017 and ran through February 2, 2018. In addition, interviews were conducted from October 2017 through March 2018 with the principal, teachers, and parents whose children were enrolled in the sample school’s DL program.

Data Collection Procedures and Instruments for Research Question 1

1. What key processes and activities characterized the transitioning DL school’s language planning and policy?
   a. In what ways did the school’s planning and policy consider the sociopolitical environment of the community in which its students reside?
   b. What types of collaboration occurred in the development of the school’s planning and policy?

Data for research question 1 (RQ 1) were collected from an application of two methods. In order to analyze the sample school’s specific planning and policy, the researcher obtained hardcopies of the school’s mission and goal statements, school-wide and classroom policy procedures (e.g., language use, instructional approaches, etc.), and documents that went home to parents. The researcher initially anticipated receiving a copy of the school’s budget and curriculum; however, this did not occur. Instead, it was discussed in an interview with the principal. After completing a content analysis of these materials, the researcher interviewed the appropriate key actors about any patterns that emerged as well as the documents’ development. Additionally, the principal and the two teachers completed interviews with the researcher. The interviews were conducted in an open-ended, semi-structured format, and each participant was
interviewed separately. This interviewing format allowed the researcher to cover topics that are related to the study’s research questions (Morris, 2015). Additionally, in semi-structured interviews, “the interviewee is allowed to ‘ramble’ to an extent and the interview style is conversational” (Morris, 2015, p. 10).

Data Collection Procedures and Instruments for Research Question 2

2. How did the school implement its planning and policy?
   a. How was the school’s planning and policy implemented at the macro-level (i.e., administration)?
   b. How was the school’s planning and policy implemented at the micro-level (i.e., teachers)?

Data for RQ 2 included classroom observations during both teachers’ instructional class time with students. Within these observations, the researcher took in-depth field notes of the activities and instructional practices of the teachers as well as the interactions amongst the students and the interactions between the teachers and their students. These observations focused on the instructional and conversational language use that occurred during class as compared to the language procedures that were established by the sample school’s language planning and policy. Additionally, the researcher noted the observable artifacts (Schein, 1984; 2010), as described in Chapter 1, that made up the overall, classroom setting. Such artifacts included posters and students’ work and art that were displayed. The researcher wrote reflexive journal entries after each observation and compared them with their respective field notes. The principal and the two teachers were interviewed in the same manner as RQ 1 to capture (a) how the
administration and teachers implemented their school’s planning and policy and (b) how the administration and teachers felt about the implementation.

Data Collection Procedures and Instruments for Research Question 3

3. How was the change from a monolingual, English school to a DL program experienced by the school and its key actors?
   a. How did faculty, administrators, and parents of the students who attended the school experience the change?
   b. What impact on the school culture resulted from the experience of becoming a DL school?
   c. What alignment, if any, existed between the school’s planning and policy and its implementation?

The data collection methods that were used for RQ 2 were also employed for RQ 3. However, in order to understand how the change from a monolingual to a DL program affected the sample school’s administration, teachers, and families, the researcher extended his observations and field notes to school-wide tactics. In doing so, the researcher was able to observe interactions and artifacts that were found throughout the school, including artifacts that were posted outside of the classrooms (e.g., cafeteria, library, hallways, etc.), professional development sessions, team meetings, and parent-faculty discussions. Additionally, interviews were extended to appropriately investigate these interactions. Further, the researcher conducted two sessions of parent interviews in which the parents of the students who were enrolled into the school’s DL program interviewed with the researcher regarding their experiences, both positive
and negative, of having their child(ren) enrolled into the DL program. These interviews were conducted in focus-groups, and the school and the researcher were able to schedule two group sessions on the same day to accommodate the parents’ working and personal schedules. Each interview session was one hour and parents were free to choose which session they attended. In the first session, there were a total of six parents and all were NSS. The second session saw four parents in which two were NSS and a married couple were NESs. As previously stated, interview data from the married couple from the second session was not used due to the couple not having children enrolled into the school’s PreK/VPK-4’s DL program; thus, they did not meet the participant criteria to be considered for the study. Both parent sessions were conducted in the same manner as the principal and teacher interviews with the exception of the school guidance counselor who was present for both parent sessions to serve as both a resource to help answer questions about the school that the researcher could not and as a bilingual, Spanish-English, translator.

Additionally, the researcher interviewed the principal at the beginning and end of November 2017. Two subsequent interviews were planned; however, because of the principal’s busy schedule, it was not feasible to complete them. Both teachers completed a total of four interviews each with the researcher. Both teachers were interviewed in mid-October 2017, the end of October 2017, mid-December 2017, and the end of January 2018.

To protect the identities and comfort levels of the students, all classroom observations were not video- nor audiotaped. As stated previously, the researcher took extensive, in-depth field notes during each observation and accompanied each with a reflexive journal entry. All interviews were audio-recorded using an audio-recording device; however, there was no video-
recording throughout any of the interviews. Interviews with the principal and teachers were conducted in English with the exception of intentionally using Spanish vocabulary or phrases to specifically reference what students and/or teachers said during negative case analysis procedures. A description on negative case analyses is provided later in this chapter. The researcher, who conducted the interviews, had an advanced proficiency of Spanish and did not need a translator for these instances. The school guidance counselor was present for both of the parent interviews with the intent to provide translation if needed as she is bilingual in both English and Spanish. However, all parents spoke in English with the exception of one father during one spoken phrase. His wife and the guidance counselor translated that particular phrase. This was the only instance when translation was needed. All interviews were transcribed by a professional transcription service and were verified against the original audio files for accuracy first by the researcher, and next by an external auditor who was a professional in higher education and had no invested interest in the study. The researcher photographed artifacts that were visual in nature and considered too difficult to describe in writing. In doing so, all identifying information was removed from the photographs, such as the students’ names. Throughout the study and this written dissertation, all participants are referred to by pseudonyms to protect their identity from becoming public.

Data Analysis Procedures

Upon completion of the interviews, qualitative analyses using various coding procedures were conducted. This section outlines the procedures that were used in the data analyses as well as the coding cycles.
Data Analysis

Prior to collecting any data for the study, the researcher disclosed his subjectivity as it related to his experiences and perceptions of DL education and L2 learning and instruction in order to describe any personal experiences and perceptions that he may have had or developed so that they did not affect the data (Creswell, 2013; Moustakas, 1994). This disclosure is at the end of the current chapter.

The purpose of the current study was to investigate the planning and policy and its first year of implementation at both the macro- and micro-levels in an elementary, DL school. In understanding the essence of this phenomenon, qualitative coding procedures and analyses were employed. In analyzing the artifacts (i.e., written policy documents and visual displays), observations, interview transcripts, field notes, and reflexive journal entries, the researcher applied various coding procedures by employing several coding cycles that are appropriate to qualitative data collection methods, as described by Saldaña (2009), in order to find patterns, themes, and meaning that transpired from the data analyses (Creswell, 2013; Gall et al., 2007; Moustakas, 1994; Saldaña, 2009). A priori coding is recommended by many qualitative methodologists in order to better synchronize with a study’s research questions and conceptual framework (Saldaña, 2009). As such, a priori coding was employed regarding the prospective patterns and codes that the researcher believed to exist.

As Saldaña (2009) suggested, researchers can apply more than one type of coding procedure in the first coding cycle. Therefore, this cycle of coding involved three different coding procedures. The researcher began the first coding cycle by applying descriptive initial coding procedures. As described by Strauss and Corbin (1998), initial coding “break[s] down
qualitative data into discrete parts, closely exam[es] them, and compar[es] them for similarities and differences” (as cited in Saldaña, 2009, p. 81). Initial coding is also appropriate for studies that have several sources of data to be analyzed (Saldaña, 2009). Versus coding was applied specifically to the content analysis of discursive materials due to this type of coding procedure’s comparative nature between a study’s written materials and participants (Saldaña, 2009). Values coding, or coding that is reflective of participants’ values, attitudes, and beliefs (Saldaña, 2009), was also applied but had a particular emphasis on the analysis of interviews, observations, and artifacts.

In subsequent coding cycles, axial coding was applied in order to group the codes found from the first coding cycle into categories (Saldaña, 2009; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). More often than not, researchers yield more codes than what is necessary for analysis, and through axial coding, they are able to reduce the amount of codes into themes or conceptual categories (Saldaña, 2009). In order to personalize the data to reflect the participants’ experiences and dispositions regarding their first year as a DL school, in-vivo coding procedures were employed so that the participants’ “voices” were heard throughout the data analysis (Saldaña, 2009).

Establishing Trustworthiness

Establishing the trustworthiness of a study is important. As LeCompte and Goetz (1982) noted, threats to qualitative studies do exist regarding their validation. Gall, Gall, and Borg’s (2007) discussion on fidelity and trustworthiness suggested various methods to ensure the accuracy of the data and results. As Creswell (2013) referenced, Whittemore, Chase, and Mandle (2001) identified nearly 30 different strategies to help protect qualitative studies’ trustworthiness.
Lincoln and Guba (1985) issued four evaluative criteria when establishing the trustworthiness of a study. These included the following: (a) confirmability, (b) credibility, (c) dependability, and (d) transferability.

Establishing the confirmability of a study refers to a study’s neutrality in which the researcher reduces his or her personal biases and/or interest as much as possible (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The researcher disclosed his subjectivity by discussing any pre-existing assumptions and experiences related to DL education and L2 learning and instruction that may have developed before and throughout the duration of the study. This disclosure is reported at the end of this chapter.

A study’s credibility refers to establishing the truth from within the study’s findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Member checking is the most crucial method for ensuring the credibility of a study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). As defined by Gall et al. (2007), member checking refers to “having research participants review statements in the report for accuracy and completeness” (p. 475). If the participants do find discrepancies with their statements, the researcher would need to “correct factual errors and, if necessary, collect more data to reconcile discrepancies” (Gall et al., 2007, p. 475). Participants were given opportunities to member check their responses for their intended meaning to help ensure accuracy (Creswell, 2013). Additionally, the researcher gave participants opportunities to examine and respond to emerging patterns and themes found in the analysis process in order to either confirm or offer alternative interpretations through member checking (Stake, 1995). Negative case analysis is a method of triangulation that deliberately seeks to disconfirm the findings and themes that were found in the data analysis (Creswell, 2013). As such, this method was also used in establishing credibility for
the current study. Such sources of data for the current study included teacher, principal, and parent interviews, classroom observations, and a document analysis. Triangulating data is an additional method to establishing a study’ credibility and confirmability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Triangulation refers to the “use of multiple and different sources, methods, investigators, and theories to provide corroborating evidence” (Creswell, 2013, p. 251). Such sources of data for the current study included teacher, principal, and parent interviews, classroom observations, and a document analysis.

A study’s dependability and transferability are interrelated. Dependability refers to having consistency throughout the findings so that if the study was to be repeated, the findings would result again; whereas, transferability refers to the findings being appropriate within the contexts of the study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Thick description was used to provide detailed information about the data that were collected, its respective analysis, and the contexts from which the data came (Stake, 2010). Finally, external auditors that have no interest in, or benefits from the current study were in place to ensure accuracy regarding the observational field notes and interview transcripts.

**Relationship Between the Data and the Study’s Theoretical Framework**

Schein’s (2010) organizational culture and leadership model, the theoretical framework for the current study, compliments the data that were collected and their analyses. As such, his model was used as the investigating lens for the current study. Data that were easily observed (e.g., documents, photographs) and data from the classroom observations that were easily observed or heard (e.g., students’ language progress, teachers’ instructional approaches and
strategies) fell under the artifacts level, the most basic level of the model. Throughout the data analysis, the coding cycles examined the data from both the artifacts and the interviews with Schein’s (2010) model in mind so that the researcher was able to gain a deeper understanding as to the data that emerged in the artifacts level as well as the participants’ beliefs, values, and assumptions of their roles and experiences within the school’s new DL program.

The Role of the Researcher

The researcher of the current study was also the sole researcher. Upon first being introduced to the sample school’s principal in the spring of 2017, the researcher established the relationship between the school and himself that later allowed him access to collect data, as described in this chapter. Throughout the data collection, the researcher was the only individual to collect all pieces of data. In doing so, the researcher sat in both the English and Spanish classrooms and took extensive, observational field notes of the classrooms’ activities and interactions. Additionally, the researcher prepared the interview questions and conducted the interviews with the teachers, principal, and parents of the students who were enrolled into the school’s DL program. A bilingual translator of Spanish-English, who was also the school’s guidance counselor, was present throughout the parent interviews; however, translation was not needed. Throughout this process, the researcher refrained from helping the school with any kind of curriculum development for its DL program, as well as any instructional responsibilities within the two participating classrooms. In doing so, the researcher was in a better position to remain objective and to keep an unbiased position throughout the data collection process.
The Subjectivity of the Researcher

As discussed previously, disclosing one’s subjectivity, as it relates to the study, is an important step in establishing a study’s overall trustworthiness (Creswell, 2013; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Moustakas, 1994). The following section is the researcher’s disclosure of such subjectivity as it relates to DL education and second language acquisition. As such, it is provided from a first-person viewpoint.

My journey to learning languages began when I was in high school in Iowa. I took a Spanish course to fulfill the foreign language requirement that was instated for entry into the university where I had chosen to pursue my undergraduate studies. During this time, I found Spanish to come rather easy, and I would even go out of my way to help NSS customers while working at a local grocery store. In thinking back on it, I realized that I have my high school Spanish teacher, Señora Chapman, to thank as she made learning this language exciting and turned my weaknesses in the language to achievements.

It was her encouragement that inspired me to continue my Spanish studies while in college. However, my first day at the university as a freshman had me doubt this decision. My Spanish professor asked me, “Why are you taking my class?” She then clarified her question by notifying me, as well as everyone else in the class, that, “Chinese people do not learn Spanish; they learn Chinese.” Perhaps it was because I am a Korean-American or maybe it was her dismissal of me and my abilities, but I was motivated to become as proficient in Spanish as quickly as I could. Throughout the rest of the term, she kept her dismissive attitude toward me and would genuinely be surprised when I demonstrated my Spanish-speaking and literacy abilities. Because I completed two Bachelor’s of Arts degrees in Spanish Education and Middle
School Integrated Curriculum, I completed a foreign language methods course. This professor taught me pedagogical strategies that I wish my Spanish professor had learned.

Upon graduation, I secured a professional teaching position in Florida and later in Egypt at an American/British/International Baccalaureate school. At both schools, I taught content area courses in which the majority of the students were English learners (ELs). In Florida, nine different languages were spoken in one given class period. In Egypt, all of my students were native-Egyptians whose L1 was Arabic. My first experience teaching ELs in Florida prompted me to earn a Master’s degree in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL). In Egypt, I was surprised to learn that nearly half of the teachers and administrators held negative views toward their students because of the students’ EL-status, individual English proficiency, and the devaluation of Arabic. As a result, I created and delivered a handful of professional development sessions regarding ESOL strategies within content area instruction.

Currently, I am a doctoral candidate earning a Ph.D. in Education-TESOL and a Graduate Research Associate (GRA). Part of my responsibilities as a GRA include working with a variety of PreK-12 schools across the Central Florida area that are already DL or are in the planning phases of becoming DL. I have met with principals, teachers, and students from a handful of DL schools and discussed with them their current challenges and achievements as they relate to DL instruction and programming. Additionally, in preparing the literature review for this current dissertation study, I have gained an in-depth understanding about the topic of DL and subtopics of language policy, planning, programming models, curriculum development, students’ linguistic and academic progress and outcomes, and instruction.
All of these experiences have led me to conclude that too often in bilingual programs, students’ L1 is left to attrition and is replaced by English, the students’ L2 and the language of instruction at the school. I believe that DL education is the instructional model that schools need to adopt, especially when considering the growing linguistic diversities amongst grade school students. From my meetings with DL school administrators and faculty, I believe that the main reason why DL programs are unsuccessful primarily stems from the lack of DL knowledge and training for the administrators and faculty who are expected to implement the DL program, as well as the lack of curricular resources that are needed for successful implementation. When disclosing one’s subjectivity, as it relates to the study, it may be construed by others that the researcher may have biases and/or experiences that may be too similar to the study that the results may be affected. Brantlinger, Jimenez, Klingener, Pugach, and Richardson (2005) indicated that those conducting a qualitative study of high quality, “must have experience related to [the] research focus, be well read, knowledgeable, analytical, reflective, and introspective” (p. 197).

As the researcher of the study, I assume responsibility for all parts of the current study. This includes becoming acutely knowledgeable of the existing literature, both theoretical and empirical, so that I can develop a well-versed literature review. This allows me to better identify where gaps and discrepancies lie within the existing literature so that I am able to frame the current study within this context. I understand that it is also my responsibility to create quality research questions, select an appropriate research design, create appropriate protocols for data collection, analyze the data appropriately, and report the results with integrity and ethically.
Summary

Chapter 3 detailed the current qualitative study’s research design and methodology. In doing so, the study’s sample and recruitment methods, data collection and analysis procedures, and trustworthiness were described in extensive detail. Finally, this chapter disclosed the study’s researcher’s subjectivity relating to his experiences with L2 learning and instruction and DL.
CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

Chapter 4 presents the study’s findings and the coding cycles that led to the final findings. This chapter begins with the participants’ individual vignettes. This chapter then moves into a discussion about the current, phenomenological study’s data analysis by discussing the processes that led to the study’s four themes and their subthemes that arose from the analysis. These findings are linked with the specific research questions that they address.

Participant Vignettes

Seidman (2013) suggested that participant profiles and vignettes allow researchers to “present the participant in context, to clarify his or her intentions, and to convey a sense of process and time, all components of qualitative analysis” (p. 122). Because the current study is framed through a case study approach of the phenomenon that was investigated (i.e., the lived experiences of the participants in a new DL program), participant vignettes offer a more focused “aspect of a participant’s experience” (p. 122) framed through a semi-narrative approach (Seidman, 2013). The purpose of these vignettes is to provide in-depth descriptions of each participant’s background and experiences regarding both second language (L2) learning and instruction and DL instruction and programming. To protect the identities of the participants and to keep their respective data and responses confidential, each participant, including the sample school, is assuming a pseudonym; therefore, participants, including the school, are not referred to by their real names. These pseudonyms were assigned by the researcher. This section of the participant vignettes begins with a description of the sample school and its DL program.
Sunshine Catholic School

Sunshine Catholic School is located in a large, metropolitan city, named Sunshine City, in the southeastern region of the United States. The school houses grades PreK-3 through 8. The school also has a Voluntary PreKindergarten (VPK) program. Its surrounding community and neighborhoods consist of a substantial Hispanic, Spanish-speaking population, with the majority coming from Puerto Rico, followed by large communities of African Americans and Haitians. Many would consider the community to be on the lower spectrum of the socioeconomic scale; however, the city has taken efforts to develop the area through a large shopping mall, located within two miles from the school, with high-end stores and restaurants.

Sunshine Catholic School is part of a parish in which the chapel is located just steps away from the school. It should be noted that the parish recognized the large Spanish-speaking community that surrounded it, and as a result, began prayer groups and conducting mass in Spanish since the 1970s. Sunshine Catholic School was established in 1962, and the 2017-2018 school year signified the first year that the school implemented a DL program in which the languages of instruction were English and Spanish. Additionally, Sunshine Catholic School is the first and only DL school within the Diocese of Sunshine City, a network that consists of 42 schools. Sunshine Catholic School adopted a roll-up model in which the DL program began in PreK/VPK-4 (i.e., Preschool) during its first year of implementation. With each subsequent year, the DL program will advance to the next grade level (e.g., DL is in Preschool during the 2017-2018 school year and continues into Kindergarten during the 2018-2019 school year). As indicated by the school’s principal, the majority of Sunshine Catholic School’s teachers were not
DL-trained, nor experienced. It is worth noting that Sunshine Catholic School was the only DL school within the Diocese of Sunshine City’s 42 schools at the time of the study.

In its preparation to become a DL school, Sunshine Catholic School became a member of the Two-Way Immersion Network for Catholic Schools (TWIN-CS) prior to the 2017-2018 school year. In doing so, the school partnered with a private, Catholic-affiliated college in the northeastern region of the United States. Being a member of the TWIN-CS, Sunshine Catholic School is part of a network consisting of 20 schools committed to DL instruction, and the school can receive mentorship and coaching for its administrative and instructional staff (TWIN-CS, 2016).

Based on the recommendation and administrative experience in DL programming of the school’s principal, Sunshine Catholic School chose to implement a 50-50 model of DL programming. In this model, the PreK/VPK-4 program was divided into two homeroom classrooms: (a) English-medium of instruction and (b) Spanish-medium of instruction. For the purpose of the study, these two classrooms are referred to as the English and Spanish classrooms. However, it is emphasized that the school followed the 50-50 model. As a result, the term English classroom does not mean that this classroom is the room where students came to learn about the English language. Rather, the English classroom refers to the classroom where content instruction was delivered in English. Likewise, the Spanish classroom refers to classroom where content instruction was delivered in Spanish – not to learn about the Spanish language. The English classroom’s teacher was native-English speaking (NES), and the Spanish classroom’s teacher was native-Spanish speaking (NSS). Each classroom had a teacher aide who was also a native speaker of the respective language of instruction.
Content area courses were divided between the two teachers based on their own preferences. As such, students did not repeat the same course in each classroom. This was done so that NSS students, for example, did not ignore a math lesson in the English classroom because they knew that they would receive the same lesson in the Spanish classroom. The same applied for NES students. Students were divided into their respective homerooms so that there was an equal distribution between NES and NSS students as possible, with a total cut-off of 40 students. This was based on the home language that was indicated by their parents at registration. Table 1 shows the frequency distribution of the students’ home and subsequent languages from the PreK/VPK-4 program.

Table 1

*PreK/VPK-4 Students’ Primary and Subsequent Languages*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Languages</th>
<th># of Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English (Only)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish (Only)</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English and Spanish (Equally)</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnamese and English (Equally)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English and Some Spanish</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish and Some English</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English and Some Thai</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English and Some French Creole</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French Creole and Some Italian</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnamese and Some English</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English and Some Italian</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English and Some Tagalog</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amharic and Some English</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English and Some Hindi and Some Konkani</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The students began each day in their assigned homerooms for check-in and attendance. Every other day, the students would then switch classrooms or stay in their homeroom, depending on whether or not they were scheduled to switch on that particular day. For example, the students who were assigned to the Spanish homeroom would be in the Spanish classroom Monday, Wednesday, and Friday of Week A, and the students assigned to the English homeroom would be in the English classroom. On Tuesday and Thursday, they switched classrooms so that the Spanish homeroom would be in the English classroom on Tuesday and Thursday of Week A and the English homeroom would be in the Spanish classroom. Week B would reflect the mirror image so that the Spanish homeroom would be in the English classroom Monday, Wednesday, and Friday of Week B and in the Spanish classroom on Tuesday and Thursday; whereas, the English homeroom would be in the Spanish classroom on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday and in the English classroom on Tuesday and Thursday of Week B. Tables 2 and 3 outline the schedule as they relate to the classroom assignments. In the morning, the VPK and the Preschool students were together. At 11:00A.M., the VPK students went home while the Preschool students stayed for the afternoon. The 50-50 model described in the above paragraphs, with the exception of the VPK students’ afternoon release, will be rolled-up with each subsequent school year. In other words, during the 2018-2019 school year, Kindergarten will follow the same 50-50 model as the PreK/VPK-4 program; however, in Kindergarten, all students will stay in school for the full school day.
Table 2

*PreK/VPK-4 Classroom Schedule: Week A*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Home Base</th>
<th>Monday</th>
<th>Tuesday</th>
<th>Wednesday</th>
<th>Thursday</th>
<th>Friday</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home Base</td>
<td>Classroom</td>
<td>Classroom</td>
<td>Classroom</td>
<td>Classroom</td>
<td>Classroom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home Base</td>
<td>Classroom</td>
<td>Classroom</td>
<td>Classroom</td>
<td>Classroom</td>
<td>Classroom</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3

*PreK/VPK-4 Classroom Schedule: Week B*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Home Base</th>
<th>Monday</th>
<th>Tuesday</th>
<th>Wednesday</th>
<th>Thursday</th>
<th>Friday</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home Base</td>
<td>Classroom</td>
<td>Classroom</td>
<td>Classroom</td>
<td>Classroom</td>
<td>Classroom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home Base</td>
<td>Classroom</td>
<td>Classroom</td>
<td>Classroom</td>
<td>Classroom</td>
<td>Classroom</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Principal Sands

Principal Sands had a breadth of knowledge as it pertained to language development and language instruction. She completed certification in the area of English as a Second Language (ESL) as a means to better her own understanding of second language acquisition. Prompted by the Diocese and the superintendent from the school system from where she was an administrator prior to coming to Sunshine Catholic School, Principal Sands embarked on the journey of becoming knowledgeable and experienced in DL education. She attended various professional development sessions at the Center for Applied Linguistics and joined the National Bilingual
Education Association to deepen her understanding of DL education and programming. Additionally, she completed numerous observations in DL schools in New York. Principal Sands had direct experience in transforming a monolingual English, inner city school in a mid-Atlantic state into a prominent DL school. From this experience, Principal Sands learned first-hand of the challenges that accompanied the tasks of planning and implementing a DL program that was new not only for students but also faculty. Because of the school’s success, she was asked to transition Sunshine Catholic School into the Diocese of Sunshine City’s first DL school. Principal Sands considered herself to be NES and had a limited proficiency in Spanish. The 2017-2018 school year marked Principal Sands’ second year at Sunshine Catholic School.

Ms. Kristi: English-Medium Teacher in the PreK/VPK-4 Dual Language Program

Ms. Kristi held a Bachelor’s degree in the field of Psychology, a Master’s degree in Early Childhood Education, and teaching certification in Early Childhood Education. Before coming to Sunshine Catholic School, she taught for five years in a variety of contexts and successions but placed emphasis on the Preschool and Kindergarten levels. As a formality to receiving her certification, she became certified in English Language Learning from which she took a general, English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) methods course. As with Principal Sands, in order to gain a deeper understanding of second language acquisition, Ms. Kristi extended herself beyond the ESOL methods course by reading a great amount of literature regarding language development in children and DL education. Although NES, Ms. Kristi considered herself to have had an intermediate proficiency in Spanish with literacy and listening comprehension as her strongest skills. Ms. Kristi is Sunshine Catholic School’s VPK Director. The 2017-2018 school
year was her third year teaching at Sunshine Catholic School and her first year as a DL classroom teacher.

Ms. KyAnne: Spanish-Medium Teacher in the PreK/VPK-4 Dual Language Program

Of the participants in the study, Ms. KyAnne was the only one to have had formal training from a university’s teacher preparation program in bilingual and DL education. She held a Bachelor’s degree in Bilingual Elementary Education from which she had to complete a five-year program learning about bilingual and transitional DL instruction. She student taught for one year in a transitional DL school, and upon completion, she taught professionally at a DL school that followed a one-teacher model (i.e., a single teacher taught the content in both English and the partner language) for six months before coming to Sunshine Catholic School. Ms. KyAnne was born in Mexico but raised in the midwestern region of the United States. Although she stated her first language (L1) as Spanish, as her mother and extended family spoke only in Spanish to her, she considered herself fully bilingual in Spanish and English as she quickly acquired English from school, the community, and her father. The 2017-2018 school year was Ms. KyAnne’s first year at Sunshine Catholic School and second year as a DL teacher.

Ms. Nancy and Ms. Sofia: English and Spanish Classroom Teacher Aides

Although Ms. Nancy and Ms. Sofia did not participate in the interviews, their role as teacher aides played a vital part in the development and implementation of the program. Ms. Nancy was the teacher aide in the English classroom, and Ms. Sofia was the teacher aide in the Spanish classroom. At the beginning of the data collection, they both gave the researcher verbal
permission to take notes on their interactions with the students as well as their interactions with Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne. As such, they were renamed to protect their identities and are referenced throughout the findings section of this chapter.

Data Analysis Process

Throughout the data collection period (i.e., October 16, 2017-March 1, 2018), the researcher completed four different interviews with Ms. Kristi, four with Ms. KyAnne, two with Principal Sands, and one interview with two different sets of parents. The researcher also completed nearly 60 hours of classroom observations within 30 days during the morning sessions so that he could observe the students who were at the school for both the Preschool-4 and VPK-4 programs. On average, he observed for 2-3 days a week. This section discusses the data analysis in detail as it relates to the final four themes and their subthemes. Throughout the analysis, with the exception of the a priori coding, ATLAS.ti version 8.1.29.0 was the qualitative coding software used.

A Priori Coding

Before the initial coding cycle, the researcher identified the following 12 a priori codes: (a) signage and décor, (b) native-language speaking faculty and staff, (c) intentional language use, (d) L2 differentiation and accommodations, (e) L2 acknowledgment and recasting, (f) whole-school DL support, (g) valuing student diversity, (h) flexibility in instruction, (i) explicit whole-school language policy, (j) administrative guidance and leadership, (k) DL teacher identities, and (l) instructional confidence. As referenced by Saldaña (2009), a priori coding, also
known as pre-coding, is recommended in order to better synchronize the study’s research questions and theoretical framework. The researcher went into the data collection with a smaller set of the a priori codes stated. Additionally, as data collection progressed and finished, the researcher expanded this list based solely on the classroom observations, the interviews, and the researcher’s reflexive journaling notes. No analysis was completed in the founding of these a priori codes as these codes are pre-codes made by the researcher’s assumptions prior to the formal data analysis process. Although this may appear to be biased, Saldaña (2009) indicated “the majority of qualitative researchers will code their data both during and after collection as an analytic tactic, for coding is analysis” (p. 7). Additionally, a priori coding is established as a means to better synchronize with a study’s research questions and conceptual framework (Saldaña, 2009). Table 4 shows which of the a priori codes were created prior to data collection, during data collection, and after data collection, as well as their corresponding research questions.
Table 4

**A Priori Coding Timeline**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A Priori Code</th>
<th>Data Collection Process</th>
<th>RQ(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Explicit whole-school language policy</td>
<td>Before</td>
<td>1, 2, 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative guidance and leadership</td>
<td>Before</td>
<td>1, 2, 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whole-school DL support</td>
<td>Before</td>
<td>1, 2, 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intentional language use</td>
<td>Before</td>
<td>1, 2, 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2 differentiation and accommodations</td>
<td>Before</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2 acknowledgment and recasting</td>
<td>Before</td>
<td>1, 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DL teacher identities</td>
<td>Before</td>
<td>2, 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Signage and décor</td>
<td>During</td>
<td>1, 2, 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native-language speaking faculty and staff</td>
<td>During</td>
<td>1, 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valuing student diversity</td>
<td>During</td>
<td>1, 2, 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructional confidence</td>
<td>After</td>
<td>2, 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexibility in instruction</td>
<td>After</td>
<td>2, 3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Initial Coding Cycle**

In the initial coding cycle, the researcher analyzed all data sets, including all interview transcripts, classroom observation notes, reflexive journal notes, documents collected, photographs taken by the researcher, and school statements (i.e., vision, philosophy, etc.) from Sunshine Catholic School’s school website. The parent interview transcripts were not included in this initial coding cycle as they were scheduled after the coding process began; however, these transcripts received their own coding cycles upon the completion of the interviews. This inclusion of the parent interview data is explained in a later section that specifically addresses
how the parent interview data were analyzed and included into the axial coding. With the exception of the photographs and the parent interview transcripts, all pieces of data described were compiled into ATLAS.ti, the qualitative software program used for coding. The researcher critically reviewed the photographs through a content discourse analysis (Krippendorf, 2004). The researcher applied the existing 12 a priori codes to the initial analysis. From this initial coding cycle, 13 additional codes emerged, including the codes from the content analysis of the photographs. Table 5 shows the a priori codes that were established before the initial coding cycle along with the new codes that emerged from this coding cycle.

Table 5

*Codes from the Initial Coding Cycle*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A Priori Coding Cycle</th>
<th>Initial Coding Cycle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Administrative guidance and leadership</td>
<td>Code-switching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DL teacher identities</td>
<td>Colleague collaboration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explicit whole-school language policy</td>
<td>English teacher DL experience and credentials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexibility in instruction</td>
<td>Finding out about the DL transition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructional confidence</td>
<td>Instructional/parental expectations and challenges of teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intentional language use</td>
<td>Language policy and curriculum development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2 acknowledgment and recasting</td>
<td>Principal DL experience and credentials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2 differentiation and accommodations</td>
<td>Programming reservations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native-language speaking faculty and staff</td>
<td>Reasons for Sunshine Catholic School’s DL transition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Signage and décor</td>
<td>Spanish teacher DL experience and credentials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valuing student diversity</td>
<td>Student and family demographics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whole-school DL support</td>
<td>Student progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Overall program progress</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Cycles of Axial Coding

For axial coding, a deeper analysis of the data that were analyzed from the initial coding cycle in ATLAS.ti was performed using the software. Additionally, the photographs that were analyzed in the initial coding cycle were analyzed again through axial coding. Parent interview data were not included in the first two cycles of axial coding. The coding analysis for the parent interviews is discussed in the next section of the data analysis process. Axial coding helps the researcher to reduce the amount of codes into themes or conceptual categories (Saldaña, 2009). In the first cycle of axial coding, the researcher noted that the patterns that emerged mirrored one another and was able to combine them. Starting in this first cycle, the researcher recognized emerging subthemes as he further analyzed the data and combined related patterns together. In the second cycle of axial coding, the researcher was able to determine four major themes and their subthemes; thus, an initial draft of the final findings was created. By the third cycle of axial coding, the researcher had completed the parent interviews, transcribed the data, and completed the coding cycles related to these interviews. In this third cycle, the researcher included the codes from the parent interview data analysis and cross-referenced the four themes back with their corresponding data. The four themes and their subthemes are displayed in concept maps in the findings section of this chapter.

Coding for Parent Interview Data

Due to coordinating the schedules of various parties, the parent interviews were conducted after the initial coding of the other data began on March 1, 2018. However, once the parent interviews were completed, the researcher immediately transcribed the interviews and had
them verified by the same external auditor who verified the teacher and principal interview transcripts. A priori coding was not applied to the parent interview data. Therefore, the researcher used open coding to complete the initial coding cycle. The four codes that emerged from this data included (a) students’ progress, (b) reservations, (c) DL support based on parents’ personal experience, and (d) overall program satisfaction. Each of these codes included subthemes. After these subthemes were realized, the researcher applied these in the third cycle of axial coding that was completed with the rest of the data, as described previously, so that all sets of data were appropriately included into the final findings.

Subsequent Coding Cycles

Throughout the three different cycles of axial coding, the researcher completed cycles of versus coding, values coding, and in-vivo coding. Versus coding was used to compare participants’ data against themselves in order to analyze for alignments and disconnects (Saldaña, 2009). For example, a participant said in an interview that she does X but the classroom observations showed a consistent and conflicting behavior or attitude of Y. Values coding was also used, primarily throughout the interview data from all three sets of participants (i.e., teachers, principal, and parents), in order to analyze the “participants’ values, attitudes, and beliefs” (Saldaña, 2009, p. 89). This is particularly important when applied to Schein’s (2010) levels of espoused beliefs and values and basic underlying assumptions as described in Chapter 1. Finally, in-vivo coding was used to analyze the participants’ interview data so that specific quotations could be used in order to provide a rich context and thick description of the theme and/or subtheme under discussion (Saldaña, 2009).
Findings

Upon completion of the data analysis and coding cycles, four final themes were found. These four themes included the following, listed alphabetically: (a) classroom language use and L2 differentiation, (b) DL program support, (c) language policy and curriculum development, and (d) teachers’ dispositions on DL teaching. This section of the chapter explains each of the four themes and their subthemes in detail with supporting evidence from the participants’ interview responses and the researcher’s classroom observation notes and reflexive journaling notes. Finally, a discussion connecting the resulting themes to the study’s research questions follows.

The following findings are organized so that they begin at a macro-level of analysis and transition into the micro-level. Within each theme, a series of subthemes are discussed within each of the four overarching themes. In addition, two recurring patterns from within each of the four final themes include (a) valuing the students’ linguistic and ethnic diversities and (b) the guidance and leadership from the school’s principal. As such, these two patterns will be discussed throughout each of the four themes as appropriate. It should be noted that the order in which these themes are described does not place more value or significance over one another.

Theme 1: Dual Language Program Support

The community surrounding Sunshine Catholic School was predominantly comprised of a Hispanic, NSS population. The Diocese of Sunshine City moved forward to transition Sunshine Catholic School into its first DL school to meet the linguistic and educational needs of its immediate community. In doing so, faculty, administration, and parents whose children attended
Sunshine Catholic School’s DL program both sought support in their decision to transition to DL with the school as well as supported the school’s DL efforts so that all were successful. Figure 2 provides a graphic depiction of Theme 1, along with its subthemes.
Figure 2. Theme 1: Dual Language Program Support
Subtheme 1A: Reasons for Dual Language Transition

As early as the 1970s, the school’s parish acknowledged that the majority of residents from its surrounding neighborhood were Hispanic and NSS. As a result, the parish began to conduct mass entirely in Spanish in 1978. Despite the parish opening Sunshine Catholic School’s doors in 1962, nearly 40 years passed before the school made its transition to include Spanish as a partner language of instruction.

Over the years, the student demographics of Sunshine Catholic School became increasingly Spanish-speaking due to the rapid Hispanic population growth from within the school’s immediate community. Principal Sands commented:

“We have more incoming…our native Spanish speakers are coming in more from Central America. We have quite a few children that are coming in from Mexico [and] the Dominican Republic. We have a strong foundation of students from Puerto Rico.”

In fact, throughout the researcher’s time in the classrooms (i.e., October 16, 2017-February 2, 2018), its PreK/VPK-4 classrooms welcomed one Puerto Rican student who came to the continental United States shortly after Hurricane Maria devastated the island. In addition, the school welcomed even more Puerto Rican students in the upper grades due to Hurricanes Irma and Maria forcing their families from their homes. Principal Sands remarked, “Some of the students coming in […] recently from Puerto Rico have […] lost everything.”

Ms. Kristi recognized the prevalence of the Spanish language at the school and among its students. She contributed this to Sunshine Catholic School’s DL transition. She commented, “That’s why the school’s been moving in this direction, which I think is very good. We do have… I think it’s about 50 percent that are Spanish speakers. I know it’s very close to that if it’s
not that.” Ms. Kristi also commented that as the world changes, in terms of language and ethnic shifts, schools need to change as well to meet this change. She said:

“We need to support that. We need to meet the language needs of the families who are here. If you want to keep having a school that speaks only English, that’s fine, but if your families speak Spanish, then you need to meet that need. I think it’s very good that this school recognized that and is moving in that direction.”

When asked about her impression of Sunshine Catholic School moving towards a DL program from the point of view of a teacher in her third year at the school, she commented, “For me, the second I heard it, I was thrilled because it’s what every school should be doing!”

Subtheme 1B: Administrative and Faculty Support

Principal Sands’ prior experiences in educating children of various linguistic and ethnic backgrounds prompted her to realize that these students’ diversities were under-represented in their schools. Her leadership for DL education began when the Diocese approached her to begin a DL school in a mid-Atlantic state. Principal Sands realized that she was on the same learning curve as everyone else she was working with in order to develop a DL program in an inner-city community. She stated, “I felt that I was on par with the teachers in developing the DL program […] I researched it and then went and learned on my own how to do this; what was necessary for that.”

Principal Sands brought this same enthusiasm and dedication to Sunshine Catholic School. The school was guided by Principal’s Sands’ extensive DL experience in two other
states, as described in her vignette. She took the challenges and obstacles that were experienced and used them as the basis for implementing a new DL program at the school. She stated:

“The challenge was really the administration and the teachers knowing how to [implement a DL program]. We decided we would start it at a very basic level – at the Preschool level – and then we would roll the program each year.”

Principal Sands contributed the Diocese’s decision to transition Sunshine Catholic School to DL partially because of the predominant Hispanic population that attends the church. She concluded:

“I think what probably – possibly – could have influenced it the most is that […] our Catholic church is becoming more and more of a Hispanic church. A lot of the need has become that we are becoming a more global church. Our church is predominantly of the Hispanic community. If we could possibly enrich the lives of our Hispanic community and our Catholic faith, we could enrich it; we could do it.”

As it relates to DL, Principal Sands added, “Dual language, if we can facilitate communication in our communities, then why not?”

However, Principal Sands understood that the faculty at Sunshine Catholic School were critical of the implementation and overall success of the school’s new DL program. Taking an approach which positioned the faculty to become not only facilitators of the program but also leaders, the individual teachers who were teaching in the DL program would be able to make decisions regarding their own classroom practices and curriculum development as they related to their specific grade level’s incoming DL program. This particular topic is discussed in more detail in Theme 2, as it explicitly addresses these decisions and classroom practices.
Additionally, Principal Sands recognized the fears and misconceptions that the faculty had at the time of the study based on faculty meetings and informal conversations. As a result, both the principal and the DL teachers addressed the buy-in that would possibly be needed to convince the faculty at Sunshine Catholic School who were not currently teaching in DL classrooms at the time the study took place that DL is a reputable model of instruction.

It is worth repeating that at the time of the study, the 2017-2018 school year marked Principal Sands’ second year, Ms. Kristi’s third year, and Ms. KyAnne’s first year at Sunshine Catholic School. These descriptive statistics are important in understanding the faculty’s dispositions and anxieties of the upcoming DL program as it rolled-up to their grade level. When asked about her first impressions of the upcoming DL program, Ms. Kristi commented:

“It was only my first year [at Sunshine Catholic School], so I don’t have a relationship with the school in the way that people who’ve been here for 20, 30 years do. For them, I think it was a little bit overwhelming to think of all this that they’ve been a part of…that it’s all changing.”

There was an overwhelming realization from both the principal and teachers for further DL professional development that emphasized programming, policy, instruction, and research. All three participants were concerned not only for their own professional development but for the whole-school. The researcher met with the whole-school faculty twice during his data collection period to deliver two small professional development sessions regarding language acquisition and instruction. Conferring to his field notes, it was noted that the majority of the questions and comments made by the teachers revolved around the misconceptions of DL. Although they all agreed that learning an L2 as a child is a much better experience and more effective than as an
adult, they still believed that, for instance, learning an L2 will impede one’s L1 acquisition and cause significant linguistic and academic delays. Some worried that these delays may be permanent. Another handful of teachers were concerned about what the DL transition would do to their students’ test scores. As Ms. Kristi eluded, in the past, students of the teachers who have been at Sunshine Catholic School for some time have often tested higher than average on their annual standardized assessments. All of these factors made the teachers hesitant, even resistant, toward the idea of teaching within the school’s DL program once it rolled-up to their respective grade level. Principal Sands expressed her concern with the teachers’ current apprehensions about having to teach in the school’s DL program. She mentioned, “They’re not convinced yet.”

Principal Sands was not the only one who had concerns for the faculty. Ms. KyAnne remarked:

“I think my hesitations are with the teachers. I think they’re very worried about the academics […] and that is a true worry, a true dilemma. But, I hope that doesn’t discourage them, and I hope that they go in 100 percent.”

Mirroring Ms. KyAnne’s comment of teacher preparation in DL, Ms. Kristi said:

“I just really hope that the teachers are on board because right now, this is successful because [Ms. KyAnne] and I are both on board. [Ms. Sofía] is on board. [Ms. Nancy] is on board. We need everyone on board.”

Principal Sands believed that a significant contributor to building the whole-school’s faculty’s belief and enthusiasm for DL is research. Principal Sands, Ms. Kristi, and Ms. KyAnne felt confident in their knowledge and understanding of the theoretical and empirical literature related to DL education and student outcomes. Principal Sands acknowledged that the majority
of the faculty at Sunshine Catholic School were ESOL endorsed; however, she recognized that ESOL certification alone did not mean that a teacher was qualified to teach DL education. She stated, “That’s not enough because that gives them the strategies.” Principal Sands noted that the faculty may not be as knowledgeable, and as a result, this lack of knowledge may be a leading factor to the teachers’ misconceptions and anxiety about DL instruction. Principal Sands indicated:

“Although the strategies are universal, they’re great for any student […] The understanding of how we acquire a second language is still not ingrained enough. I think the theory is important. Actually seeing the research and studying the research is a key piece of it. [The teachers] are not convinced yet. We have a lot to do with the professional development and the development of their own course work. I do think that all the teachers and I could use taking it again. It takes a lot of studying and a lot of looking at the research and understanding that piece. All we have to do is really take some of the courses, and I think that’s gonna be key.”

Principal Sands furthered this statement by indicating that gaining a foundational understanding of the research behind DL, as well as L1 and L2 development, is the first step to becoming a successful DL teacher. She added:

“In order to remain in the DL program – and as a teacher, even if you’re the monolingual teacher that is very good at teaching the English portion – [teachers] have to understand how we acquire our first language, how we acquire our English language. It’s the same techniques. So, I think all of us are gonna have to have a real good course in
understanding the make-up of the English language and then the make-up of our partner language. That is key.”

Moving forward, Principal Sands discussed looking into options for developing some type of on-site study session or workshop to present and teach them about the literature, both theoretical and empirical, regarding DL education, student outcomes in DL programs, and L1 and L2 acquisition.

In addition to desiring professional development surrounding the research of DL education and student outcomes, the need for training involving DL instructional practices was felt. Principal Sands recognized that this training yields quality DL teachers. She stated:

“I found out the importance of really finding certified people just like we do in the English department. We find teachers who are able to really teach those basic levels. Just because you know English, you […] are not the best teacher to teach children how to learn it.”

Principal Sands had this same outlook for her NSS teachers as well. She noted, “I find that my Spanish-speaking teachers are tougher on my Spanish students in kind of insisting English, English, English.” She initially thought that knowing a particular language meant that one could teach it. During her DL experience at a previous school, she realized that this was not the case. Other topics that arose included having a DL specialist for the whole-school and professional development for the Kindergarten teachers who will be included into Sunshine Catholic School’s DL program through the roll-up model during the 2018-2019 school year.

Another contributor that was believed to have had a significant effect on the faculty was the hard work that both Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne, as well as Ms. Nancy and Ms. Sofía, did
with their students during the school’s first year of the DL program. Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne recognized this as being possibly the most significant factor and the turning point for the faculty as they can see firsthand the linguistic and academic progress that their students made by the end of the 2017-2018 school year.

Both the teachers and Principal Sands felt that on-going professional development in DL instruction and programming was significant to gaining the support from the entire school’s faculty. It should be added that Sunshine Catholic School believed that the professional development sessions should not be a one-time occurrence. Instead, they should be continuous throughout the school year and be presented by professionals with experience in DL programming and instruction and knowledgeable in the research. The school’s administration arranged for a handful of teachers to visit one or two local DL elementary schools that were considered successful. Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne were not among those who were selected to visit the local DL schools.

In addition to ongoing professional development in DL, the teachers remarked about the need for a whole-school DL specialist whose principle responsibility would be DL programming for the school as it related to development, curriculum, scheduling, training, and instructional guidance and coaching to non-DL trained faculty. Although both of the DL teachers shared the same sentiment, Ms. Kristi was very strong about having one at the school. Throughout all four interviews, Ms. Kristi referenced the presence of a whole-school DL specialist. In her first interview, Ms. Kristi stated:
“I think that we need somebody that their job here is dual language, program, curriculum, planning. There needs to be some person that that is their only job, and they are responsible for rolling out this program for the school because it became my job.”

Ms. Kristi continued by discussing the dual role that she took prior to the 2017-2018 school year. Continuing with the dual role that she took on as the VPK and Preschool Director and teacher as well as structuring the grade level to be appropriate for DL, Ms. Kristi added:

“I was going to be the VPK and the Preschool Director and because I was the only PreK-4 teacher that was continuing on with the program [from last year] and a new one was coming […] Someone should be hired that is the central person from the beginning. That person needs to start working on program and curriculum development a year before the school wants to launch it. As soon as I found out that we were doing [dual language], that’s what I started doing. I had a year of figuring all of this out.”

It should be emphasized that although Ms. Kristi felt that the DL program would be better supported if it had a whole-school DL specialist, she was still very pleased with the program’s success and felt supported by the school’s administration. In her final interview, Ms. Kristi said:

“Overall, I’d say the [dual language] program is very successful and going very well. Our staff works really, really well together and that is critical. We are a team, a family, a community. That’s something [Sunshine Catholic School] is very good at. [Sunshine Catholic School] has always had a very strong community.”

Although Ms. KyAnne and Principal Sands did not explicitly mention having a DL specialist hired for the whole-school, they made several references expressing their appreciation for having an outside DL specialist come to Sunshine Catholic School from a partner university,
on a handful of occasions, to assist the teachers with curriculum development, scheduling, and structuring for both the current and upcoming school years.

Subtheme 1C: Parent/Family Support

Everyone at Sunshine Catholic School recognized the task of helping the parents, many of whom currently had children in both the upper grades and in PreK/VPK-4, to understand the DL change and how that would affect their children who were enrolled into the PreK/VPK-4 program for the 2017-2018 school year. Parents not only needed support and reassurance from the school, but the school needed to know that the parents were committed to the school’s DL transition. An ongoing concern, however, was how to provide at-home support systems for the students and their families so that the parents were able to help their children with homework and continue their L2 fluency, regardless of whether it was Spanish or English, even when the parents did not speak the language themselves.

As with the faculty at Sunshine Catholic School who did not have experience or knowledge about DL education, parents also had reservations that the school needed to address. When it was announced to the parents whose children were enrolled into the school during the 2016-2017 school year that the school’s PreK/VPK-4 program would become DL for the 2017-2018 school year and then roll-up into the upper grades with each subsequent year, Ms. Kristi saw families that did not return to the school due to this change. Ms. Kristi recalled:

“Last year, I had a family leave my class, not during the school year, but not return for this [2017-2018 school] year because of the dual language program, [and] because their child was a native-English speaker and really believed that this would harm them.
They’re like, ‘Well, maybe we’ll find out years later: Oh, it would have been so much better, but, maybe we’ll find out: No, it was wrong and it was so hard.’”

Ms. KyAnne indicated that although she was not at Sunshine Catholic School when the announcement was made to the parents, she was told about the families’ reactions. She stated, “[The school] did tell me that there was pushback from some families…that a couple families chose to take their kids away to a different school.”

The researcher met with the parents at the beginning of the data collection in the fall of 2017 during the school’s coffee hour in which Ms. KyAnne and he spoke with parents whose children were enrolled into the PreK/VPK-4 DL program about DL education. The researcher noted in his field notes that six parents attended and all but one identified as NSS. The sixth parent did not disclose his L1. The researcher was surprised as he expected to see parents who were primarily NES. The parents from this coffee hour discussed their fears about DL with the main concern being that they were afraid that continuing instruction in Spanish, the majority’s L1, would delay and hinder their children’s L2 of English. This thinking was framed around the concept that English, although not official, is the language of the United States, schooling, and the workforce.

These same fears appeared when the researcher sat down with parents at the second coffee hour on March 1, 2018. A few of the parents commented that they observed their children speaking Spanish, their L1, prior to starting the DL program. Once they started the program in August 2017, they wanted to speak only in English and refused to speak in Spanish whether it was because they had an NES father or were in a community where they had access and
opportunities to speak English (e.g., going shopping). One mother compared her children by saying:

“My oldest daughter, for example, it was a huge struggle for her to speak Spanish. So, she unfortunately does not speak it. I am really excited that my other daughter is able to pick it up. Plus, she has the added bonus that the lady that was watching her…up until she started here, was already speaking to her completely in Spanish. The only obstacle that I’ve come across is, and I think it’s part of her shyness, she does not want to speak Spanish to me at home at all.”

On the other side of the spectrum, when the researcher met with the parents at the beginning of the school year during the Fall 2017 coffee hour, parents were concerned about whether or not learning an L2 would hinder or permanently delay their children’s L1 development. Because this particular coffee hour occurred before the parent interview-IRB addendum was approved, the researcher was unable to obtain audio. However, he took field notes on their concerns and the overall conversations. Furthermore, NSS parents expressed that they initially had, and at the time of the Fall 2017 coffee hour, still had, reservations about enrolling their children into the DL program due to the parents wanting their children to learn English. They felt that continuing an education in Spanish would permanently delay their children’s L2-English acquisition. The researcher brought this concern up to Ms. KyAnne during the interview after this coffee talk. When asked about her response to the NSS parents and their concern that education in Spanish will impede their children’s English language acquisition, she replied:
“In that case, I would maybe try to connect to them on a more personal level. Maybe share my story about how I can fluently speak both and that was because I was exposed to both languages […] Out in the real world, there’s English everywhere, […] so they are going to get that exposure and it is going to come to them. But, to also not lose their native language.”

She continued by recounting her own personal history of being afraid to talk with her great grandmother and other family members due to her lack of confidence in her L1 of Spanish. She continued:

“You don’t want to lose their heritage; you don’t want to lose their family connections…just kind of have them try to see it through that lens of ‘there’s so much value in keeping your Spanish language strong’ […] Both languages are equal.”

Additionally, the parents from the March 2018 coffee hour’s interview collectively asked many questions about the structure of the DL program going forward into Kindergarten. They were worried about how the change from a more play-based learning classroom environment in PreK/VPK-4 to a more traditional classroom environment in which students sit in desks while the teacher stands and lectures in front of the classroom would affect their children. They had many questions regarding what would be taught, in what language, and the qualifications of the Kindergarten teachers. Sunshine Catholic School’s guidance counselor was present with the researcher and fielded the logistics of the school that the researcher could not speak on because he did not possess the knowledge.

A handful of informational sessions were scheduled for the parents, two presented by the researcher, regarding DL education and language acquisition in the form of coffee talk hours.
Additionally, the students were welcomed to the school with their parents during the Meet the Teacher session at the beginning of the school year. Ms. Kristi described the current year’s PreK/VPK-4’s Meet the Teacher:

“We had a huge turnout for Meet the Teacher and for our Pre-K parent meeting night. We just explained everything, and [Ms. KyAnne] and I did the presentation. I would speak in English; she would speak in Spanish […] We do questions the same way and then translate it. It was the parents who chose the program; they’re pretty on board with it.”

As the school year progresses, it is hoped that both the linguistic and academic progression of the students who were currently enrolled in the PreK/VPK-4 DL program at the time of the study (i.e., the 2017-2018 school year) would set a successful example for the parents whose children will be enrolled into the 2018-2019 school year. Additionally, it is hoped that the success of the current, PreK/VPK-4 students enrolled into the school’s DL program will dispel any misconceptions about the research that the parents had. Ms. Kristi explained:

“I had families leaving because they’re scared that they’ve read research that says dual language programs hurt your child…which there is no way because either the research is invalid, not reputable, or you just read someone’s blog of a parent who was scared and didn’t like it.”

Overall, the parents whose children were enrolled into the DL program at the PreK/VPK-4 grade level became rather comfortable with their decision to enroll their children into the program, including the parents who had reservations. In the parent interview, one mother said about her daughter:
“For me, I speak Spanish at home; it’s my first language. My husband speaks English. My daughter, I only speak with her in Spanish, but she always answers me in English because she doesn’t want to speak in Spanish. So lately, she started to say some words [in Spanish]. She knows – she understands everything I say in Spanish. I see her trying, and she is trying to say some words like ‘perro’ […] So to me, it’s great that she is improving.”

Comments like these during the parent interview sessions reassured others who attended that their children were not unintelligent or falling behind, either cognitively nor linguistically. Ms. Kristi said:

“I think [the parents] are pretty on board with [the DL program]. When we had that meeting, all the parents were really supportive at Meet the Teacher. All the parents were really supportive, and they had really good questions. Yeah. They’re pretty with it.”

Ms. KyAnne explained that at the beginning of the school year, parents would contact her because they were concerned that their children came home crying or said that they cried in school because they were scared or unable to understand Ms. KyAnne or Ms. Kristi due to the differences between the L1s. However, by October, the parents relaxed as their children began to build their comprehension and production skills in their L2.

Parents expressed that they would like more support from the school and from their children’s DL teachers by informing them of what is being taught in class at the beginning of the week rather than what was taught at the end of the week. One parent commented:

“It’s so hard to get something out of [my child]. It’s like, ‘Hey, what’d you do today?’ so that you can reinforce at home, too, you know? I know that [Ms. Kristi] and [Ms.
KyAnne] send something home at the end of the week saying, ‘Hey, this is what we did.’
I think it would be great to say, ‘Hey, this is what we’re going to do this week. We’re
gonna [sic] practice these letters or these sounds or whatever,’ so that during the week we
can say, ‘Oh, what’s this letter? What’s this sound? What did you do? Did you do this?’”

Before the parent interviews were conducted, Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne had already
spoken about extending support at home. The two teachers discussed with the parents supporting
strategies that they could do with their children when at home. Ms. Kristi explained:

“Things that they can do at home [include] writing, alliteration, [and] practice writing
your name. Play-Dough strengthens the small muscles in your hand. All these things so
that the parents have a cheat sheet of what we know because this is our career, our
expertise.”

When asked about literacy at home, Ms. Kristi replied:

“Every day [parents are] supposed to read 20 minutes [with their children]. When we did
our November conferences, we asked every family if they read 20 minutes a night […] A
lot of families said they did. Some of them said they didn’t.”

In following up about literacy at home, the researcher asked what the two teachers recommended
to parents who did not speak a particular L2 nor possess L2, academic literacy skills. Ms. Kristi
responded:

“We talked to everyone about their comfort level […] What we did is if you feel
comfortable being able to read – if you’re a native-English speaker, read in English. But,
if you feel comfortable being able to read in Spanish, try that. But, if you don’t, we didn’t
want to force parents to be reading in a language because the phonics is very different for
English and Spanish. We don’t want that child hearing quite a bit incorrect [sic]. Now, some of the [NES] parents are learning Spanish to help their kids, so if they want to start practicing and the children will help them. If they felt not comfortable, always just keep with whatever language you do know how to read in, whether it’s English or Spanish. Then, there’s also quite a few children story read-alouds on YouTube, where someone’s reading it.”

Subtheme 1D: Diverse School Décor

As described in the literature from Chapter 2, researchers at DL schools took notice that even though the schools were well-intentioned with regard to respecting both English and the schools’ partner language of instruction, a devaluation of the partner language was visible through the schools’ and classrooms’ signage and décor. This was not the situation observed at Sunshine Catholic School. Instead, throughout the school, the researcher noted that there were various signs and placards that were written in both English and Spanish, and each language was equally valued.

Upon walking up to the school on the first day of data collection, the researcher noted the various signs and placards outside that led up to the school. The signs welcomed the students and families in both English and Spanish. Upon walking into the school, Sunshine Catholic School’s emblem was proudly displayed with the school’s motto ‘Learning today, Leading tomorrow. Aprendiendo hoy, Liderando mañana’ on a deep red wall. This wall was the first thing that visitors, students, parents, and school faculty and staff saw and walked past when they entered the school. Figure 3 is a photograph taken by the researcher of the welcoming sign outside of the
school, and Figure 4 depicts the school’s motto on the ‘welcome wall’. It should be noted that both photographs intentionally left out Sunshine Catholic School’s emblem which contained the school name to protect the identity of the school.

![Welcome Banner](image)

*Figure 3. Photograph of Sunshine Catholic School’s Welcome Banner from Outside*
Ms. KyAnne referenced back to her initial interview with Sunshine Catholic School indicating that the school had every intention of representing both English and Spanish as equally as possible from the beginning of the program. She stated, “[Sunshine Catholic School] wanted to represent the languages spoken. They were explaining to me how they were going to paint the murals in both of the languages and how they really wanted to commit to it and go forward.”

One January morning, Sunshine Catholic School’s religious administrator, Brother Tayte, stopped by both Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne’s classrooms. He dropped off a poster that he asked the teachers to post on their classroom doors. The poster was written in both English and Spanish. Brother Tayte sat with the students in a circle to talk about the poster’s message and had the students read it in Spanish. Figure 5 is a photograph of the poster that Brother Tayte distributed to the classroom DL teachers.

*Figure 4. Photograph of Sunshine Catholic School’s ‘Welcome Wall’ with School Motto*
Principal Sands followed up with a discussion about the importance of setting the overall school culture by encouraging DL throughout the entire school. This was not limited to just classroom instruction. She stated:

“I would like to see that for us to understand that the development of culture is something that we all have to understand. That it’s a dual language school, not just in the younger grades, but it is a change within the culture of the entire school. We are all learning language. I think that that’s key in trying to make sure that people aren’t threatened by it
Subtheme 1E: Student Diversity in the Dual Language Classrooms

By the end of the data collection in March 2018, the PreK/VPK-4 grade level totaled 40 students. Between the two home base classrooms, there was quite a bit of diversity amongst the students. The primary ethnicities were Hispanic and White, and from the researcher’s observations, many students were considered to be bilingual in both English and Spanish as they were observed to code-switch between the two languages with ease. In other words, the students who were considered bilingual were able to talk with one another in both English and Spanish and interchange between the two languages without difficulty. The researcher did not think that the students even knew they were code-switching.

In addition, Sunshine Catholic School had a wide variety of students’ home languages that extended beyond just English and Spanish. The next most commonly spoken home language was Vietnamese, with four students having this as their predominant home language, along with some English, and one student who spoke both languages equally at home. Other languages that were spoken at home included Amharic, French Creole, Hindi, Italian, Konkani, Tagalog, and Thai. From this group of students, all but one spoke one of the languages just mentioned with some degree of English. This description refers to Table 1 from Sunshine Catholic School’s vignette that was described at the beginning of Chapter 4.

Aside from the growing L1 of Spanish, students’ socioeconomic backgrounds also influenced the Diocese’s decision to transition Sunshine Catholic School to DL. Principal Sands
acknowledged that the White-NES students have typically come from higher socioeconomic levels; whereas, Black students and Hispanic-NSS students have come to the school from lower socioeconomic backgrounds. Despite this economic discrepancy in student trends at Sunshine Catholic School, Principal Sands happily welcomed students and families from all socioeconomic levels to the school. She explained:

“The Diocese [of Sunshine City] is probably the most diverse culturally and in the culture and in socioeconomic piece of it. Within I’d say probably the last six years, there has been a blend of the economic – a different economic level. It used to be predominantly affluent. It’s like a destination school. It brings in different levels of that, but it has become more of a blend of socioeconomic need. There is been a need for that. We have a wonderful blend of cultures!”

From Ms. Kristi’s understanding of Sunshine Catholic School’s past prior to her arrival, the school’s student body consisted of NES students who were academically high performing and from affluent households. “This is what it seems like people talked about how [Sunshine Catholic School] used to be, but the reality is, that’s not our demographic now. That’s not the children that are here now.” She added that her students came from families whose parents were highly affluent as well as from families whose parents were working multiple jobs. She also indicated that she had students who were from single-parent households. Referencing the school’s PreK/VPK-4’s DL program, she added, “[The parents] believe in this kind of education. They want this for their child, so they’re doing that […] to make sure that their kid can be here.”

Furthermore, it is worth noting that Sunshine Catholic School, like nearly all faith-based PreK-12 schools, was a private school. As such, students were not zoned to the school like public
schools in the United States. In other words, parents purposefully elected to have their children enrolled into Sunshine Catholic School. In doing so, parents paid an annual tuition fee to have their children attend the school. Ms. KyAnne commented on this by saying, “There’s a mix of students. Because this a private school, I believe the students who are staying all day, there’s a lot more that are more affluent.” This references the school’s tuition-free, VPK morning program. She continued:

“They all come dressed nicely. They bring their snacks. There were a couple students at the beginning of the year who didn’t have backpacks, so we provided backpacks to them […] But, I wouldn’t be able to look at someone and say, ‘Okay, you come from a very low socioeconomic setting.’”

Principal Sands furthered Ms. KyAnne’s comments by stating, “The blend is really a wonderful blend, actually, that we have […] the blending of the communities [and] the socioeconomic need and the blend is not really that noticeable, but it is there.”

**Theme 2: Language Policy and Curriculum Development**

The second theme to emerge related to Sunshine Catholic School’s language policy and curriculum development. Principal Sands indicated that regarding the curriculum and resources, Sunshine Catholic School had a healthy budget for its DL program. She reported that the budget averaged $300-400 per student. Additionally, new curriculum is purchased on a year-to-year basis. Regarding the DL funding, Principal Sands commented:

“That will be the only curriculum expense up through grade 5 because we’ve already invested in a new English curriculum. So, we will just be investing in the Spanish
curriculum piece of that. So, it’s not gonna be a big stress on the budget, really. There will be some minor things, but the materials – it’s real important that they’re good materials, so […] we will have to equip one classroom with the Spanish curriculum. That will be the major expense because we have two classrooms, and I don’t have to add an extra teacher or anything.”

Within this theme, four primary subthemes emerged, including administrative leadership, teacher leadership, reaching out to a DL expert as a resource, and language policies. Figure 6 provides a graphic depiction of Theme 2, along with its subthemes.
Figure 6. Theme 2: Language Policy and Curriculum Development
Subtheme 2A: Administrative Leadership

Principal Sands wanted to implement a true 50-50 DL model in which there were two separate curricula: (a) English-based and (b) Spanish-based. She explained:

“We looked at several [curriculum sets]. We wanted two different curriculums for the English language arts and the Spanish language arts because we didn’t want [students and teachers] just translating the materials and kind of not moving forward in either class […] We really wanted authentic literature to be present.”

As a result, students did not receive the same content instruction in each language (i.e., English and Spanish). Instead, students received certain subject areas from the English-medium teacher and another set of subject areas from the Spanish-medium teacher. The chosen curriculum for the English classroom was *Frog Street Press*, as researched and selected by Ms. Kristi one year prior to the 2017-2018 school year, and *DLM Express* for the Spanish instruction. Principal Sands believed that in order to successfully execute these curricula, the teachers within each grade level (e.g., PreK/VPK-4 Spanish- and PreK/VPK-4 English-medium teachers) need to work together in a partner-teaching structure in which they organize their lessons into thematic units.

Principal Sands made a conscious effort to give the teachers as much autonomy as possible. A deeper analysis showed that Principal Sands did not want to frame the new DL program from a top-down approach in which the administration makes all the decisions regarding the school’s language and curricular policies and instructional practices. Rather, she firmly believed, based on her experiences in other states, that a successful DL program, particularly a new program, involves all of its key actors in all aspects of the program.
Principal Sands relied on her past DL experience when making this decision. To reiterate, Principal Sands stated, “[The teachers] are going to be key to the whole planning. I think that as we work together, they see that they have to develop the program […] That’s not something from top-down, but something we build together.” As such, a bottom-up approach was strategically and carefully adopted as Sunshine Catholic School’s model for DL programming and curriculum development. As a result, both the administration and the teachers of each particular grade level would have equal representation and input into the DL program and its curriculum’s development, the policies, and overall success of the DL program.

Principal Sands was not the only one who recognized that a bottom-up approach to DL curriculum development and programming was appropriate. When asked about who the key actors would be when making decisions about the development of the DL program’s curriculum and policies, Ms. Kristi replied:

“The people I think who should be involved in planning would be whoever the teachers are going to be in that [grade level and] some person that is overarching for the whole-school’s program design. You can have your administrators, but because they don’t live in the classroom – so they could be involved as a part of it – but you need those teachers and you need this other person that their [sic] job is managing the program as it goes up.”

Both teachers discussed the responsibilities that they were tasked with as they related to the development of the program, as well as the administration’s responses to their requests for assistance and support. These responsibilities are explicitly discussed in the next subtheme of Theme 2. Overall, the teachers were satisfied with Principal Sands’ guidance and conscious
decision to execute a bottom-up approach to leadership. In her last interview, Ms. KyAnne noted:

“I think the administration has been very positive with it and has been very encouraging of the program. It is a challenge to start a program, and there’s going to be things that need to be worked out. They’ve been very open to hearing what we need and then letting us go with it. Then, if it doesn’t work, we’ll go back to the drawing board because you can feel that everybody wants this program to succeed. I think for me, that’s the biggest success with it because it is a big change for the school. Everyone needs to have their questions answered, and I think [the administration is] taking that very seriously, and they’re helping us.”

Subtheme 2B: Teacher Leadership

Principal Sands acknowledged the critical roles that teachers have in the implementation and success of a new DL program. Based on both research and experience, Principal Sands positioned both Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne, the only two DL teachers for the 2017-2018 school year, to have an active and autonomous role in not only the implementation of the program but also in its development. When asked about how critical the teachers would be on the overall success of the program, she replied:

“They are going to be key to the whole planning. I think that as we work together, they see that they have to develop the program. They have to be comfortable with the changing and the shift of it. That’s pretty critical. Very critical is that the teachers are on
board with it. That’s not something from top-down, but something that we build
together.”

Principal Sands felt that the key to this new DL program’s success was the collaboration
that must occur amongst the teachers, especially between the English and Spanish teachers
within the same grade level. Both Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne participated in the selection of the
curricula and language policies that were implemented into their classrooms. Additionally, both
teachers created the structure and scheduling of their classrooms. Because she had no formal and
explicit training in bilingual and DL education, Ms. Kristi took it upon herself to consult current
research and become knowledgeable of both the theoretical and empirical literature regarding DL
instruction. When Ms. Kristi was first tasked with structuring the upcoming DL program for the
PreK/VPK-4 grade during the 2016-2017 school year, she relied on the research that she read on
her own and had those around her review the program that she created. She described:

“I definitely asked for support from anyone who was willing to give it and share it. The
reality was, I took what I knew, and I talked to the resources of the people that I had. I
just did the best that I could to create a program that I believed would be successful. Had
I thought that it would not be successful then I would have said that I can’t continue.”

In creating this new program one year ago, Ms. Kristi mentioned that some of the people she
sought support from included a Spanish teacher, Ms. Nancy, Ms. Sofía, and Principal Sands. Ms.
Kristi said, “I checked in with our Spanish teacher […] I even would check things with Ms.
Nancy to be like, ‘Hey, this is the schedule; is there anything that you think I’m missing as far as
kinks?’”
Once Ms. KyAnne was hired and officially began teaching at Sunshine Catholic School, Ms. Kristi came to rely on her support as Ms. KyAnne came from a DL school and had formal training in bilingual and DL education. Ms. Kristi explained:

“As soon as I knew that [Ms. KyAnne] was on board, and that she had had some experience, I showed her all of the stuff that I had created […] She had the background. So, she was able to see, ‘Oh, this is very good,’ but able to put together that I had created it.”

In addition upon being hired, Ms. KyAnne was involved in the program structuring of the upcoming program and curriculum for their PreK/VPK-4 grade level. Various aspects of both curricula (i.e., English and Spanish) were compared, including scheduling, timing, amount of lesson circles, and thematic units. Additionally, both teachers worked together in dividing the students into their respective homerooms (i.e., English or Spanish) based on their home languages. Both teachers worked together to establish policies and procedures that students followed in both classrooms, such as procedures for lining up to transition from one classroom to the next, routines for snack and lunchtime, appropriate behaviors during the play-based learning centers, and circle lessons. In this way, they were uniform in both classrooms.

Principal Sands remarked on how the DL program in the current, PreK/VPK-4 grade level sets the tone as it relates to Sunshine Catholic School’s overall school culture of embracing and encouraging DL. As the DL rolls-up to the subsequent grades, the teachers at Sunshine Catholic School will be expected to take responsibility in their understanding of DL and structure their grade respective level so that it reflects the 50-50 DL model. However, the teachers will not be left alone to do this as they will receive support and guidance from the school’s administration.
and the teachers who have been teaching in the school’s DL program previously. During the school year’s in-school professional development sessions, both teachers gave updates on their students’ progress and experiences as the first DL teachers of the school to help alleviate the anxiety of the rest of the faculty. Additionally, both Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne took it upon themselves to promote DL in whole-school professional development sessions as they helped to present DL with the researcher during a professional development presentation that was delivered to the school’s faculty in October 2017.

The two current DL teachers at Sunshine Catholic School were tasked with the responsibility of making program decisions for their grade level, PreK/VPK-4. Ms. Kristi made the majority of the decisions before Ms. KyAnne was hired at the school. When describing the task of selecting a curricula for the PreK/VPK-4, DL program, Ms. Kristi replied:

“Last year I was told to find the two best curriculums, one in English and one in Spanish, and that they were to be different. So, I researched to the best of my ability. I chose the two curriculums that we have […] I am using Frog Street Press, which right now is pretty much the premier PreK curriculum. The DLM Express is what the Spanish classroom is using.”

Although Ms. Kristi was tasked with the responsibility to review and select curricula for the classrooms and structure the DL program in the PreK/VPK-4 grade level, she sought the advice and support of the administration when needed. She reflected, “I checked in with [Principal Sands] at every step. I said, ‘This is what I’m doing. Is this okay?’”

Despite Ms. KyAnne arriving after the primary discussions regarding the curriculum had already occurred, she commented on the curriculum that she used in her previous DL instruction
during her interview with Sunshine Catholic School. However, upon accepting the position, she was given the curriculum that was already decided upon before coming to the school. Ms. KyAnne, however, did discuss how she has academic freedom when it comes to executing the curriculum to how she sees fit.

In giving the teachers responsibilities over their curriculum development, Principal Sands was careful to ensure that there was an open-door policy in which the teachers were able to approach their school’s administrative team with concerns and requests regarding the DL programming, curriculum development, and language policies. Both of the PreK/VPK-4, DL teachers indicated that they felt supported and comfortable turning to the administration for such needs. Ms. KyAnne recalled that she and the teachers voiced their concerns and requests for assistance related to scheduling and overall structuring of the DL program to administration. She remarked that the administration was very helpful and remained very positive toward them when they reached out. These concerns got addressed appropriately, and they were able to make decisions regarding these topics which were welcomed by the administration. Ms. KyAnne also voiced that the current curriculum for her Spanish classroom was not appropriate and needed changed. At her suggestion, the administration is replacing the current curriculum, *DLM Express*, with *Estrellita* for next year (i.e., 2018-2019 school year).

The researcher asked the teachers if they were allowed and/or encouraged to adapt their respective curriculum to what they saw fit. Ms. Kristi remarked that they were encouraged to choose what they felt was necessary due to the DL program’s structure in which each teacher had each homeroom 50 percent of the school year for instructional time due to the two languages of instruction (i.e., English and Spanish). Ms. Kristi clarified, “I made it very clear from the
beginning it would be impossible for us to complete two curriculums [sic] because the curriculums [sic] are for a full year, and we’re only seeing the children 50 percent of the time.”

She added:

“If I had to do this curriculum with fidelity, the amount of time that [the students] spend…it’s an overwhelming amount of stuff every day. I don’t know how you would do all of it […] When you’re first starting with the curriculum, it’s overwhelming because you have to kind of figure out what’s the best.”

Ms. KyAnne remarked that she enjoyed the flexibility in selecting the relevant content and activities from her curriculum.

“I think I would really like to kinda help show that you can teach without having to follow the curriculum word-by-word. I think some people are overwhelmed by that, especially on the Spanish side of it. They go, ‘Well, where are we gonna get the resources? Where are we gonna get the different stuff?’ So, I want to be able to kind of model for them the experiences that can happen, even if the kids aren’t understanding 100 percent of it.”

She stressed the importance of making the curriculum not just a vehicle in which the teacher explicitly lectures at the students. She stated:

“You don’t have to just teach the vocab or the letter. It should be more authentic experiences with the kids because that’s more memorable. They start using the vocabulary if they’re actually playing and touching and […] just keeping them engaged in the lesson instead of just talking to them.”
Ms. KyAnne furthered her appreciation for academic freedom, as it related to the curriculum, by issuing an explanation of where her curriculum fell short. Although she appreciated that the lesson circles’ activities that were provided for science and the lessons for teaching the letters and sounds of the alphabet were interactive, these subjects were not as hands-on as she would have liked. As a result, she had to rearrange how the content objectives were delivered from within the curriculum. She explained:

“I’m following the learning targets – what they want us to do. So, we’re still talking about observation […] I’m still hitting that; I’m following the curriculum for that. But, the actual activities I think we could do way better things. For example, this week, [the curriculum] wanted us to just look at a flip chart and talk about observing the animals. I said, ‘That’s kind of boring.’ You can do that while you’re reading the books. You don’t have to do a whole circle on just that. So instead, we observed the vinegar going into the baking soda with the vinegar and then seeing the balloon inflate. To me, that’s way more active and the kids enjoy it […] so we’re making predictions; we’re observing. So, I think the science is really lacking in that area where I just think, ‘But we can do this instead or this!’ and have it be more engaging for kids.”

Principal Sands was supportive of the teachers selecting the most important pieces from the curriculum. She said, “I think for the teachers, when teachers get a curriculum, they see from beginning to end. They’re going to have to be a little bit more selective in [the] parts of that curriculum.”

When asked about the advantages and disadvantages of the selected curricula, it was very apparent that there was a discrepancy in the Spanish resources and materials. Ms. Kristi said:
“We were significantly limited Spanish-wise and even the curriculum I have is technically an English-Spanish one. I ordered the English-only, and they were supposed to send me English-only. But, they sent me both. [Ms. KyAnne]’s is the Spanish curriculum, and I believe hers has a bunch of English as well. It’s not strictly Spanish.”

Ms. KyAnne indicated that the biggest resource that was lacking was the amount of quality books that were written in Spanish and provided for an authentic, literary experience. She commented, “The books, they’re in Spanish, which is good, but a lot of them just seem very complicated for the kids.” As a result, because of the exceedingly high complexity of language that the books were written in, Ms. KyAnne sometimes read the pictures by making up her own story or summarized what the words said on each page. “It’s fine, but it would be nice to be able to have good, authentic books that can be read, and they can be enjoyed […] They’re usable. They’re just not the best choice.” Ms. KyAnne specifically referenced how the literary selection directly affected her social studies lessons. She stated:

“The social studies is good. I wish that they would incorporate more books in the social studies. I’m the one who has to find books to pull into it, but it would be very cool if they could be like, ‘Okay. We’re talking about families. These are a list of books that are recommended for families.’”

Aside from having an appropriate amount of authentic books in Spanish, Ms. KyAnne commented that because the curriculum was also in English, it provided no resources to instruct and assess her students on Spanish phonology and letter recognition despite her needing to do periodic Spanish letter and sound recognition. Additionally, the materials provided were in English and appropriate for an English-based instruction. She described an instance when she
taught the students about the phonological sound for the Spanish letter ‘B’ as being /b/. After teaching the Spanish pronunciation and letter name, she recalled the curriculum directing her to read a poem that was in English to reinforce the pronunciation. She remarked:

“With the sound /b/, I am reading English words. To me, that doesn’t make sense. No, it should be in Spanish if you’re asking them to do that – if this is really an authentic thing. I follow that we’re going to do beginning sounds, but I find my own way to do it without mixing the languages. I think it would be very awkward to say, ‘Vamos a decir el primer sonido de la palabra bed [when teaching about the Spanish pronunciation of /b/].’ What!?! So that’s one thing. That’s a big letdown that I have to find my own resources for a lot of the poems and the songs and stuff like that.”

Principal Sands also realized that the Spanish curriculum was not well-suited for a true DL program due to the overwhelming amount of English that came with the curriculum. She issued, “We thought we were getting…I think it is a bilingual edition, which is not my favorite. So, I probably will plan to change that next year, because I didn’t want anything that was translated for my Spanish program.” She added:

“We won’t be using [the chosen curriculum] for Kindergarten. That’s gonna be a totally different Spanish curriculum. One that’s used at some of the other dual language schools […] it’s pure Spanish literature. [The students] need to be exposed to very, very good literature, not just translated books, etc.”
Subtheme 2C: Outside Dual Language Certified and Experienced Resource

Throughout the teacher interviews, and as previously discussed in Theme 1, Ms. Kristi advocated for the importance and need for a DL specialist at the school. As it related to the topic of curriculum development, Ms. Kristi remarked:

“Because I am not qualified to do curriculum development…I do know what my children need to know, the skills that they need to have, and the standards they need to meet – that I can do. But, as far as a curriculum and scope and sequence, that’s not something that I’m qualified to design for a dual language program. So, we need a person who’s in charge of that to make sure that it goes all the way up correctly.”

She commented about the work she completed in designing the PreK/VPK-4 DL program for the year prior to the DL program beginning in this level. She remarked:

“I had all the research. I already had most it. I just reviewed some of it, then figured out a way to sync that program into this school in the most effective way […] I think what I’ve done is effective and is good. I definitely think there’s room to grow, but this is why I spent hours and hours doing this last year because I knew I had to have it set by the end of last year.”

When asked about what would have made this experience and programming better or more effective, she commented:

“We need more direction from a specific person. I think the program is effective, but I’m not an expert in this in the same way that I am in Early Childhood […] It’s as good as I know to have it be, but I just do think that having direction from someone else that is an expert in this field would make it get to that full 100, or really 95, that your goal is.”
Ms. KyAnne did not explicitly discuss the need for having a whole-school DL specialist. However, Principal Sands and the Program Coordinator of the local university’s World Languages and ESOL Education program secured a professional partnership through participation in a multi-million dollar grant that specifically addressed professional development and training of teachers who are new to DL instruction. This partnership was one that was mutually beneficial for each party. The grant had a director who is experienced in DL programming and curriculum design. Throughout the researcher’s data collection period, the director visited Sunshine Catholic School to work with its faculty and administration on various programming structures and curriculum development. Ms. KyAnne was a part of these meetings. As such, Ms. KyAnne repeatedly discussed her appreciation for the director’s assistance, guidance, and expertise in these tasks and how beneficial it was to have had the director helping.

Subtheme 2D: Language Policy of the Dual Language Classrooms

As far as the researcher concluded, Sunshine Catholic School did not have a written, formal language policy that was schoolwide. It was concluded that because of the principal’s disposition on wanting the program to be developed from a bottom-up approach, policy decisions on language were left up to the teachers. However, it was clear that Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne had established language policies for their own classrooms as well as with each other when entering one another’s classroom with the students present. These contexts are discussed in greater detail in Theme 3: Classroom Language Use and L2 Differentiation.
Theme 3: Classroom Language Use and L2 Differentiation

As noted in Theme 2, although there were no official, written language policies that were established for the school, the PreK/VPK-4 DL teachers and teacher aides worked together to create their own that they would follow with both students and each other. This model was purposeful as the teachers wanted these polices to reflect a 50-50 DL model as much as possible. However, the researcher observed different situations where exceptions were made and the language policies would be forgiven. Such instances included redirecting behavior, comforting students who were in fits of distress, and faculty not knowing the classroom’s respective L2.

During classroom instruction, both Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne provided several strategies that scaffolded the students’ linguistic and academic progress, regardless of the students’ L1. Accommodations and differentiation were explicitly observed in both teachers’ modeling of their respective classroom’s language of instruction and their lesson circles in which they taught lessons and instructional content. Both teachers, particularly Ms. KyAnne, found ways to make their instruction differentiated to meet the individual needs of the students despite the lack of resources that accompanied the selected curriculum as discussed in Theme 3. A third theme that emerged regarding linguistic and instructional accommodations was with Student J, a Puerto Rican student who came to the continental United States after enduring the impacts from both Hurricanes Irma and Maria in 2017. Overall, both teachers felt very confident in their teaching styles and felt that they were doing their students justice with the types and amount of instructional and linguistic differentiation and scaffolding strategies that they incorporated into their lessons and with their students. Ms. KyAnne remarked, “For me, it has been very positive
in regards to my actual teaching style.” Figure 7 provides a graphic depiction of Theme 3, along with its subthemes.
Figure 7. Theme 3: Classroom Language Use and L2 Differentiation
Subtheme 3A: Classroom Language Décor

Within the two PreK/VPK-4, DL classrooms, signage and décor corresponded with each classroom and its respective language of instruction (i.e., English or Spanish). In Ms. Kristi’s English classroom, the daily schedule, posters, and wall art were in English. Along one wall, the English alphabet was posted. The classroom library was stocked with books that were written in English. Figures 8-12 show Ms. Kristi’s English classroom’s signage and décor.

Figure 8. English Classroom’s Bulletin Board and Portion of the English Alphabet
Figure 9. English Classroom’s Bulletin Board

Figure 10. English Classroom’s Student Art Wall
Figure 11. English Classroom’s Poster

Figure 12. English Classroom’s Library
Similar to Ms. Kristi’s classroom, Ms. KyAnne’s Spanish classroom also had posters, the daily schedule, and wall art that were in Spanish. The classroom had the Spanish alphabet along the wall with the additional Spanish language letters (e.g., CH, LL, Ñ). Additionally, classroom objects, such as a door, were labeled with Spanish vocabulary. Ms. KyAnne’s library of books included both Spanish-written and bilingual books written in both English and Spanish for the reasons discussed by Ms. KyAnne in Theme 3. Figures 13-17 show Ms. KyAnne’s Spanish classroom’s signage and décor.

Figure 13. Spanish Classroom’s Bulletin Board with Schedule, Calendar, and Posters
Figure 14. Spanish Classroom’s Student Artwork Bulletin Board

Figure 15. Spanish Classroom’s Posters
Figure 16. Spanish Classroom’s Spanish Alphabet and Bulletin Board

Figure 17. Spanish Classroom’s Library
Subtheme 3B: Student Use

By the time the researcher began his classroom observations, the PreK/VPK-4 students had already attended the DL program for approximately six weeks. The researcher was given a broad description of the home languages of the students, but at the beginning of the observations, he did not know which languages the individual students spoke. From his classroom observations and the teacher interviews about the individual students, a small handful of students had noticeable linguistic strengths and differences that affected their overall interactions with the teachers and their peers as well as their academic progress. As such, these students are highlighted throughout this current theme (i.e., Theme 3). As requested by the VPK Director, to protect their identities, the highlighted students were not given pseudonyms. Instead, they are referred to only as Student A, Student B, and so-on. Table 6 offers a description of the highlighted students and their home languages.
Table 6

*PreK/NPK-4 Students of Interest and Their Home Languages*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student of Interest</th>
<th>Home Language (L1)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student A</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student B</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student C</td>
<td>Spanish-English, Bilingual – Spanish Dominant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student D</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student E</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student F</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student G</td>
<td>Tagalog</td>
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<tr>
<td>Student H</td>
<td>Vietnamese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student I</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student J</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the classroom observations, the researcher was able to observe the linguistic interactions that were initiated by the students. In the English classroom, most of the students spoke in English with both Ms. Kristi and Ms. Nancy. In fact, English was the preferred spoken language by the majority of the students. Even the students who were NSS and did not speak much to no English would call their teachers by either, “Teacher,” or, “Ms. Kristi or Ms. Nancy.” When NSS students spoke in Spanish with either Ms. Kristi or Ms. Nancy, Student A would interrupt to remind them that they were in the English classroom and should be speaking English. Student A was NES and neither parent spoke Spanish. However, Student A was quick to learn Spanish from the DL program and had acquired a strong command of the language in the areas of vocabulary and grammar. A few times, the researcher observed Student A yelling at other students to speak in English when they spoke in Spanish to their teachers. One instance, immediately after an NSS student said, “Teacher,” to get Ms. Nancy’s attention, Student A said
to the student, “[Student], you can’t speak in Spanish to [Ms. Nancy]. You have to…you can only speak English.”

Student B was another student of interest. Her L1 was Spanish, but she preferred to speak in English. During the parent interviews, her mother explained that she was raised to speak Spanish and both parents are NSSs; therefore, her parents spoke to her in Spanish at home. However, as she got older and began recognizing the English influences that surrounded her in the community and at school, she began refusing to speak with her parents in Spanish. In the English classroom, Student B happily spoke with both Ms. Kristi and Ms. Nancy in English and would even offer to translate for the NSS students from Spanish to English when they wanted to talk with their teachers. It was very rare, however, to see her translate from English to Spanish for the students. Despite her L1 being Spanish, Student B preferred English so much so that the verbal offer she gave to translate from Spanish to English for NSS students was said in English. One instance, the researcher noted that when Student B was going to translate from Spanish to English for an NSS student for the teacher, she asked the NSS student in English, “Do you want me to tell [the teacher] in English for you?”

Student C was considered to be bilingual although Spanish was his dominant language at home. As it was reported to the researcher by both his teachers and the student himself, his parents spoke in both Spanish and English, but his grandparents, whom he saw almost every day, spoke to him in Spanish. Student C was able to switch between the two languages with ease and could understand both languages equally. In the English classroom, he always spoke in English with the teachers unless he was being redirected for behavior. The researcher observed an instance when he took away a peer’s toy, and when the teachers talked with him about his
behavior in English, he pretended that he could not understand them. Once the teachers told him that they knew he could understand, he stopped the pretense.

Students D, E, and F were NSS whose English proficiency was at a beginning level. All students preferred to speak in Spanish, and when speaking to the teachers, they would try to speak as much Spanish as possible. Both Students D and E were able to understand the teachers when spoken directly to in English; however, Student F had some difficulty. Student F was a shy student by nature and only spoke to the teachers when prompted to avoid having to speak in English. It was observed, however, that during instructional time, all three students enthusiastically recited things that were common in English. These came in the forms of songs, mnemonic devices, the alphabet, and numbers. Because it was a recitation, Students E and F often led the group prayer in English. Student E often was the loudest, not because he was trying to be obnoxious but because he was proud to be able to say the prayer in English.

When Student F needed to talk with the teachers, she tried to speak in English but quickly reverted to Spanish. Because of her shy and sensitive nature, she often needed a student, such as Student B, to translate for her. One instance in October, the researcher was asked to translate what Student F was trying to communicate to Ms. Nancy, who did not speak Spanish. After the researcher spoke with Student F in Spanish, he provided her with verbal sentence frames in English so that she could communicate with Ms. Nancy about what she initially wanted to tell her.

In the Spanish classroom, the majority of the students spoke in English or a mixture of both. This was mainly due to the fact that the students had not quite yet grasped the grammatical structures of the Spanish language but had a decent command of the high frequent vocabulary
that was used. The grammatical structures of their utterances were in English but had Spanish vocabulary infused. For example, one student asked Ms. KyAnne, “Is it time to recojer yet?” Even though these students primarily used English when speaking to their teachers, it was quite evident, from the classroom observations and the researcher’s interactions with the students in which the researcher spoke to them in Spanish, that the students were able to comprehend what was being said to them in Spanish by Ms. KyAnne and Ms.Sofía.

The only NES student to consistently speak in Spanish, including the use of full sentences, was Student A because of his high command of the language. Student A also exhibited the same demeanor and behavior in the Spanish classroom as he did in the English classroom when an NES student spoke in English to the teachers. When I told him that he needed to remind his peers to speak in English in a nicer and more friendly manner, he frantically replied, “But, Mr. [Researcher], [student] was speaking in English to [Ms. KyAnne], and we have to speak Spanish!”

Another student, whose L1 was Tagalog and had great influences of English at home, was Student G. Despite her L1 being Tagalog, she spoke primarily in Spanish during class. Both Student A and G would try to recant stories about their personal lives in as much Spanish as possible. These stories were said in the present tense and verb conjugations were first or third person. Student G told me about going to Disney World with her family, “Mi familia y I we ir’ed to Disney.” When the researcher asked her if her family had a good time in Spanish, she replied, “Sí. Mi famila y I me gusta Disney and the rides.”

The students whose L1 was Spanish, Students D, E, and F, were noticeably more comfortable in the Spanish classroom. Unlike the English classroom, where they did not speak
much to the teachers unless they were being directly addressed or were telling on another student, Students D and E needed consistent redirection to stop interrupting the teachers because they wanted to consistently tell them stories.

Student C spoke primarily in Spanish with both Ms. KyAnne and Ms. Sofía. However, mirroring his behavior from the English classroom when he was being redirected due to poor choices in behavior, he would try to speak in English with Ms. KyAnne and Ms. Sofía. Additionally, when he wanted to tell on another student, he started this reporting in English.

At the beginning of the classroom observations, the researcher noted that Student B, the one whose L1 was Spanish but did not like to speak it, would often respond to the teachers in English. However, as the school year progressed, Student B began speaking in Spanish with the teachers more frequently. Student B also stopped translating for other students. While she offered to translate from Spanish to English for other students while in the English classroom, Student B never offered to translate in the Spanish classroom.

In both the English and Spanish classrooms, the students primarily spoke with each other in English, with the exception of the small handful of students whose L1 was Spanish and had little to no English influences at home, such as Students D, E, and F. During the class’ play-based learning centers, Students D, E, and F played with other NSS students and spoke primarily in Spanish. Students D and E had a lot of friends whose L1 was English or Spanish. When Students D and E played with NES students, they would speak in Spanish while their NES peers would speak in English. Students D and E would respond in Spanish and the play interaction would continue as such, including in their responses to each other. Student F primarily played and interacted with NSS students so that she did not have to speak in English while in the
English classroom. Students who were bilingual, regardless of their dominant language, would primarily speak in English, even to their peers whose L1 was Spanish. Students B and C, for example, would revel in the English classroom as they could speak in English. Student B adjusted her spoken language to whomever her speaking partner’s L1 was. Student A primarily kept in the respective language of the classroom he was in; however, he would use English in the Spanish classroom when he would get angry or frustrated. If he was reminding someone to speak in Spanish while in the Spanish classroom, he would do it in Spanish the first time, and then his tone became more frantic and aggressive the subsequent times and would revert to English.

Recess was outside on the playground in which both homerooms were combined together and the students were able to play with one another regardless of their homeroom. During recess, the students whose L1 was Spanish primarily played with each other in a group that was separate from the other students whose L1 was not Spanish or those who were bilingual in both English and Spanish. In the English classroom, when students told on one another, this was typically done in English, even for the NSS students. In the Spanish classroom, students who were able to speak in English, regardless of their L1 or being bilingual in both Spanish and English, would typically tell on other kids in English. Fighting amongst each other was also done in English by the students who had influences of English at home, and those who were NSS with no influences of English home fought in Spanish. Bilingual students in English and Spanish, regardless of their dominant language, always fought in English. One little girl, who was bilingual in both English and Spanish but English dominant, had an argument with Student C, who was also bilingual but Spanish dominant, while in the Spanish classroom. She was overheard by the researcher yelling
at Student C because he took a toy from her during the play-based learning center. She said to him, in English, “That doesn’t count [Student C] because you said it in Spanish!”

There were four students in the PreK/VPK-4 grade level that were native-Vietnamese speaking (NVS). Throughout the classroom observations, the researcher focused on these students to see whether or not they spoke Vietnamese with one another. After four months of being in the classrooms, the researcher did not once hear them speak in Vietnamese to anyone. Student H, a Vietnamese student whose L1 was Vietnamese, was observed to be struggling in both English and Spanish, with a greater challenge in the Spanish classroom. Although he was not observed to speak Vietnamese with any of his Vietnamese peers, he spoke in English during the few instances when he did speak. The few times he would speak were in English, and typically they were when he was telling on someone else or answering three-word or less responses. More about Student H and his L1-Vietnamese peers is discussed in greater detail in a later subtheme of Theme 3.

During instructional time, the students often sat in a circle on the carpet in the classroom as the classroom teacher sat at the top of the circle presenting the lesson. In the English classroom, the students primarily spoke in English during instruction to answer questions, make comments, or tell stories. The NVS students primarily spoke in English as all but Student H had strong English influences at home. The NSS students, when called upon, would speak in English; however, Ms. Kristi made sure that when she asked them a question, it solicited a response that the students were able to give in English. Often times, these responses were no more than three-words so that the students felt confident in their answers.
At the beginning of the data collection (i.e., October 2017), it was observed that the students spoke primarily in English. Ms. KyAnne and Ms. Sofía acknowledged their responses and moved on in the lesson without redirecting them to speak in Spanish. As the school year progressed, particularly in December 2017, the researcher observed Ms. KyAnne and Ms. Sofía redirecting students to speak in Spanish. This was primarily to students who were bilingual in both English and Spanish, regardless of the dominant language, and with students whose L1 was not Spanish but had a strong command of the language. For high frequency vocabulary that was used almost daily, such as ‘snack’ or the colors, the Spanish teachers would ask them to repeat their utterances in Spanish by saying, “Sí. ¡claro! pero en español por favor.” The students would then repeat their words in Spanish. More about language acknowledgment, recasting, and being redirected to speak in Spanish is described in greater detail in a later subtheme of Theme 3.

Subtheme 3C: Faculty Use

Both Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne, the classroom teachers, discussed the collaboration that occurred between them and with Ms. Nancy and Ms. Sofía, the teacher aides. They felt that collaborating with each other and both teacher aides was critical to the overall structuring and success of both the DL program and its curriculum at the PreK/VPK-4 grade level. The DL classroom teachers and teacher aides from the PreK/VPK-4 program set a model for which language they used and when the language was used.

Overall, the PreK/VPK-4 faculty kept within their classroom’s respective language of instruction when they spoke with students. Additionally, the classroom teachers and the teacher aides stayed within their respective languages when speaking with one another in front of
students. For example, Ms. Kristi and Ms. Nancy spoke in English while in the English classroom; whereas, Ms. KyAnne and Ms. Sofía spoke in Spanish while in the Spanish classroom. When asked how strictly Ms. Kristi enforced the language policy in her English classroom, she commented, “I’m pretty strict with the language […] Once September started, I told everyone across the board now we have to hold the language line. It needs to be in Spanish in the Spanish room, English in the English room.”

Ms. KyAnne was also dedicated to speaking only in Spanish when the students were present. She stated, “I’m trying really hard to stay with just Spanish […] Academically, I’m trying very hard to only do Spanish.” She discussed how it was important when the students were first introduced to her classroom during the Meet the Teacher session, and at the beginning of the school year, the students and their parents saw her speaking only in Spanish. She continued:

“Even when the parents came for Meet the Teacher and the kids were with them, I spoke to the kids in Spanish […] I made sure from the moment that they saw me that they saw me speaking Spanish and that it led on from there. Then sometimes, when I’m speaking English to [Ms. Nancy], who doesn’t speak Spanish, a couple of times [the students] will look at me and go, ‘You speak English?’ and I’m like, ‘How long have you been in school?’ But to them, I speak Spanish! I speak Spanish, and that’s it!”

Ms. KyAnne credited Ms. Sofía with keeping herself only in Spanish during class with the students. She commented, “[Sra. Sofía] is really good at only speaking [in] Spanish. I have to give her so much credit! She’s like at 100 percent always Spanish!” She added that she relied on Ms. Sofía in the area of written Spanish. She explained:
“Because my writing…there’s a lot of times where I will have to ask [Sra. Sofía], my assistant, to help me with my writing, just to proofread it to make sure that I’m conjugating the right way and stuff like that. Or, ‘Does this make sense? Would you use this word?’ type of thing.”

It was noted throughout the Spanish classroom observations that when students needed redirecting or comforting, Ms. KyAnne and Ms. Sofía would first provide these in Spanish. The only time that the researcher observed these two teachers revert to speaking in English was during these two situations but only with the students whose L1 was not Spanish. In an interview with Ms. KyAnne, the researcher asked specifically about this emerging pattern. Ms. KyAnne confirmed this observation with an example from Student I, an NES student. “I think the first time is in Spanish…then, what I want to try to get better at is the second time, keep it at Spanish, but maybe modeling it for them.” She explained that she asked Student I to remove his hood from his hoodie, first in Spanish. After he did not understand, she repeated it but modeled what she was telling him to do by pretending to remove a hood from her own hoodie with her hands. She continued:

“He just looked at me, and he took it down. Then, I would say after that, the third time, I would go up to him and whisper it in English if he still wasn’t understanding. I think I would like to start adding a little bit more times in Spanish before switching over to English.”

Ms. Kristi also commented that she did the same, give redirection in Spanish while in the English classroom, when the first few times in English were not understood. She commented, “We have done a little bit of it if, if I say something and they’re really not getting it, redirecting
in the home language of the child.” Both teachers discussed that when comforting students, they keep in their classrooms’ respective language of instruction even if the students do not fully understand what is being said to comfort them. They said that they used more facial gestures, tone and pitch changes, and hugs to show that they cared because the intentions of these actions were more universally understood, even when the listening comprehension was not 100 percent. Ms. KyAnne commented:

“I think [the students] understand more of the emotional comfort […] as long as you’re kind of hugging them, and I try to throw in words that they do know, so ‘triste’, ‘feliz’, or I’ll say the name of the other student. Like, if they tell me so-and-so is hurting me and making me sad, I would say, ‘Oh, so-and-so ¿está sentiendo triste?’ Then, just so we kind of have that communication so they at least understand that I’m understanding how they’re feeling. Even if they can’t really understand what I’m saying, ‘Okay, she got it. She got the fact that so-and-so is making me sad.’ Then, I’ll hug them or whatever.”

A few students, however, needed consistent comforting in their L1 due to their emotions escalating to the point of a tantrum.

Both Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne remarked about how instrumental Ms. Nancy and Ms. Sofía were during the classroom instruction and activities, as well as setting procedural routines with the students. Ms. Kristi discussed that during the play-based learning centers, she would be completing student assessments while Ms. Nancy led the curriculum’s arts and crafts centers. Ms. Kristi commented, “I do two intervention groups every day, and there’s [sic] multiple kids in each group. [Ms. Nancy] does the immersive craft for them, which has to be a teacher there with them to do it […] That’s a struggle.”
Ms. KyAnne remarked about Ms. Sofía’s assistance in setting the routines with the students:

“For the kids, I think the challenges are […] understanding what’s happening, like with the behaviors, the routines. I really wanted to make sure that this year was very structured routine-wise. For example, after they eat snack, what do they do? […] I know routines provide safety for a lot of the students, and so if they’re feeling out of control with the language that, ‘Uh-oh. I’m anxious. I’m nervous. I don’t know what’s happening.’ They at least can rely on knowing the steps that they need to take. They’re not just standing there kind of like, ‘What do we do next? It’s okay. No, we wait.’ [Sra. Sofía] calls your table, you go sit at your letter.”

The languages used between the faculty depended on the individual classroom teachers and teacher aides’ oral and listening proficiencies in either English or Spanish. Although all four teachers tried to keep in the respective language for the classroom they were physically in at the time of communication, it was observed that everyone spoke in English when they were physically in the English classroom, and Ms. Kristi and Ms. Nancy spoke more English when they were physically in the Spanish classroom. This was for obvious reasons: they did not have native or native-like Spanish proficiency; whereas, Ms. KyAnne and Ms. Sofía did have native or native-like English proficiency to be able to fully communicate in English while in the English classroom. However, it was noticed that Ms. Kristi tried to remain in Spanish as much as possible when she entered the Spanish classroom and needed to talk with Ms. KyAnne, Ms. Sofía, or a student, even if the student’s L1 was English. When Ms. Kristi and Ms. Nancy needed to say something to anyone in the Spanish classroom in English, they would pull that person
aside and speak quietly in English so that the other students did not hear them speaking in English. The researcher spoke in English while in the English classroom. When in the Spanish classroom, he spoke in Spanish with the students, and he tried to speak in Spanish as much as possible when speaking to the Spanish teachers. However, like Ms. Kristi and Ms. Nancy, the researcher did not have native or native-like Spanish proficiency. Therefore, when he needed to speak in English with Ms. KyAnne or Ms. Sofía, they would speak quietly.

Subtheme 3D: Language Modeling

Both Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne, along with Ms. Nancy and Ms. Sofía, were observed to not only speak to their students in the respective languages of instruction, but they consistently modeled the languages when appropriate. In the third interview (i.e., December 2018), Ms. Kristi said:

“The children are doing significantly better with [the language]. Pretty much all of the Spanish-speaking children are speaking in English sentences. For the most part, the sentence has to be modeled, but if they hear the model, they’re able to say it without me word-for-word saying it to them, which is great!”

This modeling occurred in two different instances: (a) language acknowledgement and recasting and (b) the use of body language and facial gestures.

The teachers acknowledged what the students said to them in either language and often recasted their responses back to the students correctly in the respective language of instruction. Recasting language refers to “the restatement of an unclear or poorly formed utterance in more native-like language” (Horwitz, 2013, p. 37). In Ms. KyAnne’s Spanish classroom, when
students spoke to Ms. KyAnne or Ms. Sofía in English, the teachers would not call negative attention to the English utterances, but rather, they would simply reply to the students in Spanish. For example, at the beginning of the classroom observations, during snack time, one student asked Ms. Sofía, “[Sra. Sofía], can I have more oranges?” Ms. Sofía replied, “¿Quieres más naranjas? Sí, puedes tener más naranjas.” When asked about this pattern, Ms. KyAnne replied that it was her and Ms. Sofía’s intention to not blatantly ignore the English utterances that their students made while in the Spanish classroom. She credited this intention to the anxiety that she felt when her family and teachers would impose on her readiness to speak a particular language. She remarked:

“I remember being very scared when I was forced to speak the language when I wasn’t ready. I didn’t want to push that on the students, and I know that [Sra. Sofía] also didn’t want to. I would rather model the language for them and then have them eventually get to that point.”

The same recasting format occurred in the English classroom as well with students who spoke in Spanish or were nonverbal and only pointed or made noises when they wanted something. Student D, an NSS student who was discussed previously, told Ms. Kristi that he wanted to play in the loft center during the play-based learning centers. He said, “I want there,” and just pointed to the loft without saying the word ‘loft’. Ms. Kristi acknowledged his request and explained to him why he was not allowed to play in the loft due to his past behavior. In another instance, Student H, the NVS who was discussed previously, had limited English and Spanish skills due to speaking Vietnamese at home and having little to no English and Spanish influences at home. When in Ms. Kristi’s classroom, he would begin speaking in English but
would become so frustrated due to the language that he often stopped speaking and resorted to pointing and whimpering. One day, he asked Ms. Kristi if he could play with the blocks. He started, “Teacher! Teacher! I want to play wi–” and stopped. He then proceeded to repeatedly point to the blocks. Ms. Kristi replied, “You want to play with the blocks? Can you say, ‘I would like to play with the blocks?’” Student H nodded his head but did not say anything, just kept pointing. Ms. Kristi replied, “Yes, [Student H]. You can go play with the blocks.” One instance, an NSS student raised her hand to answer a question that Ms. Kristi asked the whole-class during the lesson circle. When the student went to speak, nothing came out because she realized that she did not have the English words to articulate her response. After waiting for a minute or two, Ms. Kristi prompted the student with English words and sentence frames, but the student remained silent. Ms. Kristi smiled and said in a very friendly tone, “It’s okay. You can say it in Spanish if you want.” The student then said her response in Spanish and another student translated for Ms. Kristi. After, Ms. Kristi praised the student for her correct answer, even though it was in Spanish, and continued with the lesson without drawing attention to the student’s use of Spanish during an English-medium instructional lesson.

Often, the students, in either the Spanish or English classrooms, tried to speak the classrooms’ respective language of instruction, and their utterances were ungrammatical or misused vocabulary terms. They also substituted the other language’s vocabulary. In these instances, the teachers did not bring attention to their grammar or vocabulary misuse. Instead, they would recast their responses with the correct form and vocabulary and then moved on in the conversation. After reading a book about cars, Ms. KyAnne asked the class what they learned
from the story. One student, who is bilingual in both English and Spanish said, “El carro no work.” Ms. KyAnne replied, “Sí, el auto no funcionó. Bien.”

When the researcher began his classroom observations in October 2017, he noted that Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne allowed the students to speak in their L1. This was even more prevalent in Ms. KyAnne’s classroom for the reasons previously discussed. However, after Thanksgiving, the researcher observed that both Ms. KyAnne and Ms. Sofía began to explicitly and gently prompt students to speak in Spanish, such as, “En español por favor,” or, “¿Cómo se dicimos en español?” When asked about this pattern in December’s interview, Ms. KyAnne acknowledged this tactic as a conscious decision for both Ms. Sofía and herself. She stated:

“I’m just kind of thinking that it’s now December, so we’ve been in school since August. They’ve had a lot of exposure to the Spanish, and so now I want to start making that switch to having them participate in the Spanish classroom by themselves.”

She continued by explaining that since she and Ms. Sofía started prompting them to speak in Spanish, the students began telling each other to speak in Spanish. High frequency vocabulary terms that were used nearly every day and throughout the day (e.g., colors, sizes, numbers, foods) were emphasized to be spoken in Spanish. During a science experiment, Student G, a native-Tagalog speaker with a high proficiency in Spanish, was answering questions about the experiment in English. When describing the water that was being mixed with salt, she said, in English, “water, cold, hot, sun, and salt.” Ms. KyAnne responded to Student G, “Sí. Pero en español. ¿Cómo se dice en español?” to which Student G appropriately responded, “agua, frío, calor, sol, y sal”.

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Ms. KyAnne also recognized that not all students were comfortable speaking in Spanish; thus, she did not push these individuals to speak it until they were ready. Rather, she would gently prompt them, but if they were still not ready to speak in Spanish, she acknowledged the English. She stated:

“If [the students] don’t answer me right away, I’ll give them a couple more seconds to think about it, or, ‘Okay. Can somebody help them?’ You still don’t want to stress them out too much, but you do want to make them aware that that’s the goal: to speak Spanish. It’s all differentiated. There are kids who are just shy to begin with. I’m not going to sit there and push them, push them, push them. But, if I know a hundred percent if you know how to say that word, let’s get to that point, and they can perform. They get there.”

Subtheme 3E: Lesson Circles Differentiation Strategies

Lesson circles served as the primary method for how instructional content was delivered to the students. During the researcher’s classroom visits, each classroom would do two circles within the two-hour observational visit. The students sat at an assigned spot on the carpet with one another and either Ms. Kristi or Ms. KyAnne, depending on the classroom. The researcher sat at a table away from the circle so that he was not included nor was distracting to the teacher and students. The researcher, however, was able to get a clear view of the instruction and lessons that were taught as well as the materials, manipulatives, and any body language or facial gestures that were used by either the teachers or the students to convey meaning.

Although the lessons were very verbose, both teachers purposefully ensured that various learning styles and strategies for scaffolding language and differentiating instruction were
incorporated. To highlight, Ms. KyAnne said, “The circles are more dominated by the students who are comfortable in the language because the other students are feeling a little bit afraid to speak, so I like to use a lot of nonverbal signals.” The researcher found this to be true in not only Ms. KyAnne’s Spanish classroom but in Ms. Kristi’s English classroom as well.

Throughout the classroom observations, the researcher noted various instances when the teachers would use manipulatives in their lessons. In both classrooms, these were often used to reinforce counting, size differences, and developing vocabulary of concrete nouns. In Ms. Kristi’s math lessons, students needed to recognize and be able to create patterns using the manipulatives based on color, quantity, and size. In one lesson, Ms. Kristi had the students use toy frogs of various colors and sizes to create a pattern based on size and another based on color. In another math lesson, Ms. Kristi created various shapes (e.g., square, triangle, rhombus) made out of popsicle sticks to teach students about shapes and reinforce counting. Figure 18 depicts the manipulatives from this particular lesson. Figure 19 shows a third lesson in which students used blocks of varying shapes and colors to learn the concept of parts-to-a-whole.
Figure 18. English Classroom Manipulatives: Shapes

Figure 19. English Classroom Manipulatives: Parts-to-a-Whole
Ms. KyAnne used a variety of manipulatives in her science experiments. In one experiment, she mixed salt with water to simulate snow. In another, baking soda was mixed with vinegar to inflate a balloon. In one lesson, Ms. KyAnne brought in a variety of musical instruments to teach about rhythm and sound, and the students were able to play these. Toy animals that differed in color and size also used to reinforce counting and size differences in a variety of lessons. Figures 20 and 21 show a lesson at Halloween about pumpkins and pumpkin seeds.

*Figure 20. Spanish Classroom Manipulatives: Pumpkin*
In both classrooms, Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne used the illustrations from their stories and books as manipulatives for character development as well as building vocabulary related to the story of the lesson. Often, both teachers had puppets that represented the various characters and would use them to act out the story’s plot and events. With all of the various manipulatives that were used, from the toy frogs to the story puppets, the teachers appropriately incorporated these to optimize the students’ linguistic and academic progress. The students also enjoyed and appreciated having these manipulatives throughout the lessons as evident from their levels of engagement and willingness to participate and respond to teacher-solicited questions. Figure 22 shows an example of manipulatives used in the English classroom to enhance a story; whereas, figure 23 shows exemplifies the story initiatives used in the Spanish classroom.
A second method of differentiation that appeared from the researcher’s classroom observations included songs and mnemonic devices. These were used in a variety of learning contexts, including the alphabet, counting, vocabulary development, and letter-to-sound
recognition. In Ms. KyAnne’s classroom, students sang the song *Recojer* as they cleaned up from their play-based learning centers. Regardless of the language and classroom, all students enthusiastically participated in singing or chanting these songs and devices. Many even included hand gestures and other forms of physical performance as they were sung. Students D and E, whose L1s were Spanish and have been discussed previously, would rarely participate in the English classroom because of their beginning-English proficiencies. However, during the songs and devices, especially the ones that had actions, these students, including Student J, happily engaged in the singing and chanting. Figure 24 shows a sample of the alphabet sing-along, which included hand gestures for each letter, that the students were excited to sing in the English classroom.

*Figure 24. English Classroom’s ABC Sing-Along*

Continuing from the previous secondary subtheme, physical actions, or total physical response (TPR), body language, and facial expressions were strategies that Ms. Kristi and Ms.
KyAnne used to convey meaning and language in their content instruction. Additionally, the teachers viewed these actions and expressions as cues from their students as they tried to convey meaning without oral production.

In explaining the incorporation of these actions and expressions, Ms. KyAnne stated, “I feel like the first thing is, ‘Okay, can [the students] comprehend? Can they draw something for you? Can they respond with non-verbal cues that show you?’” Ms. KyAnne clarified this statement by explaining that students could show their comprehension of a language without ever talking, although speaking ability in the L2 was a primary goal for her students. She indicated that students could express their responses or answers in the L2 through the use of facial expressions, gestures, TPR and actions, and drawings. She further indicated, “Even if [the students] can’t tell you a sentence, they’re still showing that they know the language.” She continued by stating that students could show this comprehension through the use of TPR, body language, and facial expressions, such as:

“Show me thumbs-up, thumbs-down. Show me with your face, if we’re talking about how does a character feel, show me with your face just so the students who are not comfortable speaking can still participate without the focus being on them.”

Subtheme 3F: Trauma-Affected Student

Student J arrived at Sunshine City shortly after Hurricanes Irma and Maria devasted the island nation of Puerto Rico in the fall of 2017. He began his first day Sunshine Catholic School in early November 2017. Both teachers indicated that his L1 was Spanish but briefly attended a bilingual Spanish-English school while in Puerto Rico just before the hurricanes hit the island.
During his first week at the school, Student J was placed in Ms. KyAnne’s homeroom and stayed for the duration of the day for that first week so that he could feel comfortable and safe in his new schooling environment due to Ms. KyAnne’s Spanish-based classroom.

Because of Student J’s reasoning for leaving Puerto Rico, Ms. Kristi felt it was best to accommodate for his L1 of Spanish as much as she could when conversing with him one-on-one. However, during instruction for the whole-class and in the lesson circles, she taught in English. In her third interview (i.e., December 2018), she described:

“[Student J] is here for an emergency reason. I am using their home language for their comfort level because right now, that’s our focus for him. His needs are different than the rest of the group right now, and he just started as well. In January, he’ll probably be fine to be just the same as the rest of the group, but right now we’re just giving him that comfort. Also, I needed him to know that I spoke enough Spanish that if he was hurt, he could tell me. Now he knows that.”

Although Ms. KyAnne and Student J share the same L1, she also made sure that he felt comfortable in her classroom. He sat next to her and within close proximity to Ms. Sofía during the lesson circles. During the play-based learning centers, he was always included in Ms. Sofía’s creative arts centers but had the option to play in the other centers if he wanted.

Throughout the rest of the classroom observations, the researcher noticed that in both the English and Spanish classrooms, Student J began to open up more to the other students. He first became social with his NSS peers. He then began socializing with students who were bilingual in both Spanish and English but chose to speak in Spanish during these interactions. During Ms. Kristi’s lessons and whole-class conversations, it was clear that Student J began to understand
Ms. Kristi’s English, particularly commands and simple directives that were routine-based, such as lining up to wash hands, sitting down, and raising hands. He also showed great enthusiasm when Ms. Kristi would include mnemonic devices and songs into instruction. He was especially enthusiastic when the class would sing the alphabet song. By the end of the researcher’s observations, Student J was greeting the researcher and his teachers in English with simple greetings (e.g., ‘Hello,’ ‘Goodbye’).

Subtheme 3G: Team-Teaching

Regarding teacher collaboration and team-teaching, Ms. Kristi would like to have seen the two grade level DL teachers be able to watch one another teach during instructional time with the students. She felt that this was critical because it allowed each teacher to see not only what was being taught but how the partner teacher was teaching it. She explained:

“I’m teaching when [Ms. KyAnne]’s teaching. We aren’t watching each other. I think that’s something that is critical for next year […] at the beginning of the year to have some of that time where you’re watching each other because you will see things that you’re doing that you didn’t know that you can easily do. You’re not – not doing it because you’re choosing not to. You just don’t know.”

Ms. Kristi believed that these observations of one another would be helpful in becoming a better teacher, regardless of the language of instruction that the teacher used. She continued:

“I try to be very aware of the things that I do and the things that I change and tell [Ms. KyAnne], ‘I started doing this, and this is really effective.’ […] I think that having the teachers be able to be seeing each other teach a little bit at the beginning, and then a little
bit in the middle, and then a little bit towards the end will help them…we are basically like co-parents or co-teachers.”

In recognizing that collaboration among teachers is an important component to DL programming and implementation, Principal Sands emphasized partner- and team-teaching between the English and Spanish DL teachers of the same grade level (e.g., English 3rd grade teacher and Spanish 3rd grade teacher). She commented, “From now on, [the teachers] have to team and partner. That’s a change. In teaching, sometimes [it’s] not this little classroom, but it’s that they have to team-teach.” Following up with her belief in partner- and team-teaching, she added:

“You see that with the team-teaching and the collaborating […] you see it within [Ms. Kristi] and [Ms. KyAnne]. It’s the two, the main classroom teachers and how they coordinate the curriculum and what’s going to be done and everything. They move seamlessly.”

Theme 4: Teachers’ Dispositions on Dual Language Teaching

Theme 4 discusses Ms. Kristi’s and Ms. KyAnne’s dispositions on dual language education, teaching, and professional identity as a dual language teacher. These dispositions have been shaped by the two DL teachers’ experiences from this first year as a dual language teacher at Sunshine Catholic School. Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne felt the pressures of being Sunshine Catholic School’s first DL teachers. These pressures presented themselves through the high expectations that parents, teachers, and general critics of DL education had regarding the nature
of DL education and the respective L2 proficiency of their students in PreK/VPK-4. Figure 25 provides a graphic depiction of Theme 4, along with its subthemes.
Figure 25. Theme 4: Teachers’ Dispositions on Dual Language Teaching

Teachers' Dispositions on DL Teaching

- Expections as a DL Teacher
- Professional Identities as DL Teachers
Subtheme 4A: Expectations as a Dual Language Teacher

The PreK/VPK-4 DL teachers felt the pressure from both the parents and the rest of the faculty at Sunshine Catholic School to create and implement a successful and effective DL program. Additionally, they also felt pressure to produce students who were both bilingual and biliterate by the end of the school year. This subtheme first begins with a discussion about the parental expectations that were felt by the teachers. Next, a discussion the instructional expectations that were felt is provided.

Both Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne addressed the need that the parents wanted to, first and foremost, ensure that their children were safe and felt comfortable at Sunshine Catholic School. The term *safety*, in this particular discussion, refers to the child feeling a sense of belonging and security at the school. Both teachers indicated that they had confrontational parents due to the parents’ misunderstandings and misgivings regarding the enrollment of their children at Sunshine Catholic School’s DL program; however, these were quickly diffused through detailed conversations about the program and their children telling them, after attending for any given amount of time, that they enjoyed going to Sunshine Catholic School. Ms. KyAnne commented:

“I think that’s something that as a teacher I have to be prepared for. To step back and be, ‘Okay. [The parents] are not personally attacking me, [Ms. KyAnne]; they’re attacking this thing that’s scary and unknown to them.’ I think the first thing is I would really try to reassure them that they are safe here because I think for parents, that’s the biggest concern. Are they safe? Their kid is coming home saying they don’t like [school]. That’s scary for them. Maybe it’s not the academics; it’s their child does not feel safe in this classroom. I would try to really reassure that we are here for them.”
Ms. Kristi discussed the obstacle that both Ms. KyAnne and she faced when the parents made requests regarding their children that went against the nature and structure of Sunshine Catholic School’s 50-50 DL model. She explained:

“It’s just important as a school that you do take into account what a parent wants, but you cannot tell parents that they get that kind of a choice because it’s not effective for the program. Yes, I understand that as a parent, your job is to advocate for your kid. You should come in and talk to me, and you should tell me what you think that you want. But, my job is to take all of that information from 37 parents and then assimilate it into something that is effective and that works.”

She followed this comment up by indicating that these parent cases were few, and most parents whose children attended the PreK/VPK-4 DL program during the 2017-2018 school year at Sunshine Catholic School were supportive and wanted this type of education for their children after learning about what DL is and the benefits that DL provides.

In analyzing the parent interviews, along with the field notes from the Fall 2017 coffee hour with parents, it was noted that the parents never brought up the expectation of their children not learning their respective L2 quickly enough. However, from the interviews with Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne, this subtheme was significant. As the researcher analyzed the transcripts, he noticed that the teachers would start the discussion from the standpoint of addressing parents, but the discussion on the expectation of immediate L2 fluency shifted from discussing the parents’ expectations to expectations had by the general public. As such, the researcher felt that this subtheme deserved attention with regard to parental expectations.
Both DL teachers felt the pressure of parents and other individuals, including teachers and general critics of DL education, expecting their PreK/VPK-4 students to demonstrate native or native-like L2 proficiency not only at the end of the 2017-2018 school year but also during it.

The teachers stressed the expectations regarding Spanish-L2 proficiency. Ms. KyAnne expressed her concern regarding the expectancy of her students becoming bilingual in a short amount of time. She stated:

“Overall, I think one of the challenges that I’m a little nervous about is the expectation for the kids to come out fluent in Spanish because there are some kids who are picking it up quickly and are able to express themselves and talk in full sentences now, but that’s not the norm.”

Ms. KyAnne hoped that both parents and teachers understand that language learning takes time. She explained:

“If some of these kids have never been exposed to Spanish before, they’re going to start off very small, and it’s going to be a big celebration if they start using words by themselves. I don’t want the bar to be set extremely high and then have people go, ‘Well, they’re only counting, they’re only saying the letters, they’re only saying little words. That means it’s not working.’ That’s not true. We have next year. We have the year after. How many years does it take again? Isn’t it five to seven years? I think that’s my biggest worry, that people are going to get nervous when they don’t come out speaking.”

Ms. Kristi also recognized the need for parents to be patient and let languages be acquired as a process of learning, rather than instantaneously. She based her discussion on the relevant research that she has reviewed. In her first interview, completed in October 2017, she said:
“The families need to understand [that learning language is a process]. They need to wait ‘till second, third grade to really see full proficiency. You need to be willing to watch to see that the test scores are going to drop and just know that they will come back.”

She commented on how parents, in general, need to allow learning to happen naturally and with time. She said:

“The same thing applies to dual language. ‘I want my kid to be bilingual. Okay, so I put them in a bilingual school. Okay, it’s November, why aren’t they bilingual yet?’ That’s not how it works. You didn’t learn a language that quickly. Your child just spent five years learning what they do know now in whatever language it is, and they need at least that much time to start assimilating that to the second language…not to mention academic proficiency, which is five to seven years.”

Ms. Kristi’s position on language learning is a process that takes time remained consistent throughout the series of interviews. In her fourth and final interview, completed at the end of January 2018, she commented:

“We need to keep everybody on board, that, ‘No, your child didn’t learn Spanish in one year or English in one year. They learned part of it, and they’re going to keep building on it. They will be successful, but you have to trust it. You have to trust that this is something that’s going to take time. It’s okay if some things fall a little shorter because you’re now asking them to perform in two languages. It’s very different.’ That to me is the biggest challenge…just having people have realistic expectations of what the children are able to do and actually understand that maybe you think those expectations are too low, but they are not.”
Principal Sands’ position on the overall success of a DL program is greatly influenced by the teachers and their preparation and understanding of DL education and instruction. Principal Sands did not specifically address any concerns regarding Kindergarten in both of her interviews with the researcher. However, the concern for Kindergarten, as the DL program rolls-up to the grade level for the 2018-2019 school year, came from both Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne. These concerns, however, had very little to do with the Kindergarten teachers, and more to do with their preparedness for receiving students who had already gone through the DL program in PreK/VPK-4 and their expectations for what these students should be able to do, linguistically-speaking, due to their DL preparation in PreK/VPK-4.

Both Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne felt pressure for their current PreK/VPK-4 students to retain their respective L2 proficiency over the summer and into Kindergarten for the 2018-2019 school year. This partially stemmed from the expectation that the PreK/VPK-4 students should show an immediate proficiency in their L2, with a focus placed on the students’ L2 speaking skills. Ms. Kristi explained, “I’m concerned for next year. I’m concerned when the children go to Kindergarten when they aren’t as strongly proficient as they are right now because they’ve been out of school for two months. Children lose stuff over the summer.”

In addition, Ms. Kristi also discussed the concern about the advantages that some of the PreK/VPK-4 students will have over others when they go to Kindergarten, thus affecting the overall impression of the current PreK/VPK-4 students’ and their L2 proficiency that was developed during their PreK/VPK-4, 2017-2018 school year. This concern focused on how the PreK/VPK-4 program was structured. As explained in Sunshine Catholic School’s vignette at the beginning of this chapter, the PreK/VPK-4 program was two programs combined into one. The
Preschool part of the program, also called PreK, held students for a full school day; whereas, the VPK part included students only for the morning. At lunch, the VPK students went home because the program was free for the students. As a result, the students who attended the Preschool part of the PreK/VPK-4 program received a full day’s worth of DL instruction, and the students who attended the VPK part of the program received DL instruction only in the mornings.

Ms. KyAnne shared the same sentiment regarding the pressure for her PreK/VPK-4 students to retain their L2-Spanish proficiency over the summer. As a preventative step, Ms. KyAnne signed on to teach the Spanish component of Sunshine Catholic School’s Preschool’s summer camp for the summer of 2018. The summer camp will welcome the current PreK/VPK-4 (i.e., 2017-2018 school year) students and the incoming students to PreK/VPK-4 for the 2018-2019 school year. When asked about the activities that will occur in the camp, as well as what the focus will be: content or language acquisition, Ms. KyAnne replied:

“It’s going to be fun games and stuff like that, but we’re also going to be incorporating the academics as well just to keep them in that routine of speaking Spanish. I think, hopefully, that will help with that huge two-month break.”

Concerned with the possibility that his child may lose the L2 proficiency and overall linguistic gains that were achieved in PreK/VPK-4, one father, during the parent interview sessions, asked, “So, do you guys envision a summer camp, six-week transition between PreK and Kindergarten so that [the children] can continue their languages?”

Ms. Kristi expressed a slight concern for the DL preparation of the Kindergarten teachers. She said, “I’m concerned for how the Kindergarten teachers are going to be able to be
empowered to help handle the fact that they’re now teaching a very, very rigorous Kindergarten curriculum and also doing a dual language program.” During the parent interviews, parents expressed their satisfaction for Ms. Kristi’s and Ms. KyAnne’s instructional approach to facilitating the development of both English and Spanish, along with the content. However, the parents shared the same concern as Ms. Kristi regarding the Kindergarten teachers’ abilities to empower their students’ language acquisition and overall approach and structure to teaching within the DL program. Concerned with the different approaches between the two grades, with PreK/VPK-4 being more play-based learning and small group circles and Kindergarten being a more traditional classroom setting, one parent asked, “How is [the current PreK/VPK-4 DL approach] going to continue in Kindergarten?”

Sunshine Catholic School’s administration began addressing these concerns even before they were shared with the researcher. Ms. KyAnne commented on how the administration consulted with the university-DL grant director, whose role was discussed in previously in Chapter 4, as it related to the overall programming, structuring, and curriculum and instructional design for the Kindergarten level. Ms. KyAnne stated:

“For next year’s Kindergarten, we actually had a meeting with the Kindergarten teachers, myself, and then [the DL grant director] […] That helps the vertical planning of what we are hitting [and] what we need to hit, types of things. So, it felt very much like a team. Teamwork.”
Subtheme 4B: Professional Identities as Dual Language Teachers

Both Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne found teaching at Sunshine Catholic School and its DL program beneficial to their overall identities as teachers and as DL teachers. Although there were challenges experienced in the areas of programming and curriculum development, they felt happy with the approaches they took in developing the PreK/VPK-4’s DL program and disseminating knowledge and support to their students’ families and the school’s faculty. Additionally, they were pleased with their instructional approaches with the students. The current subtheme separates the two DL teachers and their individual perspectives on DL teaching and how they see themselves as DL teachers.

Upon first meeting Ms. Kristi at Sunshine Catholic School during participant recruitment, the researcher clearly saw that Ms. Kristi was a strong leader in the school and an advocate for DL education, both in theory and in application. Throughout the four interviews that Ms. Kristi completed with the researcher, she voiced her strong support regarding education and classroom instruction being inclusive of students’ linguistic and ethnic diversities.

Although Ms. Kristi did not have professional training in DL, nor prior professional teaching experience in DL classrooms before the 2017-2018 school year at Sunshine Catholic School, her breadth of knowledge regarding DL education was impressive. As noted in her participant vignette, language instruction and acquisition had always been an interest of hers since her teacher preparation program. Once she learned that Sunshine Catholic School was becoming a DL school and would begin with her grade level, she dove head-first into the theoretical and empirical literature that surrounded DL education. It was this research that helped her to take on the tasks necessary to develop a DL program and curriculum that were seen as
successful not only for the PreK/VPK-4 program but would also set an example for the rest of the school as the DL program rolled-up into subsequent grade levels. In her first interview (i.e., October 2017), she commented, “I think every classroom should be dual language […] It’s not the future; it’s the past. We’re just behind.” In comparing her fourth and final interview (i.e., January 2018), it was clear that her disposition and support for DL education did not change. She reflected:

“I already knew I loved dual language education before I started it because the research is very clear. Yeah, you can just be scared about it, but once you get past the fear, it’s very easy to see that it’s right and that it works.”

Overall, Ms. Kristi cited her experience as a DL teacher at Sunshine Catholic School as being both positive and one that raised the bar on teaching. She stated, “[The experience as a DL teacher] has definitely been significantly challenging. I think in a lot of ways, I’m a better teacher, and I think in a lot of ways, I’m struggling more because the learning curve is so high.” She credited herself as already being a strong advocate of children and that the experience of DL teaching only furthered that advocacy for children of various languages and cultures. She added that children are the focal point of education, and in advocating for children, teachers need to consider a type of education that reflects the students’ individual needs, including language. She commented:

“I really like this [DL] program. It’s made me a better teacher. It’s helped me to grow in a lot of areas. That’s something that I think is my responsibility…to keep growing and to keep learning and to keep bettering how I teach and how I relate to children and to grow
with the children and to grow with what best practices and what the research supports [sic].”

Although Ms. Kristi did not go into explicit detail, she did indicate in the fourth interview that she would not be returning to Sunshine Catholic School for the next, 2018-2019 school year. This decision was not influenced by the school, the students, nor her experience as a DL teacher at the school. Rather, it was a personal one. She commented, “I’m not returning to this school next year, but that’s not because of the dual language program. I’m actually very sad to leave a dual language program.”

Ms. KyAnne’s DL teaching identity was influenced by her bilingual childhood-upbringing. She purposefully chose a teaching career that had a focus on bilingual and DL teaching. Throughout the four interviews that were conducted with the researcher, she reflected on her teaching practices and approaches as they related to DL instruction and referred to her own experiences learning languages as a child as justification for the instructional approaches that she took in her own classroom.

As discussed in her participant vignette, Ms. KyAnne came from a DL background, in both training and professional teaching experience. She completed a Bachelor’s degree specifically in DL and bilingual education and purposefully secured a teaching position as a DL teacher in Florida upon graduation. Her second teaching position was at Sunshine Catholic School and knew that it would be in DL when she interviewed and accepted the position. Although she had DL experience, she had not developed a program to the extent that she did at Sunshine Catholic School. She commented:
“I think this year has been really great. I started off nervous when they tell you, ‘Hey, you’re going to be the first level of starting this program, and you’re going to help roll it out.’ I was nervous. That comes with a lot of challenges and a lot of questions and a lot of unknowns. But as the year has gone by, I feel confident in what I’m doing.”

Before coming to the school, she had reservations about whether or not she would make an effective Preschool teacher. Ms. KyAnne credited the DL experience at Sunshine Catholic School as bettering herself as a teacher. She stated, “I was very nervous about Preschool – teaching Preschool – because I’ve never done it before, so I wasn’t really sure how it was going to go.” However, she commented that from this experience, she identified areas within her teaching that improved, such as making her lesson circles more interactive and student-centered to account for the students’ short attention spans. From this experience, she also reflected on areas that she identified as needing improvement, including making read-alouds more interactive. Overall, she felt the following of the DL experience, “I feel like for me it has been very positive in regards to my actual teaching style and teaching.”

Like Ms. Kristi, Ms. KyAnne found the experience of being the first of two DL teachers at Sunshine Catholic School challenging yet beneficial. For Ms. KyAnne, the affirmation of the job she did and indicator of success was from her students and their progress in Spanish and academics. She commented:

“Seeing how the kids are growing has helped me a lot with my confidence as a teacher. But, then also, it also has reminded me why I decided to go into bilingual education because just seeing them open up to that language, be so accepting, it really shows me that we need to have teachers, or the world – the school, be more culturally aware and
open to those things [sic] [...] So I think being here with them and seeing the growth has
really kind of woken that part of me again that says, ‘This is why you chose this. You
love this.’”

**Connecting the Research Questions**

In this section, the final four themes are connected to each of the study’s research
questions and their subquestions. Each individual research question is restated and addressed
independent of the other two questions.

**Connecting Research Question 1**

Themes 1, 2, and 3 address the first research question. Research question 1 (RQ1)
included the following:

1. What key processes and activities characterized the transitioning DL school’s
   language planning and policy?
   a. In what ways did the school’s planning and policy consider the sociopolitical
      environment of the community in which its students reside?
   b. What types of collaboration occurred in the development of the school’s
      planning and policy?

**Subquestion 1A: Considering the School’s Sociopolitical Environment and Community**

As referenced in Chapter 2, Freeman’s (1996) work at Oyster Bilingual School showed
that a school’s immediate community, specifically its sociopolitical environment, must be
considered in order for a DL school to be successful. Sunshine Catholic School’s sociopolitical environment and its surrounding community were taken into consideration during the planning phase of the school’s DL transition by the Diocese, as shown in Theme 1.

In Theme 1, DL Program Support, Principal Sands provided a discussion that compliments the school and its parish’s faith-based reasoning for transitioning Sunshine Catholic School from a monolingual to a DL program, as described from Sunshine Catholic Church’s website. The school’s parish and Diocese saw an ethnic and linguistic shift in the school’s community from a monolingual, English-speaking community to a predominantly Spanish-speaking one; however, it was not until 2017 that the school officially made the transition to DL. Despite this delay, over the years the school had a small handful of principals who were of Hispanic descent. Principal Sands asserted that the increasing Hispanic population that attended the church’s mass was the most influential factor that contributed to the school’s DL transition. She posited that the school, in practice, needed to reflect its community and the majority who attended its church. As stated previously by Principal Sands, through the Catholic faith, the lives of the Hispanic individuals who attended the church should be enriched, and the school’s transition to DL is a significant step to achieving this enrichment.

In addition, Theme 1 showed how the school addressed its surrounding community and the Spanish-speaking-majority who attended the school’s PreK/VPK-4 DL program. The students enrolled in Sunshine Catholic School’s DL program reflected the Hispanic-majority population that attended the church. As reported in Theme 3, Classroom Language Use and L2 Differentiation, 25 of the 40 students enrolled in the school’s DL program spoke Spanish at home to some degree. Eleven of the 25 students were considered by the school to be bilingual in

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both Spanish and English. In making the students, their families, and the local community feel welcomed, as discussed in both Themes 1 and 3, the school’s décor, in both the classrooms and schoolwide, depicted a wide variety of individuals of all ethnic backgrounds and not just White. The school’s placards represented both English and Spanish on equal levels, as shown in the school banners and on the ‘welcome wall’. Within Ms. Kristi’s classroom, all signage and student artwork were written in English, and in Ms. KyAnne’s classroom, all signage and student artwork were written in Spanish. Their posters of people, however, depicted individuals of all ethnic backgrounds.

Subquestion 1B: Collaboration within the Development of the School’s Planning and Policy

The bottom-up approach to leadership was a recurring pattern in Themes 2 and 3. In adopting this approach, teachers worked alongside administrators to have equal representation and decision-making authority for their respective grade level and its DL program. This approach also allowed teachers to effectively work with one another to make decisions regarding their grade level’s routines, curriculum, and scheduling.

Both Theme 2, Language Policy and Curriculum Development, and Theme 3, Classroom Language Use and L2 Differentiation, showed that Principal Sands made a conscious decision and effort to enforce a bottom-up approach to leadership so that both of the PreK/VPK-4’s DL teachers had equal representation and decision-making authority. As a result, the administration was able to collaborate with its teachers in the areas of curriculum, instruction, and language policies at the classroom level. Both Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne indicated that they appreciated this approach and the responsibility to make decisions that they thought were best for their
program and for individual students, rather than have these dictated by the administration. Ms. KyAnne even described the administration as supportive of her and Ms. Kristi’s changes from the initial decisions that were made regarding the DL program at the PreK/VPK-4 level.

Additionally, Themes 2 and 3 further detailed the types of collaboration that occurred as it related to the development of the PreK/VPK-4’s DL curriculum and language policies and routines. Ms. Kristi was entrusted by Principal Sands to select the two curricula that would be used in both the Spanish and English classrooms. In addition, Principal Sands believed that partner-teaching and planning between the English and Spanish teachers within a particular grade level were key to successful classroom implementation. Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne worked together to coordinate their individual lessons, activities, and content so that they complemented one another’s and they were able to reinforce each other’s concepts and objectives with their students, regardless of the language of instruction. Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne worked together to establish routines regarding student behavior and language norms for their students, as well as themselves. Ms. KyAnne collaborated with the Kindergarten teachers who would be implementing the DL program in their grade level for the next school year (i.e., 2018-2019). For the areas of planning that Ms. KyAnne was unsure about or inexperienced in, Principal Sands brought in a DL expert from a local university. Together, they worked to plan the curriculum and scheduling of the Kindergarten’s DL program for the 2018-2019 school year.

Furthermore, Themes 2 and 3 detailed the collaboration that was done at the micro-level (i.e., instructional level). Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne worked together to plan their individual curricula, lessons and activities, and language policies. Theme 2 revealed that once Ms. KyAnne
was hired, Ms. Kristi came to rely heavily on Ms. KyAnne to help continue the planning that was started one year prior, due to Ms. KyAnne’s formal experience and background in DL. Theme 3 also showed that this collaboration did not just stop with Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne. They not only relied on each other, but also their teacher aides, Ms. Nancy and Ms. Sofía, to reinforce these behaviors and linguistic norms. During the play-based learning time, Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne led school assessments while Ms. Nancy and Ms. Sofía led the VPK-directed arts and crafts centers. Although Ms. KyAnne was bilingual in both English and Spanish, she cross-referenced her written Spanish with Ms. Sofía to ensure that her vocabulary and grammar were correct. Additionally, both Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne served as mentors to the entire school faculty who were not experienced or knowledgeable in DL education and programming, as shown in Theme 2. Both teachers led professional development sessions and faculty conversations about these topics with the school’s faculty who were not yet in the DL program.

Connecting Research Question 2

Themes 1, 2, and 3 address the study’s second research question. Research question 2 (RQ2) included the following:

2. How did the school implement its planning and policy?
   a. How was the school’s planning and policy implemented at the macro-level (i.e., administration)?
   b. How was the school’s planning and policy implemented at the micro-level (i.e., teachers)?
Subquestion 2A: Implementation at the Macro-Level

The most significant method of implementation that Principal Sands was to establish a leadership model that followed a bottom-up approach, as detailed in Theme 2, Language Policy and Curriculum Development. As such, the leadership team included both administrators and the two PreK/VPK-4 DL teachers, Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne, who worked together in designing the DL program. As indicated by both Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne, Principal Sands entrusted them to execute the DL program and instruction that were planned during the year prior to its implementation.

Principal Sands listened to the teachers’ concerns and was flexible in addressing the concerns as best as possible. She deferred to Ms. Kristi’s judgment in selecting both the Spanish and English curricula for the PreK/VPK-4 DL program. When it was later realized that the Spanish curriculum had many English components, she listened to the concerns of the teachers, and as a result, a new Spanish curriculum was selected for the next school year.

As discussed in Theme 3, Classroom Language Use and L2 Differentiation, classroom routines and language policies were set by the teachers rather than handed down by the principal. Although Principal Sands encouraged collaboration regarding classroom instruction, she recognized that each teacher had her own style and approach. She also recognized that students’ linguistic, academic, and socioemotional needs would vary from one classroom to the next (i.e., Spanish classroom versus the English classroom). Therefore, she encouraged flexibility in the teachers’ approaches to instruction and interactions with their own students, regardless of the students’ L1 and the classroom’s respective language of instruction.
As discussed in RQ1’s subquestion related to Sunshine Catholic School’s sociopolitical environment and community needs, Principal Sands recognized that the school’s immediate community was predominantly Hispanic and native-Spanish speaking. This population was also reflected in the school’s student body. In Theme 1, DL Program Support, Principal Sands discussed that the school should reflect its community so that communicative needs are met. In doing so, and as shown in both Themes 1 and 3, she ensured that posters and décor throughout the school depicted individuals of varying ethnic backgrounds and not just White. Additionally, signage and placards throughout the school were written in both English and Spanish, most notably, the welcome placards.

Subquestion 2B: Implementation at the Micro-Level

To begin the discussion of how the teachers implemented the policies in the classrooms, it is worth briefly referencing the curricula, activities, and language policies that they planned in Theme 2, Language Policy and Curriculum Development, and in Theme 3, Classroom Language Use and L2 Differentiation. Both the English and Spanish curricula were selected by Ms. Kristi, and to both her and Ms. KyAnne’s dismay, the Spanish curriculum was not well-suited as it explicitly contained many English-components (e.g., lessons, activities, resources, and materials). Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne also developed their own set of routines regarding language use and instruction that were universal in both Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne’s classrooms. They also established language policies that were to be followed by themselves and the teacher aides, Ms. Nancy and Ms. Sofia, when they needed to communicate with one another.
Using what was described in Theme 1, DL Program Support, to set the stage for the teachers’ implementation, both classrooms were decorated with signage and pictures that displayed their respective language of instruction. Ms. Kristi’s classroom had artwork, bulletin boards, and children’s books that were written in English. Ms. KyAnne’s classroom had the same items but in Spanish. Each had their respective alphabet displayed proudly on a wall.

In addition, Theme 3 highlighted how closely Ms. Kristi, Ms. KyAnne, Ms. Nancy, and Ms. Sofía followed the language policies as they related to their classroom’s respective language of instruction. At the beginning of the school year, all four instructional faculty spoke their respective language of instruction, including communications with parents at the Meet Your Teacher event.

Like Principal Sands, the four instructional faculty recognized that their students’ needs may differ from one classroom to another due to the differences between the students’ L1 and the respective classroom’s language of instruction. As such, they used the students’ L1, even if it was outside of the language of instruction, to redirect, reinforce, and comfort the students. However, this was used sparingly. All four of the instructional faculty first redirected behavior and comforted upset students in the respective language of instruction. As shown in Theme 3, Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne made an exception by using the students’ L1 to redirect behavior and comfort students due to the primary goal of having their students feel both safe and welcomed. The teachers would use their students’ L1 in these situations despite it contrasting with the respective language of instruction. This exception was made during the subsequent communicative instances due to the students either not understanding what their teachers were
saying to them or simply not complying as demonstrated through their behavior or continued crying.

All four faculty would also deviate from using the language of instruction when they needed to communicate with each other. This only occurred when communication involved Ms. Kristi or Ms. Nancy due to not speaking enough Spanish to effectively converse with either Ms. KyAnne or Ms. Sofía. However, because Ms. Kristi had a stronger command of the language, she actively tried to speak in Spanish when in the Spanish classroom. For the instances that they had to deviate from the language of instruction in order to converse with one another, they would do so quietly so that they were not heard.

Theme 3 also demonstrates how the four instructional faculty of the PreK/VPK-4’s DL program enforced the language policies with their students in every day conversation and during formal instruction. The majority of the students felt comfortable speaking in English while in Ms. Kristi’s classroom. Additionally, the majority of the students, including the students who were considered to be bilingual in both English and Spanish, continued to speak in English while in Ms. KyAnne’s classroom. Both teachers modeled the language through recasting, while never calling negative attention to the students’ misuse of vocabulary or grammar. Ms. KyAnne made a conscious effort as the school year progressed to remind the students who had acquired a good command of Spanish to speak in Spanish by asking the students to repeat their English utterances in Spanish. This method emphasized high frequency vocabulary.

During instruction, the teachers used a variety of strategies that enhanced and scaffolded the language development of their students’ respective L2 of either English or Spanish. Manipulatives such as blocks, tangible toys and objects, and story puppets were used to enhance
not only lessons but also vocabulary, such as colors, numbers, and technical jargon (e.g., bringing in a calabeza [Spanish for pumpkin] to talk about a pumpkin). Songs and mnemonic devices that often included TPR and other physical characteristics, including facial expressions and hand motions, were used for carrying out routines and learning the alphabet and letter sounds. Both teachers emphasized the use of authentic and age-appropriate books that were in the classroom’s respective language of instruction. However, and like with many of the materials that came with the Spanish curriculum, Ms. KyAnne found herself purchasing and bringing in her own books that were both in Spanish and appropriate for four-year-old students.

Aside from the instruction during the whole-student lessons, Ms. Kristi created an exception for Student J, the student who relocated from Puerto Rico due to the hurricanes. When engaging in every day conversation with him, she would speak in both English and Spanish, despite the language of instruction being English in her classroom. She did this so that he would feel safe and comfortable in her room and with her as a teacher.

Connecting Research Question 3

All four themes address the study’s third research question. Research question 3 (RQ3) included the following:

3. How was the change from a monolingual, English school to a DL program experienced by the school and its key actors?
   a. How did faculty, administrators, and parents of the students who attended the school experience the change?
b. What impact on the school culture resulted from the experience of becoming a DL
school?

c. What alignment, if any, existed between the school’s planning and policy and its
implementation?

Subquestion 3A: Administrators, Faculty, and Parents’ Experience of the Dual Language
Transition

Theme 1, DL Program Support, highlights Principal Sands’ conviction and continued
efforts to transition Sunshine Catholic School into the Diocese of Sunshine City’s first DL
school. She expressed an ongoing concern regarding the faculty who were not yet in the school’s
DL program as having a distrust of DL instruction due to misconceptions related to DL
education and research. In addressing this concern, this theme also shows Principal Sands’
ongoing acknowledgment of needing a more effective teacher buy-in regarding DL so that all
teachers would be confident and onboard with the DL transition once it rolled-up to their
respective grade levels.

Faculty experiences of the school’s first year of DL were reflected in Themes 2, 3, and 4.
As discussed previously, Theme 2, Language Policy and Curriculum Development, Theme 3,
Classroom Language Use and L2 Differentiation, and Theme 4, Teachers’ Dispositions on DL
Teaching, shine light on Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne’s experiences of being tasked with the
various responsibilities, challenges, and pressures to develop and initiate a successful DL
program for the PreK/VPK-4 program as they related to developing curriculum, establishing
language and behavior routines, and implementing the DL program at the micro-level through
classroom instruction. The experiences of these two DL teachers also shed light as to what can
be expected for the rest of the school’s faculty as the DL program is rolled-up into their respective grade levels.

Theme 4 specifically addresses Ms. Kristi’s and Ms. KyAnne’s dispositions on the DL experience and how it has positively affected them as teachers related to their perceptions of teaching as well as their instructional approaches and practices with students of linguistic diversities. Both teachers discussed the pressures and challenges they faced throughout the experience; however, both teachers felt confident in not only their ability to teach in a DL program but also with their work that helped shape the school’s first DL program. Ms. KyAnne felt that this experience only confirmed her decision to become and continue as a DL teacher. Although Ms. Kristi felt that the experience of being the school’s first DL teacher was a positive one overall, she decided to not continue teaching in a DL setting due to personal reasons that were not reflective of her professional experience at the school.

Theme 1, DL Program Support, and Themes 2 and 4 touch on the experiences that were felt by all faculty. Although none of these faculty members were interviewed directly, the researcher noted from professional development sessions and conversations with the faculty that they were anxious and hesitant for the program to roll-up into their respective grade levels due to a lack of knowledge, training, and experience in DL education. These hesitations were supported by the interviews that were completed with Principal Sands, Ms. Kristi, and Ms. KyAnne in which all three commented that their non-DL colleagues were apprehensive for the DL program to roll-up into their respective grade levels.

Themes 1 and 4 also show how the parents experienced the school’s first year of DL. As reported by Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne, the parents had much hesitation when the school
announced its decision to transition to DL. Ms. Kristi reported that one family explicitly told her that they were not going to continue at Sunshine Catholic School for the next school year due to the transition. Additionally, hesitations related to delayed L1 and L2 acquisition were felt by the parents, even the parents who still chose to have their child enrolled into the school’s new DL program in PreK/VPK-4. During the researcher’s interview with parents, these hesitations were much less in March 2018 than they were at the beginning of the school year. However, they expressed their concern for Kindergarten. Additionally, they had mixed reactions about their children’s silent periods in either English or Spanish; however, these were settled as the researcher and the teachers briefed them on research and literature regarding language acquisition amongst children.

Subquestion 3B: The Impact of the Dual Language Transition to the Overall School Culture

Themes 1, 2, and 3 surround the planning phases of the DL program that will be carried forward to the subsequent grade levels. Because the school initiated the roll-up model in which the DL program advances to the next grade level every year, one grade level at a time, both the work and approaches that Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne did with the administration to prepare and execute the DL program at the PreK/VPK-4 level set the tone for what the rest of the faculty can expect when preparing and executing the DL program in their own grade levels. Additionally, the challenges that were realized in the PreK/VPK-4 program were addressed in real-time, and the remedies that were taken to address these challenges will carry forward to the subsequent grades.
Theme 1, DL Program Support, Theme 2, Language Policy and Curriculum Development, and Theme 3, Classroom Language Use and L2 Differentiation, all set the tone and expectation for how the school’s faculty and administration would work together to develop each grade level’s DL program through a bottom-up approach. Principal Sands was very cautious about handing down policies that had no teacher-input. The decision to make the working atmosphere one that was collaborative and inclusive was purposeful so that all felt welcomed and valued. As reported in the findings section of this chapter, she felt that teachers’ involvement is crucial to the success of both the planning and implementation of the school’s DL program.

Principal Sands created a work environment in which teachers took on leadership roles and responsibilities that directly influence their respective grade level’s DL program. These included the areas of curriculum design, lesson and activity planning, scheduling, language and behavior routines, and content instruction. Additionally, as she mentioned previously, teacher collaboration in the form of partner-teaching and planning are critical to each grade level’s successful implementation of the DL program. Therefore, she would like to see that the school culture be one in which faculty are in continuous collaboration with one another, even though she acknowledged that partner-teaching and planning may be difficult and uncomfortable for some teachers. However, as the four instructional faculty of the PreK/VPK-4’s DL program (i.e., Ms. Kristi, Ms. KyAnne, Ms. Nancy, and Ms. Sofía) showed, collaboration with one another in both teaching and planning is vital going forward with a DL program.

Theme 1, DL Program Support, showed the current disposition that the majority of the faculty at the school had about DL instruction: hesitation and apprehension. This was recognized by Principal Sands, Ms. Kristi, Ms. KyAnne, and the researcher. Principal Sands acknowledged
that the faculty buy-in for DL education and the benefits that accompany the program proved to be difficult as many of the faculty’s reservations stemmed from fear, inexperience, and a lack of knowledge regarding DL education. This inexperience and lack of knowledge and training in DL can be connected with the Kindergarten teachers’ exceedingly high expectations that the students in the PreK/VPK-4’ DL program should come into Kindergarten after the summer break fully bilingual and biliterate. These expectations were detailed in Theme 4. As a result, the PreK/VPK-4 teachers felt immense pressure for their students to become bilingual and biliterate by the end of the school year, as well as retain their proficiencies that were gained in both English and Spanish over the summer, or else they will be seen as unsuccessful. This pressure may carry into the upper grades as the DL program rolls-up.

Themes 1 and 3 highlight the physical, linguistic, and instructional environments of the school culture. Theme 1 makes a statement regarding the push for linguistic and ethnic equity, particularly English and Spanish as well as the Hispanic culture, that is both seen and heard throughout the school and in the PreK/VPK-4 classrooms. As discussed previously, décor and signage were representative of both English and Spanish, the school’s two languages of instruction, and posters depicted people of various ethnicities.

Theme 3 shows that classroom communication and instruction were kept in their respective language of instruction; however, exceptions were made on a student-to-student case to meet their individual needs. These cases included the need to comfort students and redirect behavior. Additionally, exceptions were made for the teachers’ use of language as they communicated with one another during the instances when one teacher did not know the respective language of instruction. Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne made it very clear that they
would not respond negatively toward students who responded or blatantly spoke in their L1 when it contrasted with the respective language of instruction. Rather, they acknowledged their students’ utterances but would model the respective language of instruction back to the students through recasting, instructional scaffolding and strategies, and prompting. These approaches will be looked at by the subsequent grades when the DL program rolls-up.

Subquestion 3C: Alignment Between the School’s Policies and Implementation

Finally, Theme 1, DL Program Support, Theme 2, Language Policy and Curriculum Development, and Theme 3, Classroom Language Use and L2 Differentiation, reflect the alignment between the policies that were established by Sunshine Catholic School’s leadership team (i.e., macro-level) and the implementation of these policy decisions in the classroom (i.e., micro-level). The DL planning and policies that were established regarding the language use and curricular decisions are discussed in Themes 2 and 3. Curricula were selected and set for both the Spanish and English classrooms; however, because both the administration and the teachers acknowledged deficiencies within both sets of curricula, particularly the Spanish curriculum, the teachers were given flexibility in how closely they followed the curricula’s activities and lessons. Additionally, policies regarding language use within both classrooms were not explicitly handed down by the administration. However, because of the nature of the DL program’s 50-50 model, it was assumed that Ms. Kristi would use English and expect her students to while in the English classroom and the same for Ms. KyAnne and her Spanish classroom.

In addition, Themes 1-3 highlight the implementation of this planning. Both teachers kept to the curricula’s objectives and standards; however, it was felt that the curricula lacked relevant
and authentic materials and resources (e.g., story books) and were not student-centered nor interactive enough. Therefore, the teachers adapted the lessons and activities to make them more interactive, student-centered, and to include relevant materials that supported the language of instruction. Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne collaborated to establish language policies and routines, along with a set of exceptions, that were conducive to their own classrooms and individual students while still following the 50-50 model as closely as possible.

**Summary**

Chapter 4 provided vignettes for Principal Sands, Ms. Kristi, Ms. KyAnne, and Sunshine Catholic School. Additionally, the data analysis procedures described how the various a priori codes that the researcher initially had and how, through various cycles of axial coding, he was able to narrow them down to the following four themes: (a) classroom language use and L2 differentiation, (b) DL program support, (c) language policy and curriculum development, and (d) teachers’ dispositions on DL teaching. After detailed descriptions of each theme, the study’s research questions were aligned with the corresponding themes.
CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION

Chapter 5 begins with a brief summary of the study’s statement of the problem, purpose, and methodology and research questions followed by a summary of the study’s theoretical framework. Next, the chapter discusses the study’s findings while connecting the final four themes with the framework. A discussion follows regarding the implications that can be concluded from the study’s findings. Finally, the chapter recognizes the study’s limitations and areas for future research.

Statement of the Problem

As student demographics in PreK-12 schools shift from a monolingual, English-speaking student body to one that encompasses a variety of linguistic, ethnic, and cultural diversities, it is surprising to note that dual language (DL) schooling still remains controversial. Opponents of DL education are not only represented in state and federal government but also within the communities from which the schools reside. Teachers and parents have shown opposition and resistance toward this type of education due to concerns that DL, along with other forms of bilingual education, causes language delays, national separatism, and low student achievement on standardized assessments; yet, research consistently shows these concerns to be invalid (Lindholm-Leary, 2012; Ovando & Combs, 2012). In fact, student outcomes-based studies in DL show that these students often outperform their non-DL enrolled peers in both English and the partner language (Lindholm-Leary & Genesee, 2010). With respect to this research, the majority of studies concerning DL education focused on student outcomes and program evaluations of schools that were established as DL for at least two years at the time of the studies. Minimal
research has been conducted at schools that were in their planning phases for a DL program, and even less research has been completed on both the planning and first year’s implementation phases at the school.

**Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of the current study was to investigate the lived experiences of key actors regarding an elementary school’s first year of transition from a monolingual to a DL school. The researcher critically analyzed data collected from the school’s principal, two DL teachers, parents whose children attended the DL program, and the overall schooling environment in order to understand how the participants experienced the DL transition and how the transition affected the overall culture of the school. Further, the school’s ideal planning and policies that were established at the macro-level were compared against the actual implementation of these policies at the micro-level. Alignment between the school’s planning and policies and how they were implemented is an important aspect to the overall fidelity of a school’s DL program. Research conducted in DL schools showed that top-down approaches yielded results in which teachers found that implementing the policies that were made at the macro-level was far more difficult than if they had input regarding these policies (Alanís & Rodríguez, 2008; Freeman, 1996; Hunt, 2011). The goal of the current study is to add to the existing literature related to newly developed DL schools with foci on their planning, policies, and implementation phases.
Summary of the Methodology

The current, qualitative study adopted both a transcendental phenomenological (Creswell, 2013; Edmonds & Kennedy, 2013; Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007; Moustakas, 1994) and case study (Cresswell, 2013; Edmonds & Kennedy, 2013; Gall et al., 2007) design. These two designs allowed the researcher to investigate Sunshine Catholic School’s principal’s, DL teachers’, and parents’ lived experiences of transitioning to a DL program. As such, these experiences could be analyzed for individual and collective experiences in addition to how the transition affected Sunshine Catholic School’s overall school culture. A variety of data sources, including interviews, classroom observations, and artifacts, was collected to answer the study’s three research questions: (1) What key processes and activities characterized the school’s language planning and policy?; (2) How did the school implement its planning and policy at both the administrative and instructional levels?; and (3) How was the change from a monolingual, English school to a DL program experienced by the school and its key actors, including the principal, teachers, and students’ parents?

Discussion of the Findings

Before discussing the findings and themes, a brief summary of the study’s theoretical framework, Schein’s (2010) organizational culture and leadership, is provided. The discussion of the findings and how the final four themes connect to the framework are interwoven.

The current study adopted Schein’s (2010) organizational culture and leadership model for its theoretical framework. As it relates to the study, this model posits that the overall school culture is set by the routines, structures, and norms established by the school’s leadership team.
Thus, these standards may “constrain, stabilize, and provide structure and meaning” (p. 1) to the school’s faculty, staff, and students. In order to analyze the cultural tone of the school, data were collected in the form of artifacts and analyzed to gain an understanding of the espoused beliefs and values and the underlying assumptions that teachers, parents, and the principal had.

At the artifacts level, Schein’s (2010) most basic level in which the phenomenon can be seen, heard, and felt, data that were collected included Sunshine Catholic School’s mission and vision statements regarding educating students of diverse linguistic, ethnic, and cultural backgrounds, elements of the curriculum, handouts that went home to parents, and photographs of the classrooms and school. Additionally, classroom observations noted Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne’s instructional practices, routines and procedures, and interactions with the students, along with the students’ interactions with one another. Through participant interviews, the researcher was able to understand the reasoning for the artifacts that he physically collected, heard, and saw during the classroom observations.

Theme 1: Dual Language Program Support

Support for Sunshine Catholic School’s DL program was visible, at Schein’s (2010) artifacts level, in the most fundamental way; in the first year of implementation, DL faculty were hired specifically for the DL classrooms. Additionally, the two DL classrooms had full student enrollment. Although this may be basic, Ms. Kristi and Principal Sands recalled only one set of parents who withdrew their children from Sunshine Catholic School because of the approaching implementation of the DL program. The parents whose children were still enrolled at the school during the time of the study indicated that despite their current hesitations, they still believed that
Sunshine Catholic School’s DL program would provide a quality education for their children. Further, the progress they saw their children achieve between October 2017-March 2018, the interview data collection period, was enough to continue their children’s enrollment. Once they began to see this progress, they began to value the DL program. The parents’ positive feedback of the DL program and of Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne’s performance contrasted with the parents in Lee and Jeong’s (2013) study at the Korean-English DL school. As a result, these parents left the school; whereas, the parents’ overall satisfaction at Sunshine Catholic School was what kept their students enrolled. It should be noted that Lee and Jeong’s study examined a school that was in its second year of DL; whereas, the current study was conducted at a school that was in its first year of DL. As such, it is nearly impossible to confidently state that Sunshine Catholic School will not experience these types of future issues as they relate to the parents’ overall satisfaction and ultimate decision to withdraw their children from the school.

Ms. Kristi, the only participant-educator without formal DL training and experience, supported the concept of DL based on her self-initiated review of current research. Principal Sands’, Ms. Kristi’s, and Ms. KyAnne’s strong convictions regarding DL education and the long-term success shown by students united them to go above and beyond to promote DL for Sunshine Catholic School and dispel any misconceptions surrounding DL education. This strong conviction highlights their beliefs and values regarding DL education, as it relates to the second level of Schein’s (2010) model, Espoused Beliefs and Values. They promoted the three common goals of DL education that many researchers (Freeman, 1996; Lessow-Hurley, 2013; Lindholm-Leary, 2012; Ovando & Combs, 2012) in the field state: to produce students who are (a) bilingual, (b) biliterate, and (c) bi/multicultural. Additionally, they continually encouraged other
faculty to take on Ruiz’s (1984) and Aikman’s (2015) dispositions on the use of English learners’ (EL) first language (L1), viewing it as a basic human right and social capital rather than a problem that needs to be resolved.

At the artifacts level, it was clear that Sunshine Catholic School employed a 50-50 model of DL, and as such, the PreK/VPK-4 students were divided between the two homerooms so that nearly 50 percent of each homeroom was native-Spanish speaking (NSS) and nearly 50 percent was native-English speaking (NES). At the beginning of the classroom observations, the researcher had difficulty determining who was NES and who was NSS without making any assumptions based on their physical appearance. Additionally, because many of the students were bilingual in both English and Spanish, this complicated identifying who spoke which language as a dominant, first language (L1). There were a handful of Asian students who spoke Vietnamese, Tagalog, or Thai as their L1. It was not until the researcher interacted with the students on several occasions during the play-based learning, snack, and recess that he was able to identify students’ L1. These were confirmed by completing interviews with the teachers who spoke on the linguistic diversity. One student, who had fair white skin and blonde hair, was bilingual in both English and Spanish due to each parent speaking one of the languages at home. Additionally, it was revealed in the interview that one student spoke four languages at home and the teachers thought that there may be even more linguistic influences.

Theme 2: Language Policy and Curriculum Development

At the artifacts level, it was obvious that Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne were tasked with leadership responsibilities related to their grade level’s DL programming and development based
on simple observation and listening to them during the participant recruitment; therefore, the bottom-up approach to development that Principal Sands initiated was clear. Interviews revealed that this approach was purposeful and intended to extend equal representation to the classroom teachers in the planning and policy-making, thus revealing Principal Sands’ beliefs and values for taking such an approach. The decision to impose a bottom-up approach to leadership was also influenced by Principal Sands’ previous DL experiences, as well as the research that she had reviewed prior to coming to Sunshine Catholic School.

Interviews with the teachers highlighted the beliefs and values they held for this approach. Not only did they feel it was their responsibility to develop the program because it was directed by their principal, but in many aspects, they appreciated these tasks and welcomed the responsibilities. For Ms. Kristi, this approach was welcomed based on the DL research she read upon receiving the assignment one year prior to the DL program, and Ms. KyAnne welcomed this approach due to experiencing a top-down approach at her previous school prior to coming to Sunshine Catholic School. This notion of building a leadership team that consisted of both administration and teachers mirrors the positive dispositions that were found within studies that investigated the success of established DL schools (Alanís & Rodríguez, 2008; Freeman, 1996; Hunt, 2011; Whitacre, 2015). For all three educators (i.e., Principal Sands, Ms. Kristi, and Ms. KyAnne), their prior experiences and knowledge of DL education that led them to conclude that a bottom-up approach to leadership is more effective falls within the underlying assumptions level of Schein’s (2010) model due to their disposition that a top-down approach should not be considered as an approach to leadership.
Additionally, interviews revealed a second trend in the espoused beliefs and values level of Schein’s (2010) model: despite the teachers’ appreciation for the bottom-up approach and their leadership roles, they felt the ongoing challenge of not having experience or training in DL programming or design. It is worth restating that Ms. Kristi also did not receive formal, DL training prior to taking on these responsibilities. Throughout her interviews, Ms. Kristi expressed that she would like to have had ongoing support from a fulltime expert that was versed in the research and programming experience related to DL due to her being responsible for the majority of the programming tasks related to the overall structure, scheduling, and curricula selection. Although Ms. KyAnne did not explicitly call for a DL expert to be hired, she expressed her appreciation for having the grant director from the partner-university, discussed at the beginning of Chapter 4, come into Sunshine Catholic School on a handful of occasions to assist with the programming and structuring for the upcoming Kindergarten DL program. For Ms. Kristi, the challenges that she experienced when fulfilling the various tasks to develop the program’s structure, scheduling, and curricula due to her inexperience and lack of formal training in DL served as an underlying assumption that she held related to the need to hire a DL expert, and as a result, this hire became more of a necessity than an option.

With regards to language policy, interviews with the teachers revealed that the administration never explicitly handed down a set of policies regarding the language use in the classrooms for both students and faculty. At the level of espoused beliefs and values, it was revealed that the language routines and policies were developed by the teachers, indirectly, by mutually assuming that Ms. Kristi’s English classroom would speak in English and Ms. KyAnne’s Spanish classroom would speak in Spanish due to the nature of a 50-50 DL model that
the school had adopted. From the classroom observations, it was clear that Ms. Kristi had an English-medium curriculum and Ms. KyAnne, a Spanish-medium curriculum. However, interviews later revealed that the Spanish-medium curriculum had many elements that were written and designed for an English-medium of instruction, including materials, stories, and assessments. This was a constant challenge for Ms. KyAnne as she continually adjusted her lessons and activities so that they were authentic and incorporated Spanish materials and literature. Although frustrating for Ms. KyAnne, because of her DL training and professional background as a former DL teacher prior to coming to Sunshine Catholic School, she was able to seamlessly adapt the curriculum’s linguistic deficiencies so that they were in Spanish and not English. She did this because she valued the Spanish component of the DL program and believed that students should have an authentic Spanish experience that utilized authentic materials and activities. This strengthens the discussions made by researchers of DL education who have found that teachers need to not only be highly qualified in their respective content area and proficient in their language of instruction, but they also need to have training and knowledge that is specific to DL teaching and education (Forman, 2016; Lee & Jeong, 2013; Whitacre, 2015). In addition, teachers need to be entrusted to do their jobs and to be able to make instructional decisions that require flexibility in the curriculum so that they can meet their students’ linguistic and academic needs (Alanís & Rodríguez, 2008; Hunt, 2011). At Sunshine Catholic School, the teachers felt supported by the administration to meet the needs of their students as they saw fit; thus, this became an underlying assumption as they felt justified in adjusting their curriculum and linguistic interactions with their students.
Theme 3: Classroom Language Use and L2 Differentiation

The language usage amongst teachers and students was easily heard during the classroom observations. It was easy for the researcher to conclude that when the teachers, including Ms. Sofía, code-switched to the students’ L1, it was primarily to redirect behavior or comfort students. As such, the language behaviors, along with the exceptions to break these routines, were observed at the artifacts level. Interviews with Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne showed that they tried to remain in the respective language of instruction. At the beliefs and values level, it was revealed that concerns for the students’ overall well-being and socioemotional comfort influenced the teachers to code-switch to the students’ L1. Ms. KyAnne deepened this reasoning by reflecting on how she felt as an L2 learner herself, thus an indication of an underlying assumption.

It was also noted from the observations that the teachers tried to retain the respective language of instruction when speaking to one another. Because Ms. KyAnne was bilingual in both Spanish and English, she spoke in English 100 percent of the time when talking with either Ms. Kristi or Ms. Nancy, both NES, when in the English classroom. However, Ms. Kristi was restricted by her intermediate Spanish proficiency, and as a result, she had to use some English when speaking with Ms. KyAnne or Ms. Sofía while in the Spanish classroom. Ms. Nancy was the only one to speak in English for most of her interactions when speaking with Ms. KyAnne and/or Ms. Sofía, regardless of the classroom setting she was in, due to her very limited Spanish proficiency. All teachers at Sunshine Catholic School spoke English, and all teachers who spoke Spanish as their L1 were bilingual in English. However, like Ms. Kristi, Ms. Nancy, and Principal Sands, not all NES educators at the school spoke Spanish. This mirrors the faculty at
Oyster Bilingual School (OBS) where all faculty must have been able to speak English, but Spanish was only required for the Spanish-medium classroom teachers (Freeman, 1996). Similar to the language routines between the teachers and their students, the language behaviors described amongst one another were observed at the artifacts level.

Language use amongst the students varied. The majority of students code-switched in both classrooms during the play-based learning centers or remained in English in both the English and Spanish classrooms. Freeman’s work at OBS (1996) and JBBMS (2000) also reflected the same concerns of code-switching amongst the students and their peers, regardless of the classroom and respective language of instruction. However, where the students at JBBMS blatantly refused to speak Spanish, the NSS students at Sunshine Catholic School spoke in English to their non-NSS peers purely because it was the shared, common language. The NSS students spoke Spanish with one another if there were no non-NSS students in close proximity. These language behaviors amongst the students were also observed at the artifacts level. Because the researcher did not interview the students nor asked them why they spoke the language that they did with their peers, the second and third levels of Schein’s (2010) model were not realized.

The differentiation and scaffolding strategies that the teachers used during their classroom instruction were easily observed at the artifacts level during the classroom observations. Both teachers’ interviews confirmed the conclusions that the researcher had about the strategies: they differentiated because (a) it is just good instructional practice and (b) the teachers genuinely had the individual linguistic and academic needs of their students in mind. Both teachers passionately spoke on the importance of differentiating and scaffolding for
individual students. This reasoning and justification are both beliefs and values, as well as solidified dispositions that the teachers held regarding differentiation and scaffolding.

This carried over into the L1 and L2 acknowledgment, recasting, and prompting strategies, which were also visible at the artifacts level. Explicit prompting of students to speak the L2 for high frequency vocabulary in Ms. KyAnne’s classroom became even more evident in December 2018, the half way mark of the school year. In her interviews, she revealed that she still had reservations about whether or not she should have been prompting her non-NSS students to speak in Spanish earlier in the school year because she did not want the students to feel removed from the classroom and not have opportunities to participate in the lesson circles. Whether or not to prompt students to use Spanish, and how often to do so without intimidating her students, was a struggle that she acknowledged. The researcher argues that the struggle that Ms. KyAnne had remains at the beliefs and values level and is not an underlying assumption because Ms. KyAnne was still not sure as to how she felt about her belief on explicit language prompting and the frequency at which to prompt students to speak Spanish. It seemed that she could still be convinced on either side of the spectrum regarding explicit language prompting. Ms. Kristi cited research regarding L1 and L2 acquisition as her reason for acknowledging students’ L1 of Spanish in her classroom. Ms. KyAnne cited both the research and her own personal experience as to why she acknowledged the students L1 of English.

It was Ms. Kristi’s decision to have Student J, the student who came to Sunshine Catholic School from Puerto Rico because of the hurricanes, in Ms. KyAnne’s Spanish classroom for the full day during his first week of school so that he felt comfortable. She also purposefully spoke in Spanish with him during the school day but not during the lesson circles. She reasoned that
him feeling comfortable with his new surroundings due to the “trauma” that he had experienced related to the hurricane devastations was a bigger goal, at that moment, than learning academic content, although learning content was also a goal. However, Ms. KyAnne, who is NSS, felt differently to a degree. She believed that holding him in the Spanish classroom for the full first week was not beneficial to him acclimating to his new schooling environment and instead, believed that he should have been transitioning between both classrooms with the rest of the students throughout his first week. Interestingly, both teachers felt very strongly about their positions regarding Student J’s first-week’s placement. The researcher would argue that because of their passionate positions regarding this topic, their positions would be considered underlying assumptions rather than simple beliefs and values.

Both teachers made allowances for students to speak their L1 in order to have some participation and belonging in the classrooms, and both referenced Cummins’ (1979) social and academic language development as a reason for not forcing the respective language of instruction on the students. Many DL classroom studies found that code-switching done by both the students and teachers was common (Freeman, 1996; Freeman, 2000; Lee & Jeong, 2013). In Freeman’s (2000) study at Julia de Burgos Bilingual Middle School (JBBMS), teachers were observed to not only code-switch to meet the needs of their students, but also encouraged it when teaching lessons and vocabulary. This is in contrast with Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne who permitted code-switching only for the purpose of meeting the students’ individual needs and not for teaching lessons or vocabulary. The reasons for breaking the established language routines and allowing code-switching in the classrooms are aligned with the teachers’ underlying assumptions and dispositions that they had regarding language development and differentiation.
Collaborations were also easily observed at the artifacts level. Such collaborations included those done between both of the DL teachers, between the DL teachers and the teaching aides, and the DL teachers and the principal. However, the extent and the objectives of each collaboration were less notable. The two interviews with Principal Sands revealed her beliefs on collaboration amongst teachers by indicating that it was crucial for the success of the DL program. This collaboration went beyond initial program development. She stated that she believed that co-teaching, specifically, was at the heart of the success for effective instructional implementation, an assertion that led the researcher to conclude that this is an underlying assumption of Principal Sands. She further expressed this disposition by stating that teachers in the new DL program would be required to work together in partner-planning and teaching situations due to the collaborative nature of DL instruction.

Similarly, Ms. Kristi also expressed that instructional collaboration, different from collaborations regarding program development, was vital for effective classroom instruction in both the Spanish and English classrooms. She proposed that teachers within the same grade level observe one another while they teach their students, even if a teacher is not proficient in the language of instruction he or she is observing. In doing so, she asserted that teachers can learn much more about their own teaching styles and how to differentiate their own styles and lessons for language scaffolding. All of these statements describe her espoused beliefs regarding instructional collaboration. As mentioned in Themes 3 and 4, having strong administrator-teacher relationships in which both parties have equal representation in the DL program development leads to more successful DL programs and schools (Alanís & Rodriguez, 2008; Freeman, 1996; Hunt, 2011; Whitacre, 2015).
Theme 4: Teachers’ Dispositions on Dual Language Teaching

Theme 4’s recurring pattern of the expectations and the pressure that were placed upon the DL teachers relied entirely on participant interviews from both the teachers and parents. There were no visible or audible artifacts available to collect. The expectation that students would almost immediately acquire their respective L2 simply upon being enrolled at Sunshine Catholic School’s DL program corresponds with the expectations that parents have stated in the literature (Lindholm-Leary, 2012). For the teachers, this expectation led them to be anxious about how their students would fare over the summer and into Kindergarten, and this became a recurring concern, especially as the school year progressed. Are students proficient enough in both English and Spanish? Did teachers place too much or not enough emphasis on content instruction or language acquisition? How are the Kindergarten teachers going to perceive the instructional effectiveness from the PreK/VPK-4 program if the students’ respective L2 proficiencies are lower than the Kindergarten teachers’ expectations? As a result, students’ preparation for Kindergarten and the fear of L2 attrition over the summer influenced how the teachers approached instruction and the overall DL structuring. Initially, the researcher concluded that the expectations and pressures described in Theme 4 fall under Schein’s (2010) second level, espoused beliefs and values; however, after a closer analysis, the researcher would argue that they are underlying assumptions. He makes this case due to the fact that the current PreK/VPK-4 DL teachers have tweaked their instruction and the program’s structure to meet the future demands of Kindergarten.

Similar to the expectations pattern from within Theme 4, the identities of being a DL teacher were realized from interviews. Both the PreK/VPK-4 teachers and the principal at
Sunshine Catholic School had a commitment to the school’s new DL program and wanted it to be successful because they genuinely believed in the philosophy of DL education and adhered to the three common goals of DL education (i.e., to produce students who are bilingual, biliterate, and bi/multicultural). This belief and conviction was repeated throughout the participants’ interviews. These are considered to be solidified dispositions regarding DL. The teachers believed in this type of education so strongly that they were unwilling to waver from these goals and commitment to educate students in a DL setting. Therefore, these convictions have become underlying assumptions, as described in Schein’s (2010) model. These beliefs and assumptions align with Hunt’s (2011) findings regarding principals and teachers’ dispositions on successful DL programs. Hunt found that they all had a shared conviction and belief for DL education, and not one single individual waivered from the belief in DL education. Despite the challenges that the teachers experienced in developing the new DL program and curriculum, they appreciated their leadership roles and genuinely enjoyed coming to school to teach in the DL program. This was also a finding in Hunt’s studies on dispositions of successful DL programming.

It was revealed in the fourth and final interview with Ms. Kristi that she was not returning to Sunshine Catholic School and the DL program despite her love for DL education. Her reasoning for leaving was personal; however, she assured the researcher that it was not because of the DL experience at the school. This is reassuring for DL education, particularly for schools and faculty who are new to DL, as Forman’s (2016) study on teachers’ perceptions of new DL programs showed that many teachers either considered leaving or had already left their jobs and the school because they were unhappy with the change from a monolingual to a DL teaching identity. Despite Ms. Kristi’s departure from the school and the DL program, her conviction and
view on DL education are still considered as assumptions rather than simple beliefs toward DL because she was not leaving the school and program based on shifting beliefs or a negative experience teaching in a DL classroom.

Finally, in the tradition of DL education, signage and décor were represented in both English and Spanish and on an equal representation level both schoolwide (i.e., Theme 1) and in the classrooms (Theme 4). Depictions of people also had a significant Hispanic representation. In other words, English and stereotypical English-speaking representations of people (e.g., Caucasians) did not overpower the Spanish as seen in some studies, such as Freeman (1996; 2000) and Lee and Jeong (2013). These were also observed at the artifacts level. Additionally, all three educators (i.e., Principal Sands, Ms. Kristi, and Ms. KyAnne) discussed that this was intentional so that students and their families felt represented at the school, and in doing so, the overall culture of DL could be felt, both visibly and internally, by all those who attended the school, including students, parents, and teachers. This reasoning meets the espoused beliefs and values as well as the underlying assumptions levels of Schein’s (2010) model as it provided a rationale for the purposeful décor and DL signage.

**Implications of the Findings**

A DL program is only as successful as its key actors. Research investigating successful DL schools concluded that all actors of the school, including administrators, teachers, and parents, must share the three common goals of DL (i.e., producing students who are bilingual, biliterate, and bi/multicultural), as well as have a clear understanding of their roles and responsibilities in both the planning and implementation stages of the DL program (Alanís &
Rodríguez, 2008; Freeman, 1996; Hunt, 2011; Whitacre, 2015). As Forman (2016) indicated, when the roles and responsibilities are not understood by everyone involved, teachers are plagued with confusion which ultimately may cause them to leave the school and/or profession. Based on the study’s findings, the researcher concluded a variety of implications for schools that are transitioning, or considering the transition, from a monolingual program to DL at both the planning and classroom implementation stages. As such, the following implications are separated and presented in the following two stages.

Implications for Planning a Dual Language Program

The planning stage for a DL school begins with its administration. School administrators are the ones who set the tone for the planning stage, which is often credited as having the greatest effect on the overall success of the DL program (Reyes, 2006; Theoharis & O’Toole, 2011). Therefore, the approach that is taken is vital to the overall planning of a DL program. Will teachers have input and equal representation in the planning of the program and be entrusted to make curricular and instructional decisions? Research conducted at DL schools that were considered to be successful suggests that planning that includes both the teachers and administrators see higher rates of overall success than a top-down approach in which decisions are made strictly at the administrative level and teachers’ input are not considered (Alanís & Rodríguez, 2008; Freeman, 1996; Hunt, 2011).

Recruiting highly qualified teachers who are bilingual in English and the partner language of instruction has proved to be much more difficult when seeking to hire for a DL program (Oberg de la Garza, Mackinney, & Lavigne, 2015; Whitacre, 2015). Fortune, Tedick,
and Walker (2008) identified the following qualities required for successful DL teaching: (a) academic proficiency in both English and the partner language of instruction, (b) pedagogical training related to instruction, (c) mastery of content in both languages, and (d) training in L2 teaching. Whitacre (2015) found that principals of DL schools felt that continuous professional development on DL was needed for both themselves and their teachers.

Drawing upon the findings of the current study, the researcher detailed the following implications regarding the planning of a DL program for schools that are transitioning to DL:

1. The approach to leadership should be one that is a bottom-up. When putting together a leadership team, principals and teachers should be included with equal representation and decision-making authority. Sunshine Catholic School purposefully included both teachers and administrators; however, the teachers were tasked with responsibilities that went beyond their expertise. As such, sufficient guidance and coaching must be available to the teachers who are in the leadership team.

2. The findings regarding collaboration showed that the DL teachers found collaboration with one another and the principal critical to the overall success of the DL program at Sunshine Catholic School. Teachers need to work together to plan the curriculum and set policies and routines that are universal for both the English and the partner language of instruction classrooms before classes begin. In addition, the administration needs to provide guidance throughout this planning.

3. As shown in the findings, only Ms. KyAnne had prior professional experience and training as a DL teacher in the Prek/VPK-4 grade level. Although she drew upon her prior experience and training, they were not enough to effectively meet the challenges
that arose with DL programming, including curriculum development and scheduling, due to this prior background having focus on DL instruction and not program development. Therefore, at least one teacher in each grade level, regardless of the language of instruction, should have experience and training in DL with an emphasis on DL program design.

4. As researchers of DL have already posited (Fortune et al., 2008; Oberg de la Garza et al., 2015; Whitacre, 2015) and findings regarding DL-trained teachers at Sunshine Catholic School showed, recruiting and retaining teachers who are specifically trained for DL instruction is difficult. If Implication 3, explained above, cannot be completed, the school needs to consider hiring a DL coordinator or specialist, with experience and training in both DL programming and instruction, to assist and coach the non-DL-trained teachers at the school. This was realized by both DL teachers at the school but was explicitly expressed by Ms. Kristi, who was not DL-trained.

5. Ongoing professional development in DL instruction and programming were recurring themes felt by both the principal and teachers at Sunshine Catholic School. This desire is not unique to this school but is one that is felt by administrators and teachers of DL schools nationwide (Whitacre, 2015).

6. Throughout the parent interviews and also during the parent-coffee talk hour in the fall of 2017, the parents expressed their concerns and fears regarding DL instruction. They also shared the linguistic and academic progress that their children made, as well as their satisfaction for the overall program and teachers. Conferring about parental opinion and experiences of the program is important to the overall evaluation
of a DL program. Parental input needs to occur more frequently than the two occasions that were completed at the school. Research shows that programs are more successful when parental involvement and input are integrated within the overall DL program (Freeman, 1996; Whitacre, 2015). This involvement may also extend to the possibility of having bilingual parents as guest volunteers in the classrooms.

7. In the beginning of the planning stage at Sunshine Catholic School, a handful of teachers were able to visit two DL schools in the Sunshine City area. This gave the teachers who were not versed in DL an idea of what to expect when the DL program rolls-up to their respective grade level. It was expressed to the researcher that the two DL teachers at Sunshine Catholic School did not have the opportunity to visit the outside DL schools before the DL school year began due to scheduling conflicts. If available, teachers who are not experienced or trained in DL should be provided opportunities to visit local DL schools for the reasons explained. If possible, meetings between the visiting teachers and the DL teachers and administrators of the DL schools may help alleviate any fear, concerns, and questions that the visiting, non-DL-trained teachers may have before planning and implementing a DL program at their own school.

Implications for Classroom Implementation

As discussed throughout the current chapter and in Themes 2 and 3 of Chapter 4, the approach taken for DL should be bottom-up in which teachers have equal representation and input in the planning of not only the DL structure but also the curriculum and instruction (Alanís
Effective teachers of DL ensure that instruction (a) is meaningful, (b) is designed in thematic units with hands-on, interactive activities, and (c) supports students’ oral and literacy proficiencies (García, 1991). Further, Hunt (2011) showed that both DL teachers and their administrators felt that teachers were even more effective when they are allowed instructional and curricular flexibility. In doing so, the teachers were able to make adjustments in various aspects of the curriculum, its materials and resources, instruction, and the policies that were established in the planning stage so that they could best meet their students’ individual linguistic, academic, and socio-emotional needs.

Drawing upon the findings of the current study, the researcher detailed the following implications regarding classroom and instructional implementation of a DL program with respect to policies that were established:

1. The findings from the study showed that the DL teachers were entrusted to make curricular and instructional decisions and adjustments that may have deviated from the original curricular and language policies that were established. The teachers made these on a case-by-case basis so that they were able to meet the individual linguistic, academic, and socio-emotional needs of their students. As research shows (Alanís & Rodríguez, 2008; Hunt, 2011; Ovando & Combs, 2012), it is important that teachers have flexibility to adjust the curriculum and instruction. In doing so, teacher may be able to see how the two fit in order to meet their students’ needs and/or to better the curriculum due to deficiencies as shown in the findings with Ms. KyAnne’s Spanish curriculum having an overwhelming amount of English-based elements.
2. The DL teachers felt that it was important to collaborate with one another, as well as with the teacher aides regarding lesson planning, instruction, and creating a united front, so-to-speak, to reinforce language policies and routines. Teachers of DL instruction need to collaborate with one another to reinforce these items, as well as to align lessons and thematic units with one another so that instructional and linguistic objectives and content can be reinforced across languages and content. Furthermore, time needs to be set aside to allow the teachers to complete this task.

3. Just as a traditional, monolingual classroom, routines are established before instruction with students begins. In a DL setting, language policies and routines also need to be established between the teachers of each grade level. From the findings, the researcher suggests that two sets of language policies and routines be established. The first set is for the students and what their expectations will be as they relate to language use. The next set is for the teachers and teacher aides. What language will be spoken when talking to one another with students present? If one teacher does not understand a particular language and students are present, how will they communicate?

4. Teachers need to be entrusted to break the classroom language policies that were set in order to meet the students’ individual needs, as both Ms. Kristi and Ms. KyAnne did regarding code-switching with their students’ L1. However, they need to do this sparingly and only when necessary.

5. Ms. KyAnne reinforced students’ L2 of Spanish by explicitly having the students say high frequency vocabulary terms (e.g., colors, numbers) when students would state
them in English. This is an effective method for encouraging students to speak in the L2, regardless of the L2, without placing students in a high-risk situation because this vocabulary has been consistently used and repeated throughout the day and in various contexts. Therefore, this vocabulary is familiar to the students.

6. As García (1991) indicated, DL instruction needs to be meaningful, interactive, and student-centered so that linguistic and academic opportunities for growth are available. Both teachers expressed the importance of having instruction and lessons be as García (1991) described. Their own students became disengaged, and as a result, they began to misbehave and not participate in the lesson activities during lessons that were not meaningful, interactive, nor student-centered.

Limitations and Future Research

As with all studies, this study is not without limitations and areas for future research. This section of the chapter describes these limitations and areas.

Limitations of the Study

The official data collection for this current study began in October 2017. It would have been beneficial to have begun the study at the beginning of the school year. In addition, because one of the foci of the study is the planning that went into the language and curricular policies, the researcher could have gained real-time data if the study began when the school decided to first transition to DL and the researcher been present in the meetings and planning stages prior to the school year beginning.
In addition to the late start, the data collection officially commenced with the parent interviews on March 1, 2018, but data collection from the classroom observations was completed during the first week of February 2018. Although the researcher felt that saturation was reached regarding the teachers’ instructional implementation, the study would have been more enriched if the classroom observations continued through the end of the school year. In doing so, the researcher could have then focused the observations on the students’ linguistic and academic progress and communicative interactions with one another and their teachers. This would have provided a deeper and long-term understanding of how receptive the students were to the policies that were established, the teachers’ instruction, and their communicative interactions.

Ms. KyAnne and Ms. Kristi completed a total of four interviews each with the researcher throughout the data collection period; however, Principal Sands only completed two. It was intended that the principal complete the same amount of interviews as the teachers in order to discuss how she felt the program was progressing throughout the data collection period; however, due to scheduling conflicts, it was not feasible to complete all four interviews. In addition, parents were interviewed once. The researcher would like to have completed one interview each month with the parents in order to gain a fuller picture of their experiences and impressions of the DL program. Further, only eight parents participated in the interviews. Having more parents participate would have provided for a richer context regarding their dispositions and experiences of having their children enrolled into the DL program.

The researcher was only able obtain a small amount of documents. The researcher intended to have collected copies of both the Spanish and English curricula as well as the school budget. Despite these not being collected, the teachers and principal still discussed these
documents in interviews. Clearly, having collected these physical pieces would have strengthened the overall credibility of the study, as well as had the potential to provide a richer context for Themes 2 and 3 as they relate to the school’s curricular planning and instructional implementation.

Finally, because the concern for the students going to Kindergarten arose as a subtheme to Theme 8, it would have been beneficial to interview the school’s Kindergarten teachers regarding their own expectations for the current PreK/VPK-4 students as they related to the students’ linguistic and academic preparation and retention. Additionally, interviewing them about their own DL preparation for the approaching DL program would provide a rich context to these expectations.

Future Research

Mirroring the limitations of this study, future research should be conducted at a newly transitioned DL school that not only investigates its first year’s experience as a DL school, but also the entire planning period prior to the implementation year. This would provide for a richer context regarding the sociopolitical reasons for the transition as well as a first-hand look at the type of approach (i.e., bottom-up or top-down) that administration takes when developing its leadership team and the experiences of the DL teachers that the program will immediately impact if it assumes a roll-up model.

Another area for future research is an investigation of the perceptions and experiences of the entire faculty and not just the teachers who are currently teaching in the DL program, if the program is a roll-up model. A whole-school, investigative analysis would provide for a richer
context regarding the overall school culture. This may provide insight into the misconceptions that exist about the upcoming DL program, as well as the overall sense of approval or apprehension that teachers may have based on the work that the current DL grade levels are doing. In other words, how did the work that the DL teachers of PreK/VPK-4 set the example and tone for rest of the school?

Finally, the nature of a DL program includes two languages, typically English and a partner language that is representative of the immediate community. At Sunshine Catholic School, the DL PreK/VPK-4 grade level had several students who were not from NES nor NSS backgrounds. The grade level consisted of a considerable amount of students whose L1 was Vietnamese, Thai, or Tagalog. From a sociolinguistic and L2 identity perspective, framed with Norton’s (2013) theoretical underpinnings on L2 imagined identities, it would be interesting to investigate the experiences and the sociolinguistic, imagined identities of students whose L1, or even L2, is neither of the two languages of instruction at the DL school from which they attend. It would also be particularly interesting to consider the students’ perceptions of race and ethnic identities as compared to the traditional, and sometimes stereotypical, perceptions of a particular language speaker’s physical appearance. In the context of the current study, for example, did the L1-Vietnamese students’ physical appearance and L1 play a role in their sociolinguistic identity of acquiring English and/or Spanish?

**Conclusion**

Despite the increasing linguistic pluralism that enriches American classrooms, DL instruction remains a highly debated concept for educating students (Lessow-Hurley, 2013;
Ovando & Combs, 2012). Not only is resistance being met at the federal and state levels, but educators and parents have shown hesitation and outright disproval for DL. Interestingly, the researcher found that parental hesitation primarily came from parents whose L1 was not English, as found in Lee and Jeong’s (2013) study. For educators who are in agreement with the benefits that DL instruction provides, challenges are met when planning for such a program and setting linguistic and curricular policies and routines. Even if the planning was seamless at the macro-level (i.e., administration), implementing the plan and policies may prove to be quite challenging when teachers are handed down such a plan with little to no input, training, or experience in DL instruction.

Research regarding planning and implementation in DL schools show that the most successful schools are ones in which teachers were entrusted by administration to have equal representation and decision-making input during the planning stage, as well as flexibility to adjust their instruction, language, and curriculum to meet the needs of their students (Alanís & Rodríguez, 2008; Freeman, 1996; Hunt, 2011; Whitacre, 2015). The current study investigated how such key actors as teachers, administration, and parents experienced the first year of DL transition at their school. Findings from the study confirmed what existing research shows regarding a bottom-up approach to administrative leadership and guidance in the planning of a new DL program. Additionally, the study’s findings highlighted the importance of entrusting faculty to make decisions related the language and curricular planning of the DL program, as well as decisions regarding the planning’s instructional implementation.
APPENDIX A: INITIAL IRB APPROVAL
Approval of Exempt Human Research

From: UCF Institutional Review Board #1
FWA00000361, IRB00001138

To: Alex P. Davies
Date: September 29, 2017

Dear Researcher:

On 09/29/2017, the IRB approved the following activity as human participant research that is exempt from regulation:

- **Type of Review:** Exempt Determination
- **Project Title:** Transitioning from a Monolingual to a Dual Language Program: A Case Study of an Elementary School
- **Investigator:** Alex P. Davies
- **IRB Number:** SBE-17-13411
- **Funding Agency:**
- **Grant Title:**
- **Research ID:** N/A

This determination applies only to the activities described in the IRB submission and does not apply should any changes be made. If changes are made and there are questions about whether these changes affect the exempt status of the human research, please contact the IRB. **When you have completed your research, please submit a Study Closure request in IRIS so that IRB records will be accurate.**

In the conduct of this research, you are responsible to follow the requirements of the **Investigator Manual**.

On behalf of Sophia Dziegielewski, Ph.D., L.C.S.W., UCF IRB Chair, this letter is signed by:

[Signature]

Signature applied by Gillian Amy Mary Morena on 09/29/2017 01:38:38 PM EDT

IRB Coordinator
APPENDIX B: IRB ADENDUM APPROVAL
Determination of Exempt Human Research

From:
UCF Institutional Review Board #1
FWA0000351, IRB00001138

To:
Alex P. Davies

Date:
December 20, 2017

Dear Researcher:

On 12/20/2017, the IRB reviewed the following modifications as human participant research that is exempt from regulation:

- **Type of Review:** Exempt Determination
- **Modification Type:** Addition of parental perspective, translations into Spanish from English for interview questions and consent, updates to protocol to include information about the additional population.
- **Project Title:** Transitioning from a Monolingual to a Dual Language Program: A Case Study of an Elementary School
- **Investigator:** Alex P. Davies
- **IRB Number:** SBE-17-13411
- **Funding Agency:** N/A
- **Grant Title:** N/A
- **Research ID:** N/A

This determination applies only to the activities described in the IRB submission and does not apply should any changes be made. If changes are made and there are questions about whether these changes affect the exempt status of the human research, please contact the IRB. When you have completed your research, please submit a Study Closure request in iRIS so that IRB records will be accurate.

In the conduct of this research, you are responsible to follow the requirements of the [Investigator Manual](#).

This letter is signed by:

[Signature]

Signature applied by Gillian Morien on 12/20/2017 12:11:24 PM EST

Designated Reviewer
EXPLANATION OF RESEARCH

Title of Project: Transitioning from a Monolingual to a Dual Language Program: A Case Study of an Elementary School

Principal Investigator: Alex P. Davies, MATESOL

Faculty Supervisor: Joyce Nutta, Ph.D.

You are being invited to take part in a research study. Whether you take part is up to you.

The purpose of this study is to examine [Name of School]’s first year as a dual language school. Specifically, this study will examine the everyday classroom practices as they relate to the school’s language policy and curriculum in both languages of instruction, Spanish and English. In doing so, the researcher hopes to gain a deeper understanding of any challenges and/or achievements that may arise from the school’s first year of transition as a dual language school.

As an administrator participating in this study, you will be asked to complete an initial, focus group interviews with other administrators as well as follow-up interviews regarding the school’s dual language program and your professional experiences as a dual language administrator. The interviews will be audio-recorded only. In addition, you will be asked to provide documents relevant to the dual language program, including handouts, curriculum, philosophy statements, and budget reports. The researcher may also ask to observe you during relevant events, such as professional development sessions. There will be no video-recording used in this study. All identifying information and data collected will remain confidential. No compensation will be provided for your participation, and you do not need to complete every task asked or answer every question to participate. Both the interviews, observations, and document collecting will occur on school grounds. You will not need to come to the University of Central Florida or any other location to participate.

Your participation in the study is expected to run from October 2, 2017 to April 15, 2018. The initial interview will occur within the first two weeks of the study at a time that is most convenient for you and is expected to last approximately one hour. Subsequent interviews and observations will be scheduled as necessary and are anticipated to be between 15-30 minutes.

You must be 18 years of age or older to take part in this research study.

Study contact for questions about the study or to report a problem: If you have questions, concerns, or complaints, please contact the following: Alex P. Davies, Graduate Student/Doctoral Candidate, Education in TESOL Program, College of Education & Human Performance, UCF at (407) 242-6293 or alex.davies@ucf.edu, or Dr. Joyce Nutta, Faculty Supervisor, ESOL Education, College of Education & Human Performance, UCF at joyce.nutta@ucf.edu.

IRB contact about your rights in the study or to report a complaint: Research at the University of Central Florida involving human participants is carried out under the oversight of the Institutional Review Board (UCF IRB). This research has been reviewed and approved by the IRB. For information about the rights of people who take part in research, please
APPENDIX D: TEACHER INFORMED CONSENT
EXPLANATION OF RESEARCH

Title of Project: Transitioning from a Monolingual to a Dual Language Program: A Case Study of an Elementary School

Principal Investigator: Alex P. Davies, MATESOL

Faculty Supervisor: Joyce Nutta, Ph.D.

You are being invited to take part in a research study. Whether you take part is up to you.

The purpose of this study is to examine [Name of School’s first year as a dual language school. Specifically, this study will examine the everyday classroom practices as they relate to the school’s language policy and curriculum in both languages of instruction, Spanish and English. In doing so, the researcher hopes to gain a deeper understanding of any challenges and/or achievements that may arise from the school’s first year of transition as a dual language school.

As a teacher participating in this study, you will be asked to complete an initial, focus group interviews with other teachers as well as follow-up interviews regarding the school’s dual language program and your professional experiences as a dual language teacher. The interviews will be audio-recorded only. In addition, you will be asked to provide documents relevant to the dual language program, including handouts, curriculum, and assignments. The researcher will also conduct weekly observations of your classroom. There will be no video-recording used in this study. All identifying information and data collected will remain confidential. No compensation will be provided for your participation, and you do not need to complete every task asked or answer every question to participate. Both the interviews, observations, and document collecting will occur on school grounds. You will not need to come to the University of Central Florida or any other location to participate.

Your participation in the study is expected to run from October 2, 2017 to April 15, 2018. The initial interview will occur within the first two weeks of the study at a time that is most convenient for you and is expected to last approximately one hour. Subsequent interviews will be scheduled as necessary and are anticipated to be between 15-30 minutes. Classroom observations will be scheduled between 1-3 hours at a time on a recurring, weekly schedule for 2-3 days a week starting the week of October 2, 2017 and will run through February 15, 2018.

You must be 18 years of age or older to take part in this research study.

Study contact for questions about the study or to report a problem: If you have questions, concerns, or complaints, please contact the following: Alex P. Davies, Graduate Student/Doctoral Candidate, Education in TESOL Program, College of Education & Human Performance, UCF at (407) 242-6293 or alex.davies@ucf.edu, or Dr. Joyce Nutta, Faculty Supervisor, ESOL Education, College of Education & Human Performance, UCF at joyce.nutta@ucf.edu.

IRB contact about your rights in the study or to report a complaint: Research at the University of Central Florida involving human participants is carried out under the oversight of the Institutional Review Board (UCF IRB). This research has been reviewed and approved by the IRB. For information about the rights of people who take part in research, please
EXPLANATION OF RESEARCH

Title of Project: Transitioning from a Monolingual to a Dual Language Program: A Case Study of an Elementary School

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Faculty Supervisor: Joyce Nutta, Ph.D.

You are being invited to take part in a research study. Whether you take part is up to you.

The purpose of this study is to examine [Name of School]'s first year as a dual language school. Specifically, this study will examine the everyday classroom practices as they relate to the school's language policy and curriculum in both languages of instruction, Spanish and English. In doing so, the researcher hopes to gain a deeper understanding of any challenges and/or achievements that may arise from the school's first year of transition as a dual language school.

As a parent whose child is enrolled into the dual language program at [name of school], to participate in this study, you will be asked to complete two interviews about your perceptions of dual language education, your decision to enroll your child into the program, and your overall impressions of the program. The interviews will be audio-recorded only. There will be no video-recording used in this study. All identifying information and data collected will remain confidential. No compensation will be provided for your participation, and you do not need to complete every task asked or answer every question to participate. The interviews will occur at [name of school] in a reserved and secured room. You will not need to come to the University of Central Florida or any other location to participate.

Your participation in the study is expected to run from November 2017 to February 2018. The initial interview will occur within the the months of November or December 2017, whichever is most convenient for you. The second interview will occur in January or February 2018. Each interview expected to last between 15 – 30 minutes.

You must be 18 years of age or older to take part in this research study and must have at least one child who is enrolled into the dual language program at [name of school].

Study contact for questions about the study or to report a problem: If you have questions, concerns, or complaints, please contact the following: Alex P. Davies, Graduate Student/Doctoral Candidate, Education in TESOL Program, College of Education & Human Performance, UCF at (407) 242-6293 or alex.davies@ucf.edu, or Dr. Joyce Nutta, Faculty Supervisor, ESOL Education, College of Education & Human Performance, UCF at joyce.nutta@ucf.edu.

IRB contact about your rights in the study or to report a complaint: Research at the University of Central Florida involving human participants is carried out under the oversight of the Institutional Review Board (UCF IRB). This research has been reviewed and approved by the IRB. For information about the rights of people who take part in research, please contact: Institutional Review Board, University of Central Florida, Office of Research & Commercialization, 12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501, Orlando, FL 32826-3246 or by telephone at (407) 823-2901.
EXPLICACIÓN DE LA INVESTIGACIÓN

Título del Proyecto: Transición de un Programa Monolingüe a un Programa de Lenguaje Dual: Un Estudio de Caso de una Escuela Primaria

Investigador principal: Alex P. Davies, MATESOL

Supervisor de facultad: Joyce Nutta, Ph.D.

Usted está siendo invitado a participar en un estudio de investigación. Su participación es voluntaria.

El propósito de este estudio es examinar el primer año de [nombre de la escuela] como una escuela de lenguaje dual. Específicamente, este estudio examinará las prácticas cotidianas en el aula, y cómo estas se relacionan con la póliza de lenguaje y el plan de estudios de la escuela en ambos idiomas de instrucción, español e inglés. Al hacerlo, el investigador espera obtener una comprensión más profunda de los desafíos y / o logros que puedan surgir durante el primer año de transición de la escuela como escuela de lenguaje dual.

Como padre cuyo hijo está inscrito en el programa de lenguaje dual en [nombre de la escuela], para participar en este estudio, se le pedirá que complete dos entrevistas sobre sus percepciones de la educación en dos idiomas, su decisión de inscribir a su hijo en el programa y sus impresiones generales del programa. Las entrevistas serán grabadas solo en audio. No habrá grabación de video utilizada en este estudio. Toda la información de identificación y los datos recopilados serán confidenciales. No se proporcionará ninguna compensación por su participación, y no necesita completar cada tarea o responder cada pregunta para participar. Las entrevistas se llevarán a cabo en [nombre de la escuela] en una habitación reservada y segura. No será necesario que vaya a la Universidad de Florida Central ni a ningún otro lugar para participar.

Se espera que su participación en el estudio se desarrolle entre noviembre de 2017 y febrero de 2018. La entrevista inicial se realizará dentro de los meses de noviembre o diciembre de 2017, según lo que sea más conveniente para usted. La segunda entrevista tendrá lugar en enero o febrero de 2018. Se espera que cada entrevista dure entre 15 y 30 minutos.

Debe tener 18 años o más para participar en este estudio de investigación y debe tener al menos un hijo inscrito en el programa de lenguaje dual en [nombre de la escuela].
Si tiene preguntas, inquietudes o quejas, favor de comunicarse con: Alex P. Davies, estudiante graduado/ candidato doctoral, educación en el programa TESOL, Facultad de Educación y Desempeño Humano, UCF al (407) 242-6293 o alex.davies@ucf.edu, o con la Dra. Joyce Nutta, Supervisora de Facultad, ESOL Education, Facultad de Educación y Desempeño Humano, UCF, joyce.nutta@ucf.edu.

Contacto del IRB sobre sus derechos en el estudio o para reportar una queja: Investigaciones en la University of Central Florida que involucran participantes humanos se llevan a cabo bajo la supervisión de la Junta de Revisión Institucional (UCF IRB). Esta investigación ha sido revisada y aprobada por el IRB. Para obtener información sobre los derechos de las personas que participan en la investigación, comuníquese con: Junta de Revisión Institucional, University of Central Florida, Oficina de Investigación y Comercialización, 12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501, Orlando, FL 32826-3246 o por teléfono al (407) 823-2901.
“Transitioning from a Monolingual to a Dual Language Program: A Case Study of an Elementary School”

Administration Interview Protocols

Initial Interview

1. Please describe your academic/professional background as it relates to your administrative title and as an educator.
2. Please describe your personal and/or professional experiences with dual language programs (e.g., former career experiences, credentials, L2 learning experiences, etc.).
3. Please describe the students and their families that attend your school (e.g., demographics).
4. Please describe the immediate area/neighborhood from which the school is located.
5. What components influenced the transition into a dual language school?
6. What influenced your personal decision to transition from a monolingual-English school to a dual language school?
7. Please describe the language and policy planning that is going into this transition.
8. How much influence do you as an administrator have on this planning?
9. How much influence do your teachers have on this planning?
10. Is there anything else that you would like to clarify, expand, and/or add to this discussion?

Follow-Up Interview (2)

1. How are things going in the dual language program since we last spoke?
2. Last interview, you mentioned that teachers are core to the success of the dual language program. Overall, what experiences do your teachers have regarding dual language education?
3. What PD/training will your teachers receive in dual language education?
4. In the PreK4 program, how was the curriculum developed or decided upon?
5. What challenges does it present?
6. What advantages/positives does it present?
7. With regards to the school budget, how much is allocated to PD, the curriculum, and curricular resources?
8. Is there anything else that you would like to clarify, expand, and/or add to this or from the previous interview?
APPENDIX H: TEACHER INTERVIEW PROTOCOLS
“Transitioning from a Monolingual to a Dual Language Program: A Case Study of an Elementary School”

Teacher/Instructional Interview Protocols

Initial Interview

1. Please describe your academic/professional background as it relates to your instructional title and as an educator.
2. Please describe your personal and/or professional experiences with dual language programs (e.g., former career experiences, credentials, L2 learning experiences, etc.).
3. In general, how do you feel about dual language education and classrooms?
4. How did you learn about your school’s transition to a dual language program?
5. What types of responsibilities, if any, would you like to have in the decision-making of the school’s language and policy planning?
6. Are you looking forward to the dual language transition? Please explain.
7. Do you have any reservations or concerns about the dual language transition? Please explain.
8. Is there anything else that you would like to clarify, expand, and/or add to this discussion?

Follow-Up Interview (2)

1. How are things going in the dual language program since we last spoke?
2. Within the two homerooms, please describe the student demographics as it relates to their home languages, ethnicity, and socio-economic backgrounds, etc.
3. Please describe the teacher-student interactions on the first days of school as well as any meeting with them before (e.g., Meet the Teacher) and how the students responded.
4. How did your students, from both homerooms, react to your instruction and language-use?
5. What challenges do your students face still in this program regarding academic, linguistic, or transitional progresses?
6. What achievements and successes have you seen from your students?
7. Is there anything else that you would like to clarify, expand, and/or add to this or from the previous interview?

Follow-Up Interview (3)
1. How have things been since the last time we talked regarding the dual language program at the school?
2. Describe any challenges since then.
3. Describe any successes/achievements since then.
4. Describe the curriculum that you are using for your instruction.
5. How did you obtain the curriculum? Did you create it? Was it given to you?
6. Did you have any influence or input on the curriculum?
7. How strict are you with implementing your respective language as it relates to the curriculum and instruction?
8. What benefits or advantages does this curriculum provide?
9. What challenges does this curriculum provide?
10. What other resources are needed to help enhance or improve the curriculum and/or instruction?
11. Is there anything else that you would like to clarify, expand, and/or add to this discussion?

Follow-Up Interview (4)

1. Overall, how are things going as they relate to the dual language program?
2. What changes have you noticed in your students?
3. What successes/achievements have you seen in the program?
4. What challenges still remain?
5. As a profession and teachers, how has this experience informed or influenced your dispositions on teacher and as a teacher?
6. Is there anything else that you would like to clarify, expand, and/or add to this discussion and/or any of the interviews previous?
APPENDIX I: PARENT INTERVIEW PROTOCOLS
“Transitioning from a Monolingual to a Dual Language Program: A Case Study of an Elementary School”

Teacher/Instructional Interview Protocols

English

Initial Interview

1. What is your native language?
2. What languages do you speak with your children at home?
3. Do you speak any additional languages?
4. Does your child speak any additional languages? Please describe.
5. What does the term ‘dual language education or school’ mean to you?
6. What prompted your decision to enroll your child into the dual language program at St. John Vianney Catholic School?
7. What concerns and/or fears did you have regarding this decision, if any?
8. What goals and/or expectations do you have of this program at St. John Vianney Catholic School as it relates to your child’s education and language development?
9. What are your impressions of how the school is doing with its dual language program? Strengths? Weaknesses?
10. Is there anything else that you would like to address or comment?

2nd Interview

1. Have your impressions of the school’s implementation of the dual language program changed? Please explain.
2. Since the program started in August 2017, what successes or achievements have you seen in your child’s education and language development?
3. Since the program started in August 2017, what struggles have you seen in your child’s education and language development?
4. How would you describe your child’s teachers in both the English and Spanish classrooms approaches to developing your child’s overall education and language development?
5. How have you supported and/or reinforced your child’s second language development at home?
6. How has the school provided support to you as the school makes this transition to the dual language instruction?
7. What additional support or activities would you like to have seen or done in the future to help assist you and your child to be successful and comfortable in the dual language program?
8. What recommendations would you offer to parents who are thinking of enrolling their children into a dual language program?
9. Is there anything else that you would like to address or comment?

***Because of scheduling conflicts, the school had to reschedule its initial February interview for March 1, 2018. Thus, not all questions were asked.

**Español**

Entrevista inicial

1. ¿Cuál es tu lengua materna?
2. ¿Qué idiomas hablas con tus hijos en casa?
3. ¿Hablas algún otro idioma?
4. ¿Su hijo habla algún otro idioma? Por favor describa.
5. ¿Qué significa para ti el término "educación de dos idiomas o leguaje dual"?
6. ¿Qué motivó su decisión de inscribir a su hijo en el programa de lenguaje dual en St. John Vianney Catholic School?
7. ¿Qué preocupaciones y / o temores tenía con respecto a esta decisión, si corresponde?
8. ¿Qué metas y / o expectativas tiene de este programa en St. John Vianney Catholic School en lo que respecta a la educación y el desarrollo del lenguaje de su hijo?
9. ¿Cuáles son sus impresiones de cómo le está yendo la escuela con el programa de lenguaje dual? ¿Fortalezas? ¿Debilidades?
10. ¿Hay algo más que le gustaría abordar o comentar?

2da entrevista

1. ¿Han cambiado sus impresiones sobre la implementación del programa de lenguaje dual en la escuela? Por favor explique.
2. Desde que el programa comenzó en agosto de 2017, ¿qué éxitos o logros ha visto en la educación y el desarrollo del lenguaje de su hijo?
3. Desde que el programa comenzó en agosto de 2017, ¿qué dificultades ha visto en el desarrollo de la educación y el lenguaje de su hijo?
4. ¿Cómo describiría el desempeño de los maestros de su hijo para desarrollar la educación general y el desarrollo del lenguaje en inglés y español de su hijo en el aula?

5. ¿Cómo ha apoyado y / o reforzado el desarrollo del segundo idioma de su hijo en casa?

6. ¿De qué manera la escuela te brindó apoyo a medida que la escuela hace esta transición a la instrucción en dos idiomas?

7. ¿Qué apoyo o actividades adicionales le gustaría ver o participar en el futuro para ayudarle a usted y a su hijo a tener éxito y sentirse cómodo en el programa de lenguaje dual?

8. ¿Qué recomendaciones le ofrecerías a los padres que están pensando en inscribir a sus hijos en un programa de lenguaje dual?

9. ¿Hay algo más que le gustaría abordar o comentar?

***Because of scheduling conflicts, the school had to reschedule its initial February interview for March 1, 2018. Thus, not all questions were asked.
REFERENCES


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