

**Technology and tasks for bridging the language-content gap:  
Teacher-researcher collaboration in a third-year Spanish writing course**

by  
Jesse Gleason

A dissertation submitted to the graduate faculty  
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of  
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Major: Applied Linguistics and Technology

Program of Study Committee:

Tammy Slater, Major Professor

Katherine Bruna Richardson

Dan Douglas

John Levis

David Russell

Iowa State University

Ames, Iowa

2013

Copyright © Jesse Gleason, 2013. All rights reserved.

Para Jorge.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Dedication.....	ii
List of Tables.....	vi
List of Figures.....	vii
Gratitude.....	viii
Abstract.....	ix

## CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.0 Background.....	1
1.1 Definitions.....	4
1.1.1 Blended learning. ....	5
1.1.2 Language tasks. ....	6
1.1.3 Academic discourse. ....	8
1.2 Statement of the Problem.....	9
1.3 Purpose of the Study.....	13
1.4 Significance of the Study.....	14
1.5 Theoretical Background.....	14
1.5.1 Theories of language. ....	15
1.5.2 Theories of language learning. ....	16
1.5.3 Theories of computer-assisted language learning. ....	18
1.5.4 Theories of social science research. ....	20
1.5.5 Situating the present study. ....	22
1.6 Overview of the Dissertation.....	23

## CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 An Overview of the Chapter.....	25
2.1 Blended Course Design.....	25
2.1.1 Comparisons of blended and traditional learning. ....	25
2.1.2 Blended language learning models. ....	27
2.2 Tasks and Technology.....	31
2.2.1 Task classifications.....	31
2.2.2 Computer-mediated communication tasks. ....	35
2.2.3 Computer-assisted task-based language teaching. ....	36
2.3 Blended Writing Development.....	39
2.3.1 Writing in the first language. ....	39
2.3.2 Writing in the second or foreign language. ....	44
2.4 Systemic Functional Linguistics.....	47
2.4.1 Ideational meanings. ....	48
2.4.2 Interpersonal meanings. ....	55
2.4.3 A genre approach. ....	57

2.4.4 A register approach. ....	63
2.5 Summary of the Chapter and Overarching Questions.....	71

### CHAPTER 3: METHODS

3.0 An Overview of the Chapter.....	73
3.1 Qualitative Inquiry and Ontological Assumptions.....	73
3.2 Trustworthiness of the Study.....	77
3.2.1 Veracity. ....	77
3.2.2 Objectivity. ....	78
3.2.3 Perspicacity. ....	79
3.2.4 Qualitative criteria. ....	79
3.3 My Role in Researching and Teaching.....	80
3.4 Ethnographic Case Study.....	86
3.5 Grounded Theory.....	91
3.6 Research Procedures.....	94
3.6.1 Sampling. ....	94
3.6.2 Research sites and context. ....	95
3.6.3 Participants. ....	96
3.7 Data Collection Procedures.....	100
3.7.1 Observations. ....	100
3.7.2 Interviews. ....	102
3.7.3 Textual documents. ....	105
3.8 Data Analysis.....	106
3.8.1 Grounded ethnography. ....	106
3.8.2 Register analysis and appraisal. ....	108
3.8.3 Grounded ethnography in conjunction with SFL analysis.....	111
3.9 The Design of the Present Study.....	113
3.10 Summary of the Chapter.....	115

### CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

4.0 Chapter Overview.....	119
4.1 A Thick Description of the Language Classroom.....	119
4.1.1 A typical culture lesson. ....	120
4.1.2 A typical grammar lesson. ....	125
4.1.3 A typical writing workshop. ....	129
4.2 The Infusion of Technology.....	133
4.2.1 Cultural videos. ....	134
4.2.2 The online workbook with Netsupport. ....	136
4.2.3 Google Docs. ....	139
4.3 The Types of Feedback Done.....	143
4.3.1 Oral feedback. ....	145

4.3.2 Written feedback. ....	147
4.4 The Patterns of Topics and Tasks. ....	148
4.4.1 Culture lessons. ....	150
4.4.2 Grammar lessons. ....	153
4.4.3 Writing workshops. ....	156
4.5 How Learning Occurred. ....	159
4.5.1 Cultural learning through discussion. ....	159
4.5.2 Grammar learning through input/IRF. ....	164
4.5.3 Grammar learning through pair work. ....	168
4.5.4 Grammar learning through the L1. ....	170
4.5.5 Talking about writing. ....	173
4.5.6 Doing writing. ....	176
4.6 Summary of Results. ....	180

## CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.0 Chapter Overview. ....	182
5.1 The Role of Technology-and Participants' Attitudes About Technology-in Teaching and Learning in Spanish 301 Courses. ....	182
5.1.1 Technology as a way to lighten the load. ....	183
5.1.2 Technology as a motivating force. ....	185
5.1.3 The role of technology-enhanced feedback. ....	187
5.1.4 Concerns about technology. ....	188
5.2 Tasks and Participants' Perceptions of Tasks in Spanish 301 Courses. ....	190
5.2.1 Big group work. ....	192
5.2.2 Pair work. ....	198
5.2.3 Work-along sub-tasks. ....	201
5.2.4 One-on-one sub-tasks. ....	202
5.3 How Language Is Developed in Spanish 301 Courses During Learning Tasks. ....	206
5.3.1 Big group and 1on1 sub-tasks: Enhancing knowledge about content. ....	207
5.3.2 Work-along grammar sub-tasks: Building up knowledge of language. ....	214
5.4 Conclusion. ....	216
5.4.1 Summary of findings. ....	217
5.4.2 Limitations. ....	232
5.4.3 Implications. ....	232
5.4.4 Future directions. ....	237
REFERENCES. ....	240

## APPENDICES

Appendix A: Contract Between the Researcher and the Teacher. ....	258
Appendix B: Task Classification by Interactional Pattern and Topic. ....	261
Appendix C: Task Transcripts. ....	266

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1	Assumptions of Functional and Structuralist Approaches to Language.....	15
Table 2.1	A Typology of Communication Tasks, Adapted From Pica, et al. (1993).....	33
Table 2.2	Types of Language Practice, Adapted From Nunan (2001).....	34
Table 2.3	Traditional and Process Writing Adapted From Pearson and Gallagher (1983)...	40
Table 2.4	The Being, Doing, and Sensing/Thinking Relationship of Knowledge Structures.	50
Table 2.5	Knowledge Structures, Thinking Skills, Key Visuals, and Language .....	52
Table 3.1	The Two Research Contexts.....	95
Table 3.2	Key Student Informant Information.....	97
Table 3.3	The Database.....	100
Table 3.4	Key Informant Interviews.....	104
Table 3.5	Representation of Grounded Development of Themes and Sub-Themes.....	108
Table 3.6	Methodological Approaches Used to Answer the Overarching Questions.....	115
Table 4.1	Technology Used in Spanish 301.....	134
Table 4.2	Representative Sample of HS and NNS Comments About Cultural Videos.....	136
Table 4.3	Representative Sample of Participant Comments of Netsupport with Online Workbook.....	138
Table 4.4	Representative Sample of Participant Comments About Using Google Docs in Spanish 301.....	140
Table 4.5	Task Classification Based on Interactional Patterns, Sub-Task Types and Lessons.....	149
Table 4.6	BG and PW Sub-Tasks on Culture Days.....	151
Table 4.7	Representative Sample of Student Comments About Culture Tasks.....	152
Table 4.8	Quantification of BG, PW, and WA Tasks Used on Grammar Days.....	154
Table 4.9	Representative Sample of Student Comments About Grammar Tasks.....	155
Table 4.10	BG, PW, and 1on1 Sub-Tasks Used on Writing Days.....	156
Table 4.11	Representative Sample of Student Comments About Writing Tasks.....	158
Table 4.12	Sub-Tasks Chosen for Discourse Analysis.....	159
Table 4.13	Task Groupings From a Typical Culture Day.....	160
Table 4.14	Task Groupings From a Typical Grammar Day: Big Group Work.....	165
Table 4.15	Task Groupings From a Typical Grammar Day: Pair Work.....	169
Table 4.16	Task Groupings From a Typical Grammar Day: Work Along.....	171
Table 4.17	Task Groupings From a Typical Writing Day: BG, PW, and 1on1.....	173
Table 5.1	Main Themes Surrounding Technology Use in Spanish 301.....	183
Table 5.2	Main Themes Surrounding Sub-Task Types as They Occurred in Different Lessons of the Third-Year Spanish Courses.....	191
Table 5.3	Linguistic Features Highlighted in Different Sub-Task Types in Spanish 301.....	207
Table 5.4	Summary of Key Findings of the Dissertation .....	216
Table 5.5	Summary of Implications of the Dissertation.....	233

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1	The APPRAISAL system. ....	55
Figure 2.2	A genre approach to writing. ....	58
Figure 2.3	An example of a genre-inspired heritage Spanish learning unit.....	61
Figure 2.4	Sequence of text using a genre approach. ....	62
Figure 2.5	Grammatical shift in English. ....	68
Figure 2.6	Mathematical expression used in O'Halloran (2000). ....	69
Figure 3.1	Spradley's variations in research scope. ....	87
Figure 3.2	Screenshot of one writing task carried out in Google Docs. ....	102
Figure 3.3	The design of the dissertation study. ....	114
Figure 4.1	PPT slide of BG grammar sub-task about subjunctive and indicative moods....	166
Figure 5.1	Continuum of tasks as related to the genre writing cycle. ....	204
Figure 5.2	A model of the third-year FL bridge course. ....	226

## GRATITUDE

As Albert Einstein once said, “Example isn’t another way to teach, it’s the only way to teach.” With this in mind, I have much gratitude I would like to express to the following people for the examples that they have provided me throughout my doctoral training:

- To Tammy Slater, for being an excellent example of what a true mentor looks like. For selflessly giving her time and expertise. For sharing with me her passion for SFL and pushing me forward with just the right amount of pressure.
- Gracias a Elisa Rizo, una querida amiga y una gran mentora, por su disposición abierta y actitud positiva durante cada minuto de este proyecto.
- To Anastasia Prokos and Katherine Bruna Richardson for kindling and sharing in my excitement for grounded ethnography.
- Gracias a Angélica Reina y a Héctor Bombiella. Por ser mis colegas y amigos durante el proceso de enseñar clases y recolectar datos.
- To Delphine Douglas, Lauren Struckmeyer, and in particular to Darla Holliday, for igniting our soul education.
- To my key informants, for unselfishly contributing their time to this project.
- To Volker Hegelheimer, for being my family’s advocate from the very first day.
- To Mark Rectanus, for his openness and support of my research.
- To John Levis, for speaking to students from his heart.
- To Carol Chapelle, for setting the standard high.
- To Dan Douglas, for his warmth and reception.
- To David Russell, for his critical eye.
- And last but certainly not least, to our dear friends that we’ve made over the years in Ames, without whose support we wouldn’t have thrived! Including but not limited to: Ghinwa Alameen and Naya, Susan Benner, Ling Cai, Rachel Haywood-Ferreira, Renée and Tom Keinert, Kimberly LeVelle, Peter and Sofia Mauro, Silvina López-Barrera and Diego Thompson Bello, Shannon McCrocklin, Claudia Meuller, Jim Ranalli and Leonor Leandro, Flor Romero de Slowing, Russ Suvorov and Aysel Saricaoglu, Rachael, Randy, and Hannah Siebens.



## ABSTRACT

Many scholars have noted the disjunction between language instruction at the lower- and upper levels of FL study (Byrnes, 2002; Kraemer, 2008; Lord, 2014; Maxim, 2005; Schultz, 2000; Swaffar & Arens, 2005). Whereas lower-division courses tend to focus primarily on learning grammatical patterns and the “four skills,” upper-level courses focus mainly on content. This language-content gap is problematic for learners, who often arrive to upper-level courses unprepared for the types of learning that occur there. By providing students a bridge between lower-level and upper-level courses, third-year FL courses carry a heavy responsibility: They must integrate the language-focus familiar to students at the lower-levels while simultaneously preparing them for the types of learning that they will encounter at the upper-levels. It is the aim of this dissertation to reveal the types of tasks that may be useful at this level in order to help learners succeed. Using grounded ethnographic methods, this multiple case study chronicles how a collaborative partnership between an instructor and an applied linguist facilitated the integration of new technology into two sections of a third-year Spanish grammar-and-composition course. For data analysis, two theoretical frameworks rooted in systemic functional linguistics were used: the Knowledge Framework (Mohan, 1986, 2007, 2011) and APPRAISAL theory (Martin & White, 2005). Specific findings surrounded: (a) the role of technology in third-year language learning, (b) the importance of f2f and written feedback, (c) the tasks used as learning tools, and (d) students’ language development. Four technology-based themes and four task types were found to be instrumental at this level. Each of these tasks as they occurred during culture, grammar, and writing lessons entailed different ways of using language to construct knowledge. While grammar tasks were especially useful for building up students’ knowledge about language forms, culture lessons and writing tasks were instances for the teacher to support

students' knowledge of language and content. Specifically, these latter two task types provided opportunities for functional recasting, in which the teacher could make form-meaning relationships explicit (Mohan & Beckett, 2003). This study makes a contribution to the field by showing the types of technology, tasks, and language that were beneficial in third-year Spanish courses. As such, it outlines a curricular model for third-year FL courses, including important task types for helping learners to successfully transition from lower-level language courses into advanced levels of language study.

## CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

### 1.0 Background

A main challenge in foreign language (FL) higher education is a breach between a focus on form (e.g., the “four skills,” grammar, and vocabulary patterns) at the lower levels and a focus on content<sup>1</sup> (e.g., literature and culture) at the upper levels. While more and more first- and second-year courses<sup>2</sup> are adopting a communicative approach in line with the *Standards* (ACTFL, 2006), third- and fourth-year courses have tended to use content-based instruction to focus on the analysis of literary and cultural genres. Many scholars over the past three decades have documented this so-called language-content (or language-literature) gap as highly problematic (Byrnes, 1988, 1990, 1996, 1998, 2002; Kern, 2002; Kraemer, 2008; Kramsch, 1985, 1998; Lord, 2014; Maxim, 2005; Schultz, 2002; 2005; Swaffar & Arens, 2005; Swaffar, Arens & Byrnes, 1991). As Harris-Schenz (1993) explains, “students who have received As in the basic language sequence cannot understand why they are suddenly unable to function in the next level course, which is actually several levels beyond them” (p. 48). While lower-level courses often make use of language-learning tasks that aim to reinforce grammar patterns, fourth-year courses tend to resemble content/literature courses in the first language. Third-year FL instruction carries the weighty responsibility (and unique opportunity) of helping prepare students for upper-level FL courses and advanced language use domains.

---

<sup>1</sup> *Content*, as I am using it here, must be differentiated from *content-based language teaching* (CBLT). Whereas the goal of CBLT is to focus on incorporating both language and content; content (literature), as it is taught at the upper-levels of language study, often precludes a discussion of how language construes meaning.

<sup>2</sup> Here I use the term 100/200-level as synonymous with first- and second-year language courses. Together, they make up the basic language sequence. Similarly, 300-level courses are synonymous with third-year language “bridge” courses. The 400-level courses refer to the fourth year content/literature courses.

Fortunately, technology has the potential to provide third-year FL teachers with valuable tools for helping to bridge the language-content gap. As *blended* or *hybrid* language learning is becoming increasingly widespread in many US educational institutions (e.g., Echavez-Solano, 2003; Grgurović, 2010; Jin, 2012), third-year FL teachers can harness technology to help bridge the divide between instruction at the lower and upper levels of language study. *Blended* courses are defined as those that include a face-to-face (f2f) instructional component as well as a technology-enhanced component. They can be attractive options for third-year FL teachers due to their replacement of f2f time with online assignments. Allen and Seaman (2008) estimated that approximately 29% of the higher education population in the US was enrolled in fully online courses in 2007-2008. Picciano (2009) calculated that more than one million school age students took online courses in 2007–08. Needless to say, many US educational institutions have jumped on the technology bandwagon and this is no exception when it comes to language education. For third-year FL educators, a new market has opened up in the arena of blended and distance learning, one in which an array of different technological tools are available.

Undoubtedly, rapid advancements in technology make researching blended language (BL) learning a moving target. Technological tools, not to mention the ways teachers implement them for a variety of f2f and virtual tasks, are under constant metamorphosis. In the classroom, technology is changing the way that students are exposed to language. Schleppegrell and Colombi (2002) assert that “continual changes in technology and society mean that literacy tasks are themselves always changing, calling for skills in handling technical, bureaucratic, and abstract language; often simultaneously requiring that people get meaning from print, visual, electronic, and other kinds of media” (pp. 1-2). Although technology provides many options for third-year FL teachers seeking tools to help to prepare their students for the upper-level language

sequence, little research has examined how technology is best harnessed to help students make this transition.

Universities and other educational institutions are often at the forefront of exploration with technological tools for pedagogical means. In language learning contexts, technology is frequently exploited during online learning courses. According to the US Department of Education (2010), online learning is one of the fastest growing trends in educational uses of technology. Data cited from the National Center for Education Statistics showed that K-12 enrollment in online courses increased by 65% between the 2002-3 and 2004-5 academic school years.

Another aspect one must consider is the foreign language being taught. The importance of Spanish in the United States, for example, is difficult to overlook. According to the US Census Bureau (2010), almost 37 million people aged five and above speak Spanish in the home. Hispanics now make up 14% of the US population, the largest minority exerting its momentous influence in social, artistic, economic, and political circles (Colombi, 2009). Fifteen years ago, students of Spanish as a FL were reported to make up 55% of all language students in US colleges and universities (Echavez-Solano, 2003). McKay and Wong (2000) reported that Spanish language students composed more than 70% of all English learners in US schools. Today, the numbers of Spanish heritage language students learning English and English-speaking learners enrolled in Spanish as a FL continue to grow as Spanish becomes the most important and powerful language in the US after English. For example, the Instituto Cervantes, a public institution that promotes the teaching of the Spanish language in over 43 countries, estimated that at least 14 million people worldwide study Spanish as a foreign language in 2006-

2007. What is more, almost half of these (~six million) were estimated to come from the US alone (Instituto Cervantes, 2010).

The immediacy of Hispanic cultures within the US presents challenges for FL and heritage language learning. Although heritage speakers of Spanish are apprenticed into the more informal oral registers of their home life, English-only movements such as those embodied by California's Proposition 227 (or similar laws), have deprived the majority of these students formal study in Spanish until they reach higher education and are required to study a "foreign language" (Colombi, 2009). For these students, FL classes targeted to monolingual students are often ill suited and mismatched (cf. Richardson Bruna, 2002). Monolingual FL learners will undoubtedly have different instructional needs from bilingual heritage learners who have already had ample exposure to oral Spanish registers outside of schooled contexts.

García (2002) upholds that "advanced biliteracy can only be developed if there are meaningful purposes and authentic audiences for which the two languages are read and written" (p. 252). Little consensus, however, exists as to exactly how third-year Spanish courses can best harness technology to assist different types of learners in their development of more formal, academic Spanish registers, and to help them make the transition from the lower- to the upper-level language sequence. It is clear that more research is necessary in order to understand the most appropriate and opportune means for designing, building, and implementing technology in third-year Spanish courses in order to prepare different types of learners to effectively use Spanish for meaningful communication.

## **1.1 Definitions**

Due to their importance to this study and their highly contextual nature, several important terms need to be defined due to the ambiguous and sometimes inconsistent use of these

expressions across the research literature. Of specific significance are the terms: (a) *blended learning*, (b) *task*, and (c) *academic language*.

**1.1.1 Blended learning.** *Blended* or *hybrid* learning is one type of online learning, which also includes a f2f instructional component. Picciano (2009) asserts that there are many types of BL courses but that a singular, commonly recognized definition of the term does not exist. Blended courses have often been termed hybrid or mixed-mode courses. Broadly speaking, blended learning can be defined as “a wide variety of technology/media integrated with conventional, face-to-face classroom activities” (Picciano, 2009, p. 7). In a narrower sense, a definition might also include: (a) courses that integrate online with traditional face-to-face class activities in a planned, pedagogically valuable manner; and (b) a portion (institutionally defined) of face-to-face time is replaced by online activity (Laster, Otte, Picciano, & Sorg, 2005). Hinkleman and Gruba (2012) argue that the definition of blended learning should relate to the materials and spaces assigned to teachers. Whereas some courses are assigned a computer-enhanced laboratory and activities are limited to online or software-based programs, others make use of course books and f2f interactions between students and teachers. Blended learning often incorporates both of these strategies by combining online/software-based learning with f2f learning in the same course.

The idea of the “flipped” classroom might also be considered a form of blended learning. The flipped classroom has been proposed as a way to harness technology in order help students take responsibility for their learning and maximize opportunities for hands-on activities inside the classroom. For example Brunsell and Horejsi (2011) argue that by using teacher-created or other quality video podcasts to replace in-class lectures, teachers are able to use valuable class time to help their students master important concepts and understand the material. As the authors

explain, the idea of “flipping” the classroom by replacing in-class lecture time with video lectures that students can watch at home allows optimal use of in-class learning time, which increases the amount of “student-to-student and individual student-to-teacher interactions” (p. 10). By replacing teacher lectures with online videos that cover the same contents, students are able to engage with the material on their own time. Likewise, teachers have time to provide individualized support to their students, serving as mentors rather than lecturers.

Specifically for the purposes of this study, BL courses will be defined as those in which web-based learning elements replace or supplement some amount of f2f class time (Allen & Seaman, 2008). Two sections of a third-year Spanish writing and grammar course, which incorporated technology-mediated tasks both in class and for homework, will be the foci of study.

**1.1.2 Language tasks.** In the language learning arena, tasks and task-based language teaching (TBLT) have grown in popularity such that an international biennial conference exists solely for the purpose of uniting language learning professionals interested in this area (see TBLT 2013, <http://www.educ.ualberta.ca/tblt2013/>). However, the use of the term *task* is varied. Willis (1996), for example, defined *tasks* as goal-oriented processes, where learners use language to achieve some sort of outcome. In this sense communicative tasks can be problems to solve, puzzles, games, and instances for learners to share their experiences. Important to this definition of task is the idea that learners should use language to achieve some non-linguistic outcome. In this sense, traditional grammar learning, in which students solely focus on the forms or structures of language, would not classify as a task.

Not all agree, however, on this outcome-based definition of task. Despite ever-increasing popularity in the FL classroom, tasks bring about little consensus regarding their definition



(Swales, 1990). Some educators fail to make a distinction between task and activity (e.g., Coleman, 1987; Long, 1985). Others argue that while *task* is a set of differentiated, problem-posing procedures involving teachers and learners (Candlin & Murphy, 1981), an *activity* refers to a combination of theoretical, symbolic knowledge and practical understanding that comes with life experience.

Another distinction can be drawn between the real world or *real-life task* (e.g., what learners will have to do with the language outside of the classroom) and the *pedagogical task* (e.g., what students will use the language for within the classroom). According to Nunan (2001), a real-life task is “a communicative act we achieve through language in the world outside the classroom,” whereas a pedagogical task is “a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than forms” (par. 20). Drawing on the idea of task *authenticity*, communicative language teaching aims for the pedagogical task to mirror the real-world task as much as possible.

The present study will adopt a broad view of task as any methodological approach used in the Spanish 301 courses, including any and all of the types of language practice that occurred inside the classroom. Although not all the work that students engaged in could be classified as “pedagogical tasks” using a TBLT definition, this work is included and referred to as tasks in order to give a complete picture of what went on in the Spanish 301 classrooms. In this way, not only pedagogical tasks that had non-linguistic outcomes were considered tasks, but also all types of student work, including but not limited to teacher-fronted interactions in the big group, pair work tasks, and small group work. These notions will be further expanded in Chapter 2.

**1.1.3 Academic discourse.** This section clarifies the term *academic discourse* and describes several of the key terms or aspects frequently use to define it and differentiate it from everyday language. *Academic discourse*, also referred to as *academic language* (Crosson, Matsumura, Correnti & Arlotta-Guerrero, 2012), *advanced literacy* (Christie, 2002), and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency, or CALP (Cummins, 2013), relates to the forms and functions of language that are necessary for participating in various schooling contexts. It has been shown that features of academic language, in particular those of persuasive/ argumentative writing, are cognitively demanding and benefit from early classroom instruction (Crowhurst, 1990).

From the perspective of systemic functional linguistics (SFL), academic discourse in English can be identified by a set of lexical and grammatical features such as lexical density. *Lexical density* can be defined as the expression of the number of content words (nouns, adjectives, verbs, and some adverbs) as a total proportion of all words in the text (Eggs, 1994). Academic discourse is often characterized as having much in common with written language in that it is lexically dense and characterized by less congruent language, and higher instances of grammatical metaphor and nominalization.

On the other hand, spoken discourse, such as casual conversation, tends to be less formal and can be distinguished for its grammatical intricacy. *Grammatical intricacy* generally refers to how frequently a clause complex shows up in a text in comparison with simple clauses. It is usually measured as the number of main, paratactic (equal relationships between clauses, e.g., *juxtaposition*), and hypotactic (unequal relationships between clauses, e.g., *subordination*) clauses divided by the number of orthographic sentences in the text.

Vocabulary features of academic discourse can be classified as either specialized or general. Specialized, domain-specific lexis is referred to as specialized technical terminology and

those that are more generally used across a range of academic contexts pertain to general academic vocabulary. In English, connectives, such as causal and adversarial conjunctions like *because* and *although* allow for ideas to be subsumed facilitating the lexical density of a text (Halliday, 1994). Academic word lists, such as the AWL (Coxhead, 2000), are another way that academic vocabulary has been researched. These are just a few of the important aspects to consider when researching of academic language.

While descriptions of academic language have been useful in many studies on classroom discourse (cf. Christie, 2012), few studies have examined the academic language demands of tasks that occur in third-year FL courses. As bridges from the lower-level to the upper-level language sequence, it is essential that the types of language and tasks being produced and practiced in these courses both mirror the familiar (e.g., what students have been asked to do in their first- and second-year courses) as well as the anticipated (e.g., what they will be required to do in their fourth-year courses). The role of technology in paving this linguistic and methodological transition is the focus of the present work.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

As Spanish language learners transition from the lower-division courses (100- and 200-levels in most universities) into upper-level courses (400-levels), they are expected to understand and produce exceedingly difficult text types. For example, a 400-level course on the Latin American literature “Boom” of the 1960s and 70s might require students to read texts such as *Cien años de soledad* by Gabriel García Márquez. An advanced Spanish course titled “Latin America Today” might ask students to read full-length articles from Spanish language periodicals, such as the Chilean newspaper *El mercurio* ([www.emol.com](http://www.emol.com)).

Rarely in upper-level (400+) courses do students focus on “the four skills” (e.g., reading, writing, listening, and speaking) or on language as a series of linguistic patterns, as is often the case in lower-level courses. The teaching of content in the lower-division courses tends to be limited to snippets and sporadic instruction of culture and language, at best. Curricula at the lower level are generally developed under the assumption that before students can learn to write and speak, they must learn the basic building blocks of vocabulary and grammar. Despite the push to increase communicative language teaching (e.g., ACTFL, 2006), many tasks from lower-division courses still focus on decontextualized examples of language that ask students to learn linguistic “rules.” An example of such a task was presented in a pilot study for this dissertation (Gleason, 2012), in which students learned to conjugate a type of indirect Spanish command in a 200-level Spanish course. Typical comments made by students about this type of task pertained to how they were able to learn the grammar rule but still never really understood the structure’s pragmatic and contextual usage.

Rarely in upper-level courses or in the target language culture (e.g., study abroad), will students be called upon to recite their knowledge of grammar patterns. Herein lies the disjunction between what students are called upon to learn about language in the lower-division courses and what they will be called upon to do with language in their upper courses and in real-life contexts. While the connection to real-life contexts is beyond the scope of the present study, the breach between the ways in which language is presented and practiced in lower-level and upper-level courses needs further exploration. Third-year language courses, as bridges between learning about the target language at the 100- and 200-levels and learning through and in the target language at the 400+ level, are presented with a weighty challenge. How do we prepare learners, who have grown accustomed to one way of learning, to transition to a different type of

pedagogical methodology, which asks them to read and produce advanced text types? One requirement of such courses might be that they introduce learners to new textual genres and help them begin to weave together what they have learned about language patterns to form complex and purposeful texts.

There are several major challenges to this feat. One stems from the fact that not all students in the third-year language courses have the same language learning background. Many are first-year students who were placed into these courses directly out of high school. These learners tend to have a good grasp of grammar rules but less experience with texts written or spoken in particular contexts. Depending on the institution, heritage speakers may also be present in these courses. Heritage learners often have opposite strengths and challenges from monolingual FL learners in that they frequently have experience listening and speaking the language in their homes but may have no formal knowledge of language rules and little practice with written genres.

If these issues were not complicated enough, a second hurdle is technology. Not all students are versed in technology-mediated language learning. Little is known about how such learners confront such learning. Neither are all teachers versed in technology-mediated teaching. Little is known about the processes that teachers must go through to incorporate technology into third-year Spanish courses. Although blended language courses are becoming more and more common, little research has been carried out with 300-level courses, which might offer educators and researchers a grasp of whether or not the tasks that are being used are preparing different types of learners to understand and produce texts in Spanish in a variety of contexts.

This is a tall order and it is what the following study aims to address. An extensive search through the literature has revealed no research that explores the choices that the third-year

Spanish teacher must make to design an appropriate blended bridge course. Scant is known about 300-level students' reactions to these new class formats. A gap exists in the body of theoretically backed, qualitative inquiry that would help researchers and practitioners to understand and explain such processes. Specifically lacking are ethnographic studies that provide in-depth, "thick" descriptions of the contextual features involved in making a traditional 300-level Spanish course into a blended course. Also lacking is a description of the types of tasks carried out in such courses and what their role is in students' language development. Discourse analytic studies offer promise for describing the language that 300-level students produce and practice during technology-mediated tasks. Such research will provide more information about the role of technology in students' language learning.

A more complete picture of the choices made about 300-level blended Spanish course design and their role in academic language development is greatly needed. By delving deeper into the discourse that students and teachers use to carry out different blended learning tasks, researchers can learn more about how teachers and students may be able to use technology to learn Spanish at the third-year level, and in particular to learn how to write. From the researcher's standpoint, such an analysis must take into account the unique contexts in which oral and written texts are produced in order to come to a sound understanding of how different students learn to make meaning with language. This must also include an examination of participants' ideas and attitudes about technology-mediated language learning in order to offer reasonable implications about what types of tasks, technology-mediated and otherwise, are most amenable to developing students' academic Spanish. Ideally, this information will provide a roadmap for 300-level blended Spanish course development and the role of tasks and technology in such courses.

### **1.3 Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of the proposed dissertation is threefold. First, using grounded ethnographic analysis, I look at the role of technology in blended 300-level Spanish writing courses by examining the teacher and students' attitudes and beliefs about technology as it is implemented during blended language tasks. Here, I focus on how an ethnographic collaboration between a teacher and me, an applied linguist, enabled me to follow how participants engaged with third-year Spanish bridge courses, in particular courses that were in the process of becoming more technology mediated.

Second, I address a dearth of literature on 300-level blended Spanish learning by presenting a theoretically backed examination of the types of tasks, technology-mediated and otherwise, that were carried out in two such classrooms. To do this, I drew on the field of systemic functional linguistics (SFL) to offer theoretically anchored insight into how different types of language learning tasks in third-year blended Spanish courses—and the language that users drew on to enact these tasks—could best be understood and explained. At the end, I present a curricular model for third-year language courses, including the types of tasks and technologies that such courses might well include.

Third, the comparative analysis of different task types builds on the findings of an earlier pilot study (Gleason, 2012), increasing the confirmability and validity of the research. This amplified scope enabled superior conclusions to be drawn about the development of students' academic Spanish discourse during technology-infused Spanish courses, particularly those that formed a bridge from lower-division language- to upper-division content-courses. This process can further inform the field regarding the applicability of SFL discourse analyses of classroom language.

## **1.4 Significance of the Study**

This study aims to contribute to the fields of blended language learning, specifically as it is applied to Spanish language learners. As perhaps the first study of its kind, it will present an in-depth analysis of the different types of tasks that a teacher used as learning tools within two technology-enhanced 300-level Spanish classrooms and the types of language that participants used to enact these tasks. This study also presents an example of how SFL can be harnessed and directly applied to BL learning and teaching, effectively drawing on theory development by grounding it in the classroom practices of Spanish language learners. The dissertation employs a grounded, ethnographic, multiple-case-study approach to better understand the tasks carried out in 300-level Spanish courses. Capitalizing on a close-knit partnership between a language teacher and an applied linguist researcher, it examines the choices that were made when designing these courses and the impact of these decisions on the types of tasks and technologies that were used. Using a “thick description” (Geertz, 1973) and two SFL-based frameworks, this project supplies a clear interpretation and explanation of the tasks—and stakeholders’ theories and attitudes about these tasks—within 300-level blended Spanish courses. It draws practical and theoretical implications by illustrating how the students of a third-year Spanish language course and their teacher used technology during language learning tasks to better learn about and construct academic registers.

## **1.5 Theoretical Background**

Due to the fact that a researcher’s theoretical orientation in part determines his or her worldview, the following section will be devoted to summarizing and explaining several important theoretical positions that have influenced and in part determined the types of research



that have been conducted in the fields of linguistics, language learning, language learning with technology, and the social sciences.

**1.5.1 Theories of language.** There are two major theoretical orientations in the field of linguistics: the structuralist and the functionalist paradigms. Each takes a different view of the nature and ways in which humans use language. These main differences can be observed in Table 1.1, as adapted from Derewianka (2001).

Table 1.1

*Assumptions of Functional and Structuralist Approaches to Language*

<b>Functional Language</b>	<b>Structuralist Language</b>
Discourse	Sentence and below
Functions of language and how they evolve in our culture to enable us to do things	Form and structure of language
How discourse varies with context	General description of language
Language as a resource for meaning making	Language as a set of rules
Language learning as extending resources for making meaning in context	Language learning as the acquisition of correct forms; form unrelated to meaning
Evaluate discourse as making meaning with resources in context	Evaluate correctness. Judge meaning independently from form

While structuralism views language as a set of rules that must be followed at the sentence level and below, functionalism takes a complete text as the unit of analysis, focusing on language in context. Although individual clauses or smaller units of language can be highlighted, a functional view posits that smaller units must be appreciated for their relationship to other units within the text (co-text) as well as to the text as a whole (context). While the structuralist paradigm tends to focus on grammatical rules and structure, functionalism sees language as an expansive system of

interconnecting systems that users can manipulate in order to convey meanings and achieve specific goals.

The structuralist tradition of language and linguistics is best embodied by Chomskian generative grammar, which conceives of language as a set of universal rules that human beings use in order to create and understand novel sentences. By foregrounding the form and structure of language, generativists uphold that language consists of a limited set of linguistic patterns. Knowing a particular language entails knowing how to manipulate patterns correctly. The focus is on the linguistic forms. This view has been described as viewing language as a conduit through which meaning is poured.

Systemic functional linguists contend that language is more than a conduit of meanings, but rather exists as an extensive system that different cultures use differently to enact various functions. From this view, language serves to enable human beings to do things and varies depending on the different situational and cultural contexts in which language is used. Because SFL draws on the belief that language is intimately connected to the social purposes in which it is used, human texts must always be interpreted within their contexts. A text's context always plays a major role in its creation.

**1.5.2 Theories of language learning.** Due to its predominant place during the early part of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, much of the research on language learning, especially in the US, has been conducted from a structuralist standpoint. Pedagogical practices in the US, both in L1 and L2 teaching, have been highly influenced by Chomskian views of language, which have targeted the manipulation and internalization of correct linguistic forms. Language development, in this sense, is rule-governed and needs to some extent be memorized. Grammatical structures are targeted for instruction and uptake by learners.

Behaviorism was another influential paradigm of the 20<sup>th</sup> Century. Educational practices influenced by behaviorism prioritized students' adoption of particular concepts or content.

Behavioral psychologists, such as Pavlov (1927) and Skinner (1938), saw behavior as objectively measurable, where learning involved being conditioned to respond in particular ways.

During the latter half of the 20<sup>th</sup> Century, a third paradigm emerged and grew in popularity (Brown, 2006). Constructivists, or social constructivists, viewed learners as more than being conditioned to respond to certain stimuli based on positive or negative reinforcement, as previously believed. From a constructivist standpoint, learners are creative agents of knowing, seeing, understanding, and valuing. This led to more dynamic views of language learning and teaching, where students' previous knowledge and experiences play significant roles in their learning. Language, to social constructivists, is socially created and emerges out of an individual's interactions with his or her environment.

Two key theorists in the social constructivist revolution were Vygotsky (1968) and Bhaktin (1981), who argued the importance of social context and cultural artifacts to mediating learning and development. Vygotsky, a Russian psychologist and philosopher, introduced the concepts of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), cultural mediation, and internal speech. Bhaktin claimed that all discourse and thought is a dialogic exchange and heteroglossic. In this sense, all texts are heteroglossic in that everything ever written or said exists in response to or in anticipation of other speech acts. In the field of L2 learning, social constructivist ideas have been adopted by researchers, such as Lantolf and Thorne (2006), to examine to what extent L2 learners are able to use their language to mediate their mental activity. In language learning and teaching, the ZPD and scaffolding have been used for the creation of ideal learning conditions (Brooks & Donato, 1994).

**1.5.3 Theories of computer-assisted language learning (CALL).** According to Levy (1997), computer-assisted language learning (CALL) is “the search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning” (p. 1). Warschauer and Healey (1998) and Warschauer (2000) identified three historical phases of CALL, including the behavioristic/structuralist tendencies of the 1950s, 60s and 70s, followed by communicative CALL in the 1980s, to the integrative tendencies of the 1990s onward. While CALL in the 1960s was mostly used for traditional drill and practice programs, the communicative approach in CALL that became popular in the 1980s coincided with the arrival of the personal computer and focused on using the language rather than studying the language itself as a unit of analysis. The third phase of CALL witnessed the integration of the communicative approach with language skills and tasks. This period was characterized by an increasing number of studies on computer-mediated communication (CMC). Greatly facilitated by Web 2.0, CMC can be either synchronous (i.e., real-time communication, such as online chat or video conferencing) or asynchronous (i.e., delayed communication, such as email or electronic discussion forums). Transition to the third phase of CALL was shaped by the use of the computer for user-centered tasks outside the classroom and continues to characterize much of the BL learning today.

Different theories of language and learning have shaped research in the field of CALL. According to Zuengler and Miller (2006), second language acquisition (SLA) research has mostly been conducted from a cognitive point of view, which draws on structuralist and behaviorist traditions. Cognitive studies fall within the traditional paradigm of language, beginning with Chomsky’s work in the 1950s and 60s on L1 acquisition and characterizing the studies of the 1990s studies devoted to the role of interaction in language development (Gass, 1995; Long, 1991; Pica, 1994). Much of the interactionalist work in these areas has envisioned

language learning as a source of comprehensible input, negotiation of meaning, and comprehensible output (Swain, 1985). The focus of many interactionalist studies still tends to be on the forms of the language, especially during communication breakdowns, to facilitate the acquisition of target language forms or structures (Chapelle, 2001).

It was the hope that research in CALL from a structuralist or interactionalist viewpoint would shed light on the optimal classroom conditions for L2 learning. However, there were gaps left by studies in this tradition. By focusing on the cognitive processes that occurred during language learning tasks, Luo (2005) points out the weaknesses of research carried out within interactionalist paradigm, such as (a) the lack of attention to the meaning or “message” of discourse, (b) the lack of attention to the development of academic language, where language is used as a medium for learning other subject matter, (c) an overemphasis on formal rather than functional recasts as opportunities for language amendment, and (d) the psycholinguistic view that students involved in language learning tasks are subjects for experimental analysis, where tasks and task-takers are abstracted from their sociocultural contexts.

Sharwood Smith (1991) states that whereas the “cake” of SLA research is cognitive, the “icing” is the social. Research conducted in CALL from constructivist or sociocultural perspectives of language learning takes into account the distinctive realities that participants experience when carrying out the same task (Lantolf & Appel, 1994). Coughlan and Duff (1994), for example, argued that interactionalist researchers wrongly assume that the variables of a task can be manipulated to remain constant, showing that data considered fixed can be interpreted in a variety of ways. This illustrates the importance of examining the broader social contexts related to classroom tasks as well as stakeholders’ beliefs, attitudes, and language.

**1.5.4 Theories of social science research.** Researchers in the social sciences use theory differently to determine what methods and methodologies are most appropriate for a given study. *Methods* are referred to as a series of strategies we use to associate abstract theories with actual events. *Methodologies*, on the other hand, are the overarching schemes that organize such methods and also include the means by which we analyze gathered data. The methodologies that researchers use to guide their methods and analysis will depend on their overarching research epistemologies, aims, and questions. While *deductive* methodological approaches begin with a theory in order to test hypotheses, *inductive* approaches entail a thorough examination of a given context in order to eventually develop a theory. Deductive theorists may commit to a theory before actually gathering data, which is subsequently used as evidence to either support or refute their chosen theory. Contrastingly, inductive researchers develop theories throughout their research process, oftentimes discovering “middle theories” as they emerge. In this way, the data set itself becomes the rationale for developing and refining both future methodologies and theories, which are used in order to more precisely understand what is going on in a closely observed empirical world.

*Epistemology* is the study of what distinguishes truth from opinion (Alford, 1998). In other words, it comprises the beliefs we have about different knowledge systems. Alford describes three of these knowledge systems as “worldviews” or “paradigms of inquiry” that social scientists use to make theoretical claims and empirical generalizations. He labels these the *historical*, *multivariate*, and *interpretative* paradigms, arguing that although one may be at the foreground of any argument, the others exist implicitly. Each is based on an epistemological assumption about what theory and evidence entail. *Historical* arguments draw on a mixture of historical artifacts, texts, and documents from the past in order to make conjectures about

sequences of a series of contingent events. Such arguments constitute a distinctive paradigm only in the field of history and thus will not be considered in detail here.

*Multivariate* paradigm gives rise to *positivist/postpositivist* positions, which often presuppose a quantitative and/or experimental research design. Positivist ontological assumptions portray the world as definitively knowable, presume that a sole underlying reality exists, and claim that the data researchers collect can be used as direct evidence to either support or refute a given theory (Sprague, 2005). The difference between the positivists and the postpositivists is that while the former believe that researchers are able to uncover truth and reality, or the facts and principles that account for such truths, the latter maintain that the researcher cannot uncover such principles, but rather only eliminate competing theories (Mertens, 1998). Both agree; however, that one truth or underlying reality exists.

The *interpretive* paradigm, which engenders social constructivist positions, rejects knowledge as objectively knowable, and instead sees reality as multiple, fragmented, and socially constructed through the day-to-day interactions in which people create and negotiate meaning. Social constructivists often use qualitative research designs, ethnographic or observational methods, and in-depth participant interviews. Since they assume that language constructs the social world in which we live, researchers working from this view uphold that people impart and negotiate cultural meanings depending on their own identities, as influenced by their unique personal experiences and social contexts. Social constructivists, in contrast to (post)positivists, attempt to describe, interpret, or offer explanations for social phenomena within their natural contexts. Rather than aiming to prove or refute apriori hypotheses, these researchers use overarching questions to guide the research process and construct theories as they emerge from observed data.

Interpretive research in general refers to qualitative studies that take a semiotic approach. Interpretive researchers make an effort to understand and explain the contexts of the human social world, both historically and culturally, as well to include participants' diverse interpretations, perspectives, and reflections (Gibbons, 2003a; Mohan & Lee, 2006). Interpretive research values the inclusion of a researcher's self-reflection on her activities throughout the research process. From this view, SFL research on L2 acquisition takes an interpretive view of language based on the functions that it serves in peoples' lives. Language is seen as a resource for making meaning, where discourse is interpreted in relation to its contexts and cultures. Research in SFL thus, parallels a language socialization view of learning with a learner who is learning language, through language, and about language.

**1.5.5 Situating the present study.** Interpretive studies that unite ethnography, SFL, and academic discourse development aim to discover and describe the ways that students can learn to more effectively manipulate their linguistic resources in order to make meaning with language. The major paradigm of the present work aligns most closely with the interpretive and social constructivist viewpoints. Data collection involved ethnographic methods and interactions with participants within and surrounding their classroom contexts in order to shed light upon the overarching questions about third-year Spanish courses and the tasks and technology that were used therein.

Discourse analysis focused on how participants used language to make meaning in BL learning contexts. By drawing on analytic tools developed through a SFL lens, understanding and interpreting the theories, practices, and attitudes of participants was the primary focus. Such tools guided data collection and analysis in order to help uncover how the integrants of two third-year Spanish courses used their linguistic resources to represent their experiences. Important



overarching questions for the present study were: (a) what role did technology—and students’ and teachers’ attitudes about technology—play in teaching and learning in third-year FL courses? (b) What tasks were used in third-year FL courses and how did students and teachers perceive of these as learning tools? Lastly, (c) how was academic language developed during BL tasks in third-year courses? As new options for online modes have emerged for both synchronous and asynchronous computer-mediated communication, responding to questions such as these became highly complex.

The dissertation addressed the above questions using a qualitative, multiple-case study design, which drew on an interpretive/social constructivist paradigm. Each of the two cases of study was a classroom, an example of the larger social practice of third-year Spanish learning and teaching. This social practice had embedded within it numerous pedagogical tasks, which were uncovered as the project unfolded by focusing on the methodological processes that the teacher used as learning tools within these contexts. At the classroom level, the tasks (technology-enhanced and otherwise) were examined by honing in on the discourse that participants used. Chapter 3 describes the series of steps and mechanisms, specifically drawing on grounded ethnographic methods and SFL discourse analysis to illuminate these classrooms and the participants that carried out the social practices therein.

## **1.6 Overview of the Dissertation**

Chapter 1 has described the topic of the dissertation, provided crucial terminology as defined within the present work, and stated the problem, purpose, and significance of the study. It has also situated this project within the multitude of theoretical orientations of language, language learning, CALL, and the social sciences. Chapter 2 will review the relevant work that has been conducted to date on BL courses, tasks and technology, blended writing development,

and SFL. Chapter 3 will describe the design of the study, the research and data collection procedures, and the tools and frameworks of data analysis. Chapter 4 will present the results of the study, including a thick description of three prototypical lessons, the patterns of topics and tasks, infusion of technology, types of feedback done, and how learning occurred. Finally, Chapter 5 will explicitly answer the overarching research questions presented above, discuss the significance of these findings in relation to earlier work, and draw conclusions, implications, and directions for future inquiry.

## **CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.0 An Overview of the Chapter**

Chapter 1 noted the lack of theoretically backed ethnographic research that has been conducted on third-year Spanish courses. As bridges between the lower-division language courses and the upper-division content courses, these courses and the technology, tasks, and language therein are of great consequence. This chapter will continue this line of argument in Section 2.1 by providing an overview of the literature on blended course development. Section 2.2 will hone in on the research that has focused on tasks and technology, both from the view of computer-mediated communication as well as computer assisted task-based language teaching. Section 2.3 will present the research that has been carried out on blended writing development, both in the first and second (and foreign) languages. Section 2.4 will review the related research that has used SFL, specifically focusing on that which has harnessed ideational meanings, interpersonal meanings, a genre approach, and a register approach. Section 2.5 will summarize the chapter and review the overarching questions that guided the dissertation.

### **2.1 Blended Language Course Development**

As blended language (BL) course developers are well aware, there is nothing simple about BL learning. While technology progresses and new courses are introduced, the question of whether or not to use technology in the BL classroom is not nearly as important as how. As fewer and fewer language courses remain technology-free, detailed depictions of how BL learning has been developed and implemented are needed.

**2.2.1 Comparisons of blended to traditional learning.** Much of the research on BL learning has sought to ensure that technology-mediated courses are comparable to and prepare learners as adequately as technology-absent ones. Many if not most of these studies have been devoted to

quantitatively comparing various aspects of traditional, blended, and online language courses (e.g., Blake, Wilson, Cetto & Pardo-Ballester, 2008; Chenowith, Ushida, & Murday, 2006; Echavez-Solano, 2003; Murday, Ushida, & Chenoweth, 2008; Scida & Saury, 2006).

In a primarily quantitative study involving 160 undergraduates at a large US university, Echavez-Solano (2003) compared student performance, motivation, aptitude, and proficiency in traditional and blended sections of introductory Spanish. The findings showed that there were no statistically significant differences in performance or affective factors between both groups. Listening and oral proficiency both remained comparable. Using questionnaires and focus groups, Echavez-Solano claimed that none of the measures, including performance and affective variables such as motivation, anxiety, and familiarity with computers, could predict success in blended courses.

In another comparison study, Blake et al. (2008) specifically investigated the development of oral proficiency as measured by the Versant-for-Spanish test in traditional, blended, and distance courses. The fully online course used a detective story DVD, content-based web readings, Flash activities, and a collaborative CMC tool for synchronous and asynchronous textual communication and voice-over internet protocol (VoIP) sound exchange. The blended course used the same protocol in addition to three weekly f2f meetings and synchronous dialogues in Adobe Breeze. Students from the traditional courses met in class five days a week and used a traditional paper textbook. Findings from this study supported Echavez-Solano (2003), showing that distance and blended students were not disadvantaged in terms of oral proficiency development in comparison to their traditional counterparts.

Murday et al. (2008) and Chenoweth et al. (2006) also compared blended and traditional courses in their study of Spanish and French classrooms. Citing decreased interaction as one of

the major drawbacks of online courses in general, the blended courses they studied reportedly circumvented this problem by providing increased teacher support to help students stay focused. Specifically, their blended courses met f2f for approximately 1.5 hours per week, students participated in an online chat, and all other course materials were provided online. Traditional courses met three days per week for 50 minutes. Results showed that the students from the blended courses demonstrated an increase in satisfaction over time. The reduced schedule afforded by these courses and the problems surrounding the web-based technology implemented were two setbacks. Interestingly, despite similar class sizes, teachers from the blended courses felt they got to know their students better.

Many argue that there is a strong need for more qualitative research on online and BL learning. Qualitative studies have provided detailed depictions of various aspects of the BL classroom, including design implementation (Bañados, 2006; Neumeier, 2005), teaching assistant perceptions (Zapata, 2002), student attitudes and motivation (Murday et al., 2008; Ushida, 2005), learners' reasons for dropping out (Stracke, 2007), learner autonomy (Murray, 1999) and learner performance (Chenoweth, et al., 2006; Echavez-Solano, 2003; Larson & Sung, 2009). Ethnographic research in particular holds the potential to paint a vivid and complete picture of such classrooms, elaborating on how the different contextual facets of a course interrelate and play a role in language development. Burstson (2003) specifically calls for more ethnographic research to provide details of the learning environment, such as teacher and student beliefs about their roles, relationships, and interactions.

**2.2.2 Blended language learning models.** Models for BL course development are still very much in their infancy. Researchers using the Technology Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK) model (Mishra & Koehler, 2006), for example, argue that technology is not something

that should be integrated for the sole purpose of using technology; rather, it needs to be integrated specifically with a teacher's curricular objectives in mind. Many studies that use established theories as rationales for their design choices are pioneering in the field and could benefit from additional research to corroborate their findings. The following section will describe several of the studies that have been carried out on BL course design in order to examine the commonalities and affordances of each.

Wold (2011) put forth a model for instructional design as it pertained to blended learning courses for learning English. The 'structure, environment, experience, and people' (SEEP) model took into account four main tenets of optimal learning, drawing on several theories including cognitive load, activity theory, sociocultural theory, and transactional distance theory. The author noted the challenging nature of learning to write academically online and the need for effective strategies to help language learners. Offering several recommendations for applying the SEEP model, she mentioned the importance of (a) providing an initial face-to-face meeting with students to explain the course objectives (b) devising instances for students to discuss their experiences with peers, (c) giving students examples of past papers, and (d) providing immediate and constant instructor feedback on students' work.

To uncover the psychological and attitudinal makeup of students who decided to take blended or traditional language courses, Stracke (2007) used an emergent blended model to follow three students who decided to drop a blended Spanish class, identifying their three motives for doing so. Specifically, there was (a) a perceived lack of support and connection or coordination between the f2f and computer-assisted portions of the class, (b) dissatisfaction with the lack of print materials for the reading and writing components of the course, and (c) rejection of the computer as a medium for language learning.

Neumeier (2005) argued that the most important research objective is to encounter the most effective mixture of f2f and online modes given the particular students, contexts, and aims. To begin to tackle the weighty task of finding the most effective and efficient blend, she offered a six-parameter framework for describing and conceptualizing a BL environment for language learning and teaching. Although the author made no claims regarding the ideal number of sub-modes (e.g., chat, online discussion forums, wikis) for successful BL learning, the framework offers guidance for course developers seeking to conceptualize a BL environment.

Grgurović (2010) used two theoretical models to investigate a technology-enhanced learning module in a blended ESL course. Drawing on Diffusion of Innovations theory and the Curricular Innovation model, the author showed that teachers passed through the first four stages of an innovation-design process, and that teachers and students had positive attitudes toward the process.

Noting the lack of a specific instructional theory to apply instruction in blended courses, Liu (2003) chose instructional design theory (IDT) to develop and evaluate a TEFL course in Taiwan. The two major elements of IDT that she drew upon included ‘methods’ and ‘situations’. The former pertained to facilitating human learning and development and the latter to the appropriate conditions or outcomes. Intending to develop a new theory for teaching EFL in a blended course, a main claim of this dissertation was that the model was appropriate for teaching freshman English in Taiwan.

Very much in line with the present study, Kraemer (2008) examined the implementation of several blended language learning modules into an upper-level German literature course, arguing that technology could be used to continue to focus on language features in the upper-level courses which otherwise largely ignored language. Using questionnaires, textual artifacts,

and one end-of-semester interview, the author assessed students' opinions of blended tasks for learning. Although no theoretical framework was used to help interpret the data, findings indicated that students preferred BL learning for enhancing both content and language learning.

The previous studies have offered examples of how different models might be used to inform BL course development in different contexts. Indeed, “design problems, such as creating a blended environment, are highly context dependent, with an almost infinite number of possible solutions” (Graham & Dziuban, 2008, p. 274). However, to understand how such models “can contribute towards developing the most appropriate [BL] design for certain contexts of use” (Neumeier, 2005, p. 164), the language that students and teachers use to carry out tasks in technology-imbued courses must be addressed. A first step toward identifying and typifying potential issues is to examine how different technology-based tasks require students to use language differently. Discourse analyses of the language that students from such courses are using to carry out technology-mediated tasks offer a better understanding of how the unique aspects of different courses contrast and how students' academic language development differs in online registers. This can offer insight into the compensations, advantages, and setbacks faced by stakeholders in these courses. Kraemer (2008) has direct applications not only for third-year language courses in and of themselves, but also for lower-division and upper-division Spanish courses. Building on this study, which aimed to integrate language-and-content units at the upper level by using technology, the present dissertation seeks to show how technology-infused tasks in 300-level language course can help students make the transition from lower-level to upper-level language learning.



## 2.2 Tasks and Technology

As mentioned in Chapter 1, there is a lack of the consensus in the field of language learning as to a precise definition of ‘task’. While some researchers see tasks as being synonymous with the procedures that students carry out in the classroom, others, specifically those in the area of communicative language teaching (CLT) and TBLT, see them as specific, goal-oriented processes for carrying out outcome-based sequential acts. The following sections will elaborate on the idea of ‘task’, specifically looking at task classifications, computer-mediated tasks, and computer-assisted TBLT.

**2.2.1 Task classifications.** In his book on TBLT, Nunan (2004) defines a pedagogical task as a classroom procedure that “involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing, or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning, and in which the intention is to convey meaning rather than to manipulate form (p. 4). Research in this vein (cf. Ellis, 2010; Long, 1985, 1991; Nunan, 2001, 2004; Skehan, 1998; Willis, 1996) has grown from CLT, including tasks such as the (one-way and two-way) information gap, the reasoning gap, and the opinion gap. In their typology of communication tasks, Pica, Kanagy, and Faladoun (1993) outlined five task-types that can be used for L2 instruction and research. These included the jigsaw, info gap, problem-solving, decision-making, and opinion exchange tasks. An outline of these tasks and their goals can be seen in Table 2.1. The authors concluded that only jigsaw and info-gap tasks required actual interaction between students. In problem solving, decision-making, and opinion-exchange tasks, one student may end up making an unequal contribution to the interaction, leading the authors to conclude that the first two types of task are superior for promoting similar student-to-student involvement. Commonly practiced in communicative classrooms in lower-level language

courses, this type of language learning may differ significantly from that which tends to occur at the upper levels of language study. Advanced language classrooms, for example, may tend to use primarily content-based learning tasks, such as those carried out in literature and other content courses in the L1.

As all of the tasks in the Pica et al. (1993) typology occur between or among students, such as pair- or small-group work, the question remains as to how to classify the other types of work in the language classroom. Nunan (2001) provides a task classification that draws on the idea of different types of student work. As shown in Table 2.2, 'pedagogical tasks' might align most closely with a TBLT definition of task, where there is a problem-posing interaction and students work primarily toward some non-linguistic outcome. Other types of student work include rehearsal tasks, activation tasks, enabling skills, language exercises, and communication activities. While Nunan's classification describes the nature and goals of the tasks, the patterns of interaction (e.g., student-to-student, student-to-teacher) that these tasks might take remain unclear. It holds the while 'pedagogical tasks' may encompass all of the communicative tasks as described by Pica et al. (1993), others such as the 'enabling skills' might also involve the teacher. The interactional patterns of tasks are important aspects to include in any task typology as they offer teachers methodological suggestions about how to best implement these tasks in their classrooms.

Table 2.1

*A Typology of Communication Tasks, Adapted From Pica, et al. (1993)*

<b>Task Type</b>	<b>Who Has the Information? In What Direction/s Does Information Flow?</b>	<b>Goals/Outcomes?</b>	<b>Required interaction?</b>
<b>Jigsaw</b>	Both students have different pieces of information. Each student lacks some information that the other person possesses. Both must cooperate to reach a goal (obtain their partner's information).	Students must cooperate to achieve one possible outcome.	Yes.
<b>Information Gap</b>	Student A has the information that Student B lacks. Student B must request the information and Student A must provide the information. The information flows from Student A to Student B.	Students must cooperate to achieve one possible outcome.	Yes.
<b>Problem Solving</b>	Both students have access to the same information about the task but work together to resolve a problem.	Students must cooperate to achieve one possible outcome.	No.
<b>Decision Making</b>	Both students have access to the same information about the task but work together to make one or more decisions.	Students must decide one or more different outcomes.	No.
<b>Opinion Exchange</b>	Both students have access to the same information about the task but share their own views in order to exchange opinions.	Students don't converge on an outcome. There may be none, one, or more than one outcome.	No.

Table 2.2

*Types of Language Practice, Adapted From Nunan (2001)*

<b>Practice Type</b>	<b>Description</b>
Real world or target task	A communicative act we achieve through language in the real world outside the classroom
Pedagogical task	Classroom work involving learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing, or interacting in the language; attention is paid primarily to meaning rather than forms; outcome is nonlinguistic
Rehearsal task	Classroom work in which learners rehearse a communicative act they will carry out outside of class
Activation task	Classroom work involving communicative interaction, but not one that entails rehearsing for out-of-class communication, designed instead to activate the acquisition process
Enabling skills	Mastery of language systems, such as grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary which permit (or “enable”) learners to carry out communicative tasks
Language exercise	Classroom work focusing on a specific aspect of the linguistic system, such as grammar practice
Communication activity	Classroom work focusing on a particular linguistic feature but also involving a genuine exchange of meaning, such as true communication

Although the definitions of task vary among researchers, as suggested in Chapter 1, the present study will draw on a broad view of a task as “a set of differentiated, problem-posing procedures involving teachers and learners” (Candlin & Murphy, 1987). One study of seminal importance will be that conducted by Brooks and Donato (1994), who viewed tasks from a Vygotskian perspective. These authors argued that interactionist theory and methodology, which tend to count aspects such as clarification requests and uses statistical analyses to explain learners’ interactions, ignore the very language and activity of the learners that researchers are

most interested in. The findings of their study suggested that only a small percentage of speech activity in the language classroom involved encoding and decoding the L2, whereas a fairly large quantity of interaction was spent on other activities, such as: (a) undergoing metatalk to sustain and initiate subsequent discourse, (b) talking about the task in order to understand its procedures, and (c) speaking in order to externalize task objectives.

Similarly, Duff and Coughlan (1994) showed how one picture-comparison task essentially resulted in five different ‘activities’ when realized by five different language learners. Small, yet important differences among these activities included learners’ perception of and orientation to the task conditions. Given their different outcomes, the authors concluded that it was not possible to describe the linguistic characteristics of the learner independent from the task itself. Despite the supposed controlled nature of a ‘task’ as it is understood in experimental contexts, the authors argued that a task should not be treated as a constant in language acquisition research as the multiple *activities* that result from a single task will be unique. The following section examines the literature that has been carried out on technology and language learning tasks, specifically addressing those studies that use synchronous and asynchronous computer-mediated communication and computer assisted task-based language teaching.

**2.2.2 Computer-mediated communication tasks.** With the introduction of emerging technologies into the L2 classroom, language teachers are concerned with how best to implement technology in order that tasks will have the most positive impact on student language learning (Levy & Stockwell, 2006). Computer-mediated communication (CMC) can be defined as any communicative transaction that students carry out with the assistance of two or more electronic devices. Computer-mediated communication tasks have been particularly relevant for language

learning contexts because they provide learners with opportunities to practice their language abilities (Abrams, 2006).

Synchronous or real-time CMC tools, such as Adobe Connect and Skype, provide opportunities for real-time interaction and negotiation of meaning (Lomicka, Lord, & Manzer, 2003). Asynchronous CMC tools for language learning, such as electronic discussion forums and blogs, offer the advantage of being able to return to one's work for further reflection (Sun, 2009). The research on synchronous and asynchronous CMC is vast. Many of these studies investigate CMC using SLA principles such as negotiation of form and meaning, comprehensible input, formal recasts, output, and attention to feedback. According to Collentine (2009), a significant amount of research has sought to understand how and whether or not students acquire language during CMC tasks. Focusing specifically on synchronous electronic interaction, Lee (2002) showed that CMC aided communication when tasks were more open-ended and less controlled. Others have proposed alternative theoretical models for envisioning CMC tasks. Hampel (2006), for example, discussed a framework for developing synchronous CMC using alternative theories such as sociocultural, constructivist, multimodality, and new literacies. This MA thesis focused on a number of aspects including student-student and student-tutor interaction, feedback, use of multimodal tools, and differences between face-to-face and online teaching.

**2.2.3 Computer assisted task-based language teaching.** Communicative, fluency-focused approaches to teaching with technology are at the forefront of research in the field. As mentioned, TBLT principles proffer a specific definition of task including (a) a focus on meaning, (b) opportunities for learners to create their own meanings rather than regurgitate information, (c) a relationship between the pedagogical and the real-world activity, (d) a priority toward task completion and (e) an assessment of task in terms of its outcome (Skehan, 1998).

Definitions of task from a computer-assisted task-based language teaching (CATBLT) perspective share certain commonalities, and the literature in the field continues to expand. Although the majority of research still deals with f2f classrooms, there have been recent attempts to fill the dearth of research in TBLT and CALL. The research that has applied TBLT perspectives to create technology-based tasks includes a study by González-Lloret (2003), who focused on the development of effective CALL teaching materials that were in line with current task-based pedagogical approaches. In particular, she described a CALL task using interactionist principles. The web-based “En busca de esmeraldas” program was designed in order to foster communication, negotiation, and classroom implementation. Analysis used the principles of negotiation of meaning and the researcher’s findings supported the claim that negotiation facilitates the comprehension process.

An edited volume on TBLT and CALL adds to the research on CATBLT (Thomas & Reinders, 2010). Ellis (2010), for example, asserts not only that there is relatively little published about TBLT in technology-mediated contexts, but that the majority of work has been conducted from an interactionist standpoint. Although there has been some work on TBLT from a sociocultural perspective, this is relatively sparse. In one of these studies, Thorne and Black (2007) described several different ways that internet communication tools, web environments, and online gaming could be used in L2 learning situations focusing on three computer-mediation configurations. As mentioned in Chapter 1, sociocultural research differentiates between ‘task’ and ‘activity’. While tasks serve as artifacts that can mediate language learning through interaction, activities ensue from the performances of speakers who used the task toward some sought outcome.

In a recent edited volume on task-based practices, two chapters explored issues of how best to integrate technology-based tasks into an EFL curriculum (Shehadeh & Coombe, 2012). Focusing on writing tasks, Park (2012) compared two grade 7 classrooms in Korea, one that adopted CATBLT and another a traditional grammar-based syllabus. Results of this study showed that not only did CATBLT students outperform traditional ones on task-based assessments but also performed equally on traditional tests. In another chapter, Chacón (2012) focused on the Venezuelan context, illustrating how film-based projects can be used to train student teachers. Results reported increased collaboration, autonomy, and fluency among teachers in training.

Regardless of the philosophical lens through which tasks are theorized, the way in which classroom language practices linguistically to help students mobilize their lexicogrammatical resources during technology-mediated processes is cause for future research. As Ellis (2010) asserts,

We cannot assume that tasks work the same way in f2f classrooms and in technology-mediated environments. Nor can we assume that they work in the same way in the highly varied environments that technology now affords. Given the current advocacy of TBLT and the increasing use of technology in language teaching it is important that we develop a fuller understanding of how to design tasks for use with different technologies and how to best implement them in ways that will foster language learning. (p. xviii)

Given the importance of understanding what makes technology-based or traditional classroom tasks successful, a fine-grained discourse analysis of the language that students and teachers use to enact these tasks is greatly needed. By understanding the nature of the language that is



produced and practiced during different types of language learning, educators can come to a better understanding of how tasks work to facilitate language development.

### **2.3 Blended Writing Development**

Blended writing development is a key component in third-year bridge courses, as they tend to focus on writing to prepare students for upper-level coursework. Over the past three decades, there has been a proliferation of research pertaining to how technology can best be harnessed to develop online and blended writing courses. In pondering the inevitable incorporation of technology into composition education, Gouge (2009) asserts, “we need to reflect what our current practices and choices to use or not to use specific technologies suggest about what we value in the classroom” (p. 343). To this end, the author cites ten principles taken from Taylor (2009) to help teachers negotiate instructional technology, where the first three state: (a) keep people first, (b) identify and build from program principles, and (c) start simple.

In particular, there has been an abundance of research on computer-assisted classroom discussion, email exchanges, and web-based writing (Matsuda, Canagarajah, Harklau, Hyland, and Warschauer, 2003). Studies in second and foreign language writing have been influenced by those carried out on L1 writing, undoubtedly resulting from the large body of inquiry that exists on blended research writing and academic writing in the L1.

**2.3.1 Writing in the first language.** Over two decades ago, studies in L1 writing were already examining the differences between online and f2f writing courses. In a comparison study, Mehlenbacher, Miller, Covington, and Larsen (1999) examined three writing courses, two of them web-based and another conventional f2f. Although they found that no significant differences existed in terms of student performance outcomes, they cited several intriguing relationships between students’ previous knowledge, attitudes, and learning styles in the online

writing environment. Using pre- and post-surveys that elicited information about attitudes, computer anxiety, writing apprehension, and learning styles, students were classified into different groups. Using quantitative measures, results produced high correlations between certain types of learners and their success in the web-based courses. Specifically, the authors honed in on one of the differences, namely that what they referred to as “reflective, global learners” had much better results in online environments than what they called “active, sequential learners.” The authors also cited the difficulty of comparing online and f2f environments using surveys due to the complex web of interrelating factors present in two different instructional domains.

Over time, further emphasis has been placed on ‘process writing’, in which the focus of students’ efforts is the writing method rather than its product. Before technology had such an integral role in writing classrooms, Pearson and Gallagher (1983) laid out the major differences between traditional writing classrooms and process-writing classrooms, as seen in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3

*Traditional and Process Writing, Adapted from Pearson and Gallagher (1983, pp. 155-156)*

<b>Traditional Writing Classrooms</b>	<b>Process Writing Classrooms</b>
Focus on the product	Focus on the process and product
Begin with parts and build to whole messages	Begin with the messages and then focus on the parts
Teacher directly instructs on how to form letters, then words, then combine words into sentences	Teacher creates conditions for authentic written responses
Teacher gives topics	Teachers helps students learn to choose good topics
Topics may or may not relate to students’ lives	Topics come from students’ backgrounds and interests
Time for writing is restricted and inflexible	Time for writing is open and flexible
Few resources are available for writers	Many resources are available for writers
Writing product must be conventional	Writing moves naturally from invention to convention
Students write for teacher	Students write for a real audience
The teacher corrects	Classmates and others respond
Writing is private and individual	Writing is shared and social

From this point of view, one can envision the applicability of this framework to today's classroom, where technology has a direct role in the writing process, especially by freeing up time for writing in different modes and providing writers with numerous resources.

Webb Boyd (2008) conducted an extensive survey among 17 online and hybrid sections of a freshman composition course to evaluate students' perceptions of these courses for aiding their writing development. The survey was designed using the principles of learner-centered education. Although the specifications of each course were unclear (e.g., technologies used, tasks, modes), the strong emphasis on discussion forums in the literature review alludes to the possibility that these courses used a high number of online discussion modules to help students focus on writing. Among the findings, the author highlighted students' desire for interaction with faculty, dissatisfaction with the amount of interaction, confusion about the course expectations, and uncertainty about peer corrections of their essays. These issues were accompanied by the fact that many of the students felt that they did not receive feedback on their writing in time to help them revise their work.

***Collaborative writing.*** Much of the work that has been done on blended writing in the first language has focused less on comparing traditional to web-based environments, and instead has narrowed in on the different aspects of technology-infused courses. A large vein of research, for example, has examined the role of collaborative writing activities in the composition classroom.

Anderson-Inman, Knox-Quinn, and Tromba (1996) looked into the role of synchronous collaborative writing activities and the group paper. The authors explored three types of synchronous writing environments, including classroom collaboration, networked note taking, and virtual communities. Extolling such environments for their anonymity, increased

participation, and support of reading and writing needs, the authors cited certain disadvantages of technology, including computer-breakdown, issues with long-distance technology coordination, and unclear standards for appropriate electronic communication.

Over a decade later, research continues to explore collaborative writing environments. Kittle and Hicks (2009) discussed a new generation of collaborative writing instruction using tools such as blogs, wikis, online word processors, and social networking tools. The authors chose two of these, online word processors and wikis, to suggest several activities including (a) brainstorming lists of ideas, (b) generating questions about an assignment to be used for peer response, (c) responding to drafts using the comment feature in Google Docs, and (d) revising others' work to clarify meaning.

Similar to a wiki but synchronous, Google Docs is "a free, web-based word processor, spreadsheet, presentation, form and data storage service offered by Google" (Wikipedia, 2010). Yang (2010) described Google Docs as a powerful means for students to collaborate on various writing-centered projects. Many authors have heralded Google Docs for enabling students in different locations to collaborate simultaneously but work independently (Broin & Raftery, 2011; Mansor, 2011; 2012; Montero-Fleta & Pérez-Sabater, 2011).

Different from wikis, online word processors such as Google Docs possess the advantage of being able to work on the same document at the same time and viewing changes simultaneously occurring in the text. Other recommended features include (a) a feature on the upper-right corner of the screen in which writers can see the other participants who are logged in and working on the document, (b) an automatic saving option that refreshes the page at regular intervals, and (c) a feature that automatically informs writers if the changes that they have made have been modified by another user. Many authors have praised the use of Google Docs for use

with both in-class writing tasks as well as from a distance as facilitated by VoIP services, such as Skype.

**Feedback.** Another strand of research on blended L1 writing surrounds the topic of feedback. In their treatment of oral feedback as an integral part of successful writing instruction, Krych-Appelbaum and Musial (2007) compared students' perceptions of interactive conversation as part of peer-writing review versus non-interactive feedback via email. Using a questionnaire to gauge students' preferences, the authors concluded that although written feedback had its affordances, f2f communication was most beneficial for revising written work. Among the features of conversation that were useful, the authors cited (a) being able to establish the content of what they are talking about (who, what, when, where) as well as (b) being able to confirm their understanding by using backchannelling strategies (e.g., sounds or evaluations such as *mhm*, *yeah*, nods, gestures, etc.) and asking questions. Features of written feedback which were useful for students included reviewability and revisability, being able to go back to what they had written and look through the exact language to discover what they meant to say.

In another study with four online graduate-level writing courses, Wolsey (2008) explored the relation of feedback to formative assessment in addition to students' perceptions and use of feedback. Using a critical action-research model, data collection involved online surveys, student work, and interviews with volunteers. Analysis entailed a classification of feedback on written online assignments, including simple and complex affirmations, clarifications, observations, corrections to content, questions, explorations, and personal remarks. Results included five recommendations to instructors regarding how to improve students' online instructional experiences, such as (a) valuable interaction with the instructor, (b) feedback that made use of

questions for further inquiry, and (c) feedback embedded in their written documents rather than at the end of their essays.

**2.3.2 Writing in the second or foreign language.** Within the research on BL writing instruction, many issues have been explored. In a colloquium devoted to changes in L2 writing research in the 21st Century, Matsuda, Canagarajah, Harklau, Hyland, and Warschauer (2003) discussed several trends and important directions for research. Warschauer specifically discussed the popularity of L2 writing research on computer assisted classroom discussion (CACD), email exchange, and web-based writing. The authors defined CACD as the real-time synchronous interaction among students within a single classroom which could potentially include any software amenable to this purpose, including chatrooms, wikis, or specific programs.

Warschauer noted the positive role that CACD has played in L1 composition classrooms for exploring ideas in preparation for formal writing. In one notable study, students who received computer assisted feedback were found to make more detailed revisions to their papers versus those that received oral feedback, who made more global changes (Schultz, 2000). Warschauer (Matsuda, et al., 2003) also cited the importance of qualitative longitudinal research on L2 writing, stating that “it becomes increasingly difficult to unravel the nature of computer-mediated writing through short-term classroom based studies. Ethnographies, longitudinal case studies, and other forms of interpretive qualitative research are thus likely to emerge as principal means of exploring the relationship of technology to second language writing” (p. 165-166).

**Feedback.** Like L1 blended writing research, feedback has also been a common topic within research on second and foreign language writing. Guardado and Shi (2007), for example focused on the experiences of ESL students who provided online peer feedback. Using initial and revised composition drafts and follow-up interviews with students, the authors showed that e-

feedback eliminated many of the logistical difficulties of printing out papers and writing handwritten comments, while at the same time this positively pushed students to write balanced comments with an awareness of the reader's needs. Anonymity for students giving feedback was also seen as favorable. However, students expressed qualms about being able to trust their peer comments, in the sense that the feedback process turned into a form of one-way communication, which left students unwilling to address their peer-reviews. Suggestions about how to ameliorate this setback were given, including teacher intervention during f2f discussion in order to clarify comments and maximize the effect of online peer feedback.

In her dissertation, Roux-Rodriguez (2003) explored the impact of peer collaboration and feedback using computer-mediated writing revision in the Spanish FL classroom. Data sources consisted of written feedback, first and second composition drafts, interviews, learning journals, and teacher-researcher field notes. Results suggested that students' revisions focused mostly on content rather than on form. Revisions of the compositions showed that participants often did not take into account the suggestions given by their peers with regard to the communicative purpose of their essays although they did make changes based on essay length and below-the-clause language features. Rouz-Rodriguez's findings also showed that the role of technology in giving peer feedback was not as important as feedback given f2f.

***Foreign Language Writing.*** The majority of research on L2 writing in technology-enhanced settings has been conducted in ESL settings. Less has been investigated in foreign language arenas. In one study, Myazoe and Anderson (2010) simultaneously tested the effects of forums, blogs, and wikis in an EFL blended course in Tokyo. Forums were used for topical discussions, blogs for optional free-writing activities, and wikis to conduct a collaborative translation task from English to Japanese. Using a mixed-methods approach with interviews,

surveys, and text analysis, the authors demonstrated that students retained positive perceptions of the blended course design using online writings, with wikis being the most favored tool followed by blogs and lastly by forums. Qualitative text analysis also showed that students made progress in their ability to differentiate among English writing styles.

Wikis, mainly used for asynchronous collaborative writing, were the focus of Lee's (2010) study with elementary Spanish students. Three types of data sources were used to evaluate the affordances and constraints of wiki writing over the period of a semester, including the wiki pages themselves, student surveys, and end-of-semester interviews. Results were positive, showing that wikis had a favorable impact on writing skills due to their ability to facilitate collaborative engagement. A focus on scaffolding through peer feedback was also shown to have played a critical role in writing processes. Topic choice was shown to affect the degree to which students participated in the wiki writing, where freedom to choose a topic that aligned with their personal interests produced more positive perceptions. Nevertheless, students also expressed satisfaction with being able to focus on specific grammar structures and lexical items, although many did not feel comfortable making edits on their peers' mistakes. Here, it was suggested that the role of the instructor in providing students with guidance and offering them strategies for effective use of feedback should be emphasized.

Although the research specifically devoted to writing in less commonly taught languages is rare, Zhang (2009) focused on elementary blended writing in Chinese. Here, the author investigated the little researched area of computer assisted writing activities in the elementary Chinese college classroom using a Chinese word processor and a Blackboard discussion board. Using data triangulation with interviews, observations, and textual documents, the authors'



findings pointed to the likelihood that beginning Chinese FL writing activities using technology helped students overcome the barrier of learning to write special characters.

## **2.4 Systemic Functional Linguistics**

As the theory underpinning this dissertation, the research that has adopted a systemic functional linguistics (SFL) model of language will now be presented. Due to the application of SFL to many fields and areas of inquiry, my discussion will be limited to SFL's application within the field of language learning. After an introduction, I will specifically elaborate on how two primary veins, ideational and interpersonal meanings, have been applied to writing instruction. I will then focus on two strands of research, the first carried out by the so-called 'Sydney School' of language and linguistics that utilizes a genre approach to composition, and the second carried out in North America, which uses a register approach to emphasize the learning of language alongside content knowledge.

In educational arenas, especially that of L1 and L2 or FL learning, SFL has sought answers to questions of how language is best taught and learned (Early, 1990; Early, Thew, & Wakefield, 1986; Slater & Gleason, 2011; Tang, 1997). In FL learning, SFL theories of language hold much promise for helping to understand and explain observed phenomena more precisely. Systemic functional linguistics is a philosophy of language that has evolved in response to questions about how people use language to make meaning in applied settings. Rather than addressing language fragments in isolation, it proposes that the object of language inquiry should always be the whole text in context, where every choice carries meaning in terms of those that are taken as well as those that are not.

At the heart of SFL lies a multi-faceted belief about language as a system that users harness in order to express and convey meaning. In studies involving FL acquisition, SFL takes

the perspective of language as a resource that users can learn to more effectively use and develop over time. Halliday (1985; 1994) conceived of language as being epistemologically different from traditional grammar in that all languages organize three main functions: (a) to represent experience, (b) to establish and maintain interaction between individuals, and (c) to create coherent and connected discourse. These aspects correspond to three major functions or metafunctions of language, the ideational (or experiential), the interpersonal, and the textual.

The *ideational metafunction* takes into account the meanings about the world as reflected by discourse. It consists of our particular representation of reality, for example the topics and the subject matter of the texts that we produce. The *interpersonal* encompasses inter- and intra-textual meanings concerning roles and relationships between and among readers and writers, speakers and listeners. As such, it deals with aspects such as status, intimacy, contact, and sharedness between interactants. The *textual* deals with the ways that text hangs together. It encompasses the meanings about the message, for instance foregrounding and salience features and types of cohesion (Eggins, 1994; Eggins & Slade, 1997).

**2.4.1 Ideational meanings.** SFL provides a theory of language capable of conceptualizing the meanings that users produce as a semiotic system, a system for meaning making. From this view, text is conceived as any passage of spoken or written language of whatever length that forms a unified whole. A text is a unit of language in use and is best regarded as a semantic unit, a meaningful stretch of language.

In addition to analysis at the whole-text level, SFL is concerned with the greater functions (or metafunctions) that language serves in people's lives as interpreted in three ways with respect to the ideational, interpersonal, and textual. Peering through the ideational lens, we can understand the meanings, goings-on, and the "what" being represented, including three main

aspects: the processes (beings, doings, sensing/thinkings), the participants (types and roles), and the circumstances (when, where, how).

***Processes and participants.*** There are six types of processes in English that are elaborated under the ideational, including material, the mental, the verbal, the behavioral, the relational and the existential (Eggins, 1994; Halliday, 1994). These processes, along with their respective participants, and circumstances, conform the meanings contained within a text as viewed through the ideational lens.

*Material processes* involve an input of energy, a strong sense of doing or physical action. They involve actions, events, doings, and happenings. *Mental processes* pertain to thinking, reflecting, perceiving, sensing and feeling. They reflect the inner world of thought, imagination, feelings and emotion. *Verbal processes* used to express ‘sayings’ are usually associated with humans but can also be used with inanimate objects that give a message. *Behavioral processes* are closely related to material, mental, and verbal processes in that they relate to a particular type of human behavior. *Relational processes* relate two elements, and link one to the other. They involve ‘being’ or ‘having’ and are used to define, classify, describe, or show possession.

***Knowledge structures.*** ‘Being,’ ‘doing,’ and ‘sensing/thinking’ processes will now be expanded upon using a heuristic for teachers and researchers called the Knowledge Framework (Mohan, 1986). The Knowledge Framework (KF) has been used most extensively for pedagogical purposes in provincial Canadian learning curricula (Early, Thew, & Wakefield, 1986) as it provides a springboard for organizing pedagogical tasks to help teachers bring language development into content teaching (Mohan, 1986; Slater & Gleason, 2011). The basic underlying premise of the KF is that “the ways in which knowledge is structured are similar from situation to situation” (Early, 1990, p. 569). Given that a major task of third-year bridge courses

is to connect the grammar and vocabulary (language) students have been studying to various topics of academic content, bringing in a framework such as the KF can help teachers show students how academic language across the disciplines construct the content. Thus, using the KF as a discourse analysis tool can be a powerful way to demonstrate the types of language being used and developed in these courses.

Mohan's (1986; 2007; 2011) KF classifies ideational meanings by knowledge structure (KS), offering a way to organize the ways in which knowledge is represented by language. Different KSs draw on different processes. For example, in the left column of the KF, the KSs of classification and description draw on existential and relational "being" processes. In the middle column, principles and sequence utilize material and verbal "doing" processes. To the far right, evaluation and choice employ mental and behavioral "thinking/feeling" processes. This tripartite relationship between being, doing, and sensing/thinking can be observed in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4

*The Being, Doing, and Sensing/Thinking Relationship of Knowledge Structures (Mohan, 1986)*




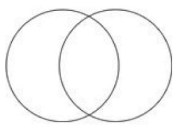
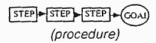
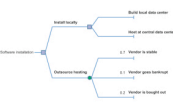
	'Being' Meanings	'Doing' Meanings	'Sensing/Thinking' Meanings
Reflection	Classification	Principles	Evaluation
Action	Description	Sequence	Choice

The language of the KF classifies KSs and the distinct ideational meanings contained therein. Classification and description encompass the being meanings related to existential and relational processes. *Description* is concerned with the who, what, and where whereas *classification* draws on description to answer questions about what concepts apply and how they

are related to one another. *Sequence* and *choice* call on ‘doing’ meanings. Sequence answers questions about what happens and what happens next whereas principles are the cause-effect, means-end, methods and techniques, rules, norms, and strategies. *Choice* and *evaluation* draw on ‘thinking/sensing’ meanings. They are linked because choosing implies evaluating. Choice is concerned with the choices, conflicts, alternatives, dilemmas and decisions while evaluation pertains to the appropriate values and standards, what counts as good or bad, what the typical reasons are for choosing one object or course of action over another. The linguistic choices enacted in the different KSs can be seen in Table 2.5.

Table 2.5

*Knowledge Structures, Thinking Skills, Key Visuals, and Language*

Knowledge structure	Thinking skills	Key visuals and examples		Language
Classification	Classify, group, sort, categorize Define Parts/wholes	Tree Web Table		General reference “Being” verbs (e.g. <i>be, have</i> ) Additive conjunctions (e.g., <i>and</i> ) Taxonomic, part/whole lexis (e.g., nouns: <i>types, classes, kinds, categories, ways</i> ; verbs: <i>classify, sort, group, organize, categorize, divide, comprise</i> ) Passives (e.g., <i>are classified, are grouped</i> )
Principles	Explain, predict, draw conclusions Apply causes, effects, means, ends, rules Formulate, test, and establish hypotheses Interpret data	Cycles Line graphs Cause/effect chains Problem/solution branches		General reference Action verbs Consequential conjunction and adverbials (e.g., <i>since, due to, in order to, consequently, because, thus, if-clauses</i> ) Cause-effect lexis (e.g. nouns: <i>cause, effect, result</i> ; verbs: <i>cause, produce, bring about</i> ) Passives + agency (e.g., <i>is caused by, are produced by</i> )
Evaluation	Evaluate Rank Judge Criticize	Grid Rating chart Evaluation chart		General reference “Thinking” verbs (e.g., <i>believe, think, value, consider, rank, judge</i> ) Comparative conjunction (e.g., <i>likewise, however, while</i> ) Evaluative lexis (e.g. nouns: <i>best, worst</i> ; adjectives: <i>good, bad, right, wrong, boring, acceptable</i> ; verbs: <i>rank, approve, value, like</i> )
Description	Identify Label Describe Compare, contrast Locate	Picture, map, diagram, drawing Venn diagram Pie chart Same/different chart		General or specific reference “Being” verbs (e.g. <i>be, have</i> ) Additive conjunction (e.g., <i>and</i> ) Attributive lexis (e.g., adjectives of color and size) Language of comparison and contrast (e.g., <i>the same as, similar to, like, different from</i> )
Sequence	Arrange events in order Note changes over time, processes Follow directions	Timeline Action strip Flowchart		Specific reference Action verbs Temporal conjunction and adverbials (e.g., <i>after, since, as, initially, firstly, finally, when-clauses, as-clauses</i> ) Sequential lexis (e.g., nouns: <i>beginning, end</i> ; verbs: <i>start, conclude, continue, summarize</i> )
Choice	Select, make decisions Propose alternatives Solve problems Form opinions	Decision/consequence tree Generating alternatives/decisions chart		Specific reference “Sensing” verbs (e.g. <i>like, want</i> ) Alternative conjunction (e.g., <i>or</i> ) Appositional choice lexis (e.g., nouns: <i>choice, option, which + noun</i> ; verbs: <i>choose, opt, select, prefer</i> )

***Social practices.*** According to Mohan (2007; 2011), a social practice is a unit, situation, or task with both a theory and a practice aspect. This knowing and doing can be seen in the two horizontal rows of the KF, which line up with general and specific notions of reflection. That is, the six KSs distinguish between ‘reflection’ (the topic) and ‘action’ (the speech act). While the three top boxes (*classification, principles, and evaluation*) relate to theoretical background knowledge, the three bottom ones (*description, sequence, and choice*) represent specific practical knowledge. These six KSs are “semantic patterns of the discourse knowledge, actions, artifacts, and environment of a social practice” (Mohan, 2007, p. 303). Together, they make up three sets of theory/practice (or knowledge/action) pairs.

Following Dewey (1916), the role of language in education is to initiate the learner into the activities (or social practices) of society. In the language classroom, social practices are present both in and of themselves in the tasks in which students engage. Mohan (1986, p. 18) argues, “the concept of an activity is so central to education that education can be defined in terms of activities.” Activity can be taken as a social unit of inquiry in social science research with both an action and reflection (theory/practice) element. Educators can exploit this “knowing” and “doing” in order to help students link their theoretical knowledge with their hands-on real world experiences.

In L2 learning, Liang (1998) and Liang and Mohan (2003) used the KF and social practice theory (SPT) to demonstrate the dilemmas that occurred during cooperative learning among Chinese students in the ESL classroom. In particular, the authors cited dilemmas between cooperation and individualism, between obtaining results and sharing understanding of a task, and between using the L2 to help with language and content learning.

Slater (2004) used SPT in her study of causal discourse at the primary and secondary levels. Through participant observation and in-depth interviews of ESL and non-ESL students and teachers, a social practice analysis revealed specific similarities and differences in the ways that students constructed explanations. It was shown that primary and secondary science teachers differed in the ways that they used language to represent causality. Where primary teachers focused mainly on the practice and helped their students develop simple theory from that practice, secondary teachers rooted the lessons in theory, using practice at times to illustrate and reinforce such theory.

Mohan and Lee (2006) painted a picture of how learning projects could be used in order to facilitate language learners' reflections on their own learning activities, showing how SPT, interpretive research, and SFL made a logical fit. The authors argued that for students to effectively become conscious of the ways in which they learn, they must first reflectively be able to scrutinize their own learning processes. The results included one key informant's ability to see a social practice as a semantic unit of culture, with 'doing' related to action and agency and 'knowing' related to knowledge and consciousness.

Cho (2008) used the KF and SPT to examine the technology-mediated goings-on among Korean heritage speaking learners. In her multiple case study, she explored participants' language ideologies and beliefs about heritage language maintenance. The attitudes and practices of members within eight Korean immigrant families were studied and online conversations examined. Findings pointed to the fact that technology could play a positive role in heritage language maintenance and acquisition. In particular, SPT was useful for understanding how language revitalization occurred via heritage language learning and cultural practices during synchronous and asynchronous communication.



**2.4.2 Interpersonal meanings.** Like the ideational, the interpersonal provides a unique lens for viewing and interpreting language. Where the former is concerned with the “what” or the content of discourse, the latter pertains to the “who” and the negotiation of social relations within and among texts. Much of the research on the interpersonal has been the result of Halliday’s work on the grammar of mood and modality, which others have built on by developing the APPRAISAL network as shown in Figure 2.1 (Eggins & Slade, 1997; Martin & Rose, 2003; Martin & White, 2005).

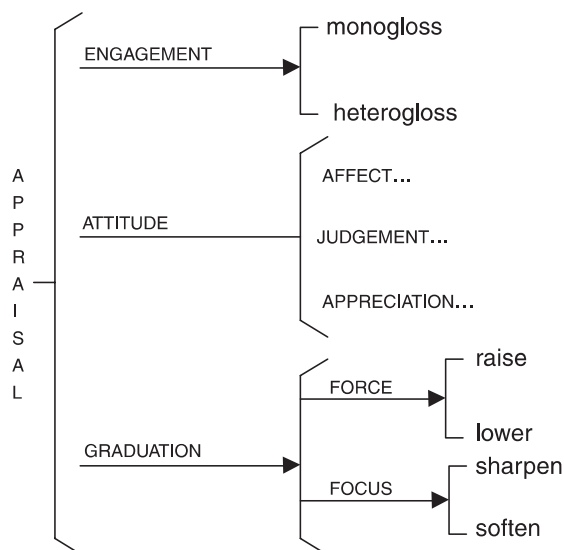


Figure 2.1. The APPRAISAL system.

The APPRAISAL network enables an evaluation of language by focusing on the lexical resources strewn throughout participants’ texts as such resources provide an appreciation of interpersonal stance. APPRAISAL provides a way of evaluating three subsystems, including *engagement*, *attitude*, and *graduation*.

**Engagement.** The first resource of the APPRAISAL network is that of engagement. Martin and White (2005) refer to *engagement* as a cover-all term for the resources of intersubjective

positioning. Like graduation, it is concerned with the linguistic resources that speakers/writers use to adopt a particular stance toward the value positions of a text. Engagement can be broken down into monoglossic and heteroglossic. In monoglossic (single-voiced) references, there is no recognition of other voices being present in the text (e.g., *the banks have been greedy*). In this way, the monoglossic consist of bare statements.

Heteroglossic (many-voiced) references, on the other hand, use different linguistic resources to recognize dialogistic alternatives (e.g., *In my view, the banks have been greedy*). These resources, including (a) attribution and (b) modality, serve to open up the text to various other possibilities. *Attribution* includes the explicit means by which other voices are introduced in the text. Verbal processes (e.g., **shouted**, **cried**), mental processes (e.g., **thought**, **surmised**), nominalized sayings and thoughts (e.g., her **comment**, his **belief**) and circumstances of angle (e.g., some say..., in the words of...) all serve to introduce new stances or voices into a text.

*Modality* is another way that writers/speakers open up discourse to multiple possibilities. The numerous resources that serve to color a text with different shades of meaning include modal verbs (e.g., **can**, **should**, **must**), modal adjuncts (e.g., **definitely**, **probably**, **possibly**) and modalizing expressions (e.g., **I think...**, **It's probable...**).

**Attitude.** Attitude is about mapping feelings. In the context of office gossip, for example, one might expect there to be a significant amount of negative attitudinal language. According to Martin and White (2005), there are three types of attitudinal language, including affect, appreciation, and judgment. *Affect* is concerned with emotion and how people feel. *Appreciation* involves evaluating the worth and quality of things (e.g., objects, states of affair, and people) and processes (e.g., artwork, clothing, food). *Judgment* includes the words that make evaluations of humans' behavior.

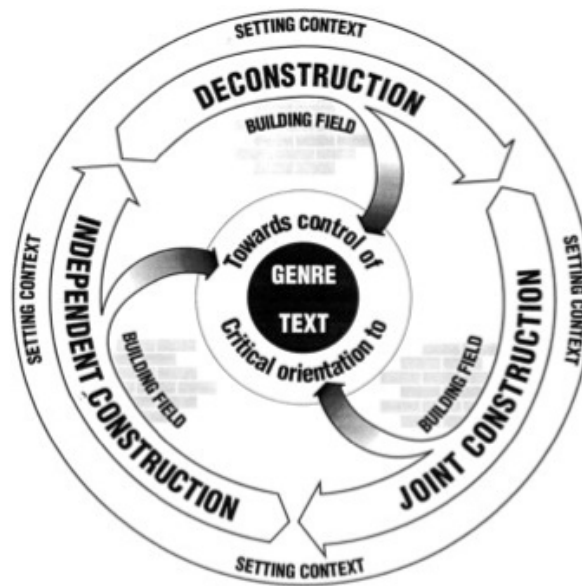
**Graduation.** *Graduation* is about adding to or detracting from the strength of a message. Working closely with Attitude, there are two main ways to express this resource, in terms of (a) force or (b) focus. There are many ways to increase the *force* of a message, which can be graded along a cline of most to least intense. Repetition, listing, and quantifying all work to boost the force of message. Language can also be used to sharpen or soften the *focus* of a message. To sharpen, the options are narrowed. To soften, options are broadened and blurred.

Over the past decade, researchers have used APPRAISAL to shed light on a number of issues, especially concerning its use for academic language. Martin, Zappavigna, and Dwyer (2007) analyzed the personal recounts of young people during youth justice conferencing in order to better understand the genre identity of stakeholders involved in some sort of reparative social action. Belz (2003) used the sub-system of Affect to understand the development of intercultural competence in telecollaborative email exchanges between German and American university students. Hood (2004) used APPRAISAL to better understand the evaluative stance adopted in published research papers, providing a pedagogic model to be used in undergraduate academic writing courses. As all this research shows, the APPRAISAL network holds much potential for understanding and helping to explain participants' use of attitudes, graduation, and engagement as resources within their texts.

**2.4.3 A genre approach.** In this final section on SFL, I will present several studies that have been conducted in a specialized strand of research developed by the 'Sydney School' in Australia, as it has been constantly refined since the 1980s (see Martin, 2013). In his paper about genre and language learning, Martin (2009) discussed the concept of genre, defined both as "a recurrent configuration of meanings" and "a stage-oriented social process" (p. 11). The genre

model's focus is based upon the premise of grammar as a meaning-making resource and on text as semantic choice in social context.

As implemented in a series of action research projects in Australia (see Christie and Martin, 2007), the genre approach expects teachers to set aside time for writing on a daily basis, in line with the belief that people learn to write by engaging in the writing process. Teachers help students write by first engaging in deconstruction of a target genre, followed by a joint construction stage, and finally an individual construction stage, as depicted in Figure 2.2. Lower-level resources of knowledge, the language features of which genres are constructed and their relationship to lexis, grammar, and discourse structure, must also be highlighted: “every tiny act of meaning contributes to the social function of the text as a whole” (Martin, 2009, p. 18).



*Figure 2.2. A genre approach to writing.*

The genre-based curriculum builds on thematic clusters of texts (macro-genres), each organized around a theme. Genres are present in a variety of modalities and instruction explicitly focuses on language, drawing a clear relationship between texts as they are realized at the level of lexis and grammar. As Colombi (2009) explains, “pedagogy focuses on the text in terms of

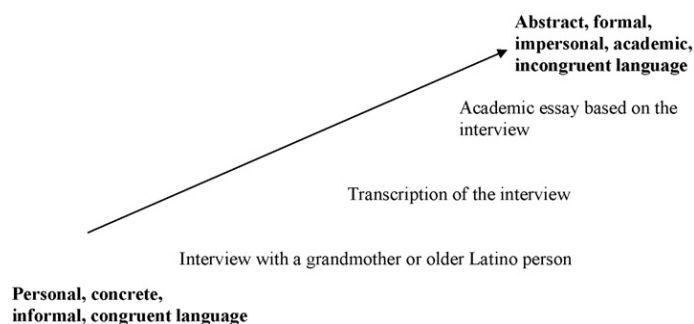
content while attending to how the lexicogrammatical features of the text help in the very realization of textual content” (p. 43). All this is accomplished by interacting with the text in an iterative fashion that uses the model text as a guide. Students deconstruct and later reconstruct genres, working first jointly with the teacher and finally toward independent authorship. This cycle of learning (see Martin, 1993; 2009) has immediate implications for the curriculum as it encourages students to learn language, learn through language, and learn about language (Halliday, 1980).

In one study inspired by genre-based pedagogy, Byrnes (2002) reported on how the German Department at Georgetown University (GDGU) embarked on a process of curricular renovation by incorporating new visions of task and task-based assessment. In order to bring a focus onto language and content at all levels of language study, the GDGU underwent a massive restructuring of their curriculum, where writing tasks and task-based writing assessments were integrated at all levels of the curriculum. Faculty and graduate students developed targeted individual tasks that expanded into thematically linked task clusters, which were then deployed strategically within content themes. The result became a shift from the emphasis on the formal features of language to a focus on multiple literacies, content, genre as situated discourse types, and language use. Several conclusions were drawn from the GDGU’s adoption of the new genre-informed, task-based language curriculum, including (a) greater creativity and variety in terms of genre, (b) a need for more pedagogical attention to form at the micro (text-and-below) and macro (discourse) levels, and (c) a need for greater awareness about the number of culture-based themes in order to build up students’ background knowledge, lexicogrammatical features, and overall content knowledge. An interesting outcome of the GDGU’s curricular renovation was their decision to abandon the uniform general assessment sheet in favor of criteria specified for

each writing task. This generated awareness of the role of assessment and feedback as being intricately tied to the nature of the task itself.

In another study on genre-based pedagogy, Bruce (2008) highlighted the application of two genre-based approaches, English for Specific Purposes and SFL, to writing pedagogy. He argued that writing teachers in particular need ways of systematically engaging in the classification and deconstruction of larger texts. Conceiving of genre as both a socially constructed and contextualized way of transmitting culture as it is realized through internal organization and interrelatedness of knowledge, the author showed how writing instructors were able to successfully enact the deconstruction-joint construction-independent construction cycle.

Of particular relevance to the present study, Colombi (2009) showed how curriculum developers were able to harness the SFL genre approach to help heritage speakers (HS) of Spanish to develop advanced language capacities. Putting forward an alternative option for heritage language curriculum development, she drew on the SFL perspective of language as a semiotic meaning-making resource invariably related to social context. Drawing on the genre-based literacy movement, Colombi argued that it had clear implications for teaching in FL and heritage language learning contexts. One major objective of the genre-inspired curriculum was to move students within the continuum of linguistic registers, from colloquial to academic. Examples from different genres from one thematic unit ranged on the oral-written spectrum from of personal / concrete / informal / congruent language to abstract / formal / impersonal / academic / incongruent language. Figure 2.3 depicts a unit on Mexican-American heritage as taken from Colombi, Pellietteri and Rodríguez (2007), a textbook for Spanish language learning which embraced the genre approach.



*Figure 2.3.* An example of a genre-inspired heritage Spanish learning unit.

Several authentic tasks from the genre-based heritage language curriculum asked students to formulate interview questions for a Spanish-speaking family member, such as a grandparent, transcribe the interview, and then use the pertinent information to construct their own academic essays. Simultaneous emphasis was placed on the different features of oral and written language from different texts and genres, with particular attention paid to academic language and the condensation of language through the use of grammatical metaphor.

In their book on text-based syllabus design, Feez and Joyce (1998) showed how the Vygotskian approach to scaffolding the learner in his ZPD overlapped with text-based methodology as provided by the Sydney School. The ZPD suggests that (a) a teacher plays an instrumental role in helping students progress, and (b) with the teacher's support, students can achieve real learning and progress. In terms of text development, the authors suggested two key points, namely there needs to be (a) joint construction of texts, in which the teacher and students develop texts together, sharing the burden until the students have enough knowledge and ability to construct them independently, and (b) scaffolding, in which the teacher supports students by providing explicit knowledge and guided practice. Feez and Joyce explained that this model has direct implications for the teaching-learning cycle, presenting various examples of how a unit

might be designed in order to move students toward independent control of particular text types.

One of these is shown in Figure 2.4, as adapted from Feez and Joyce (1998, p. 82).

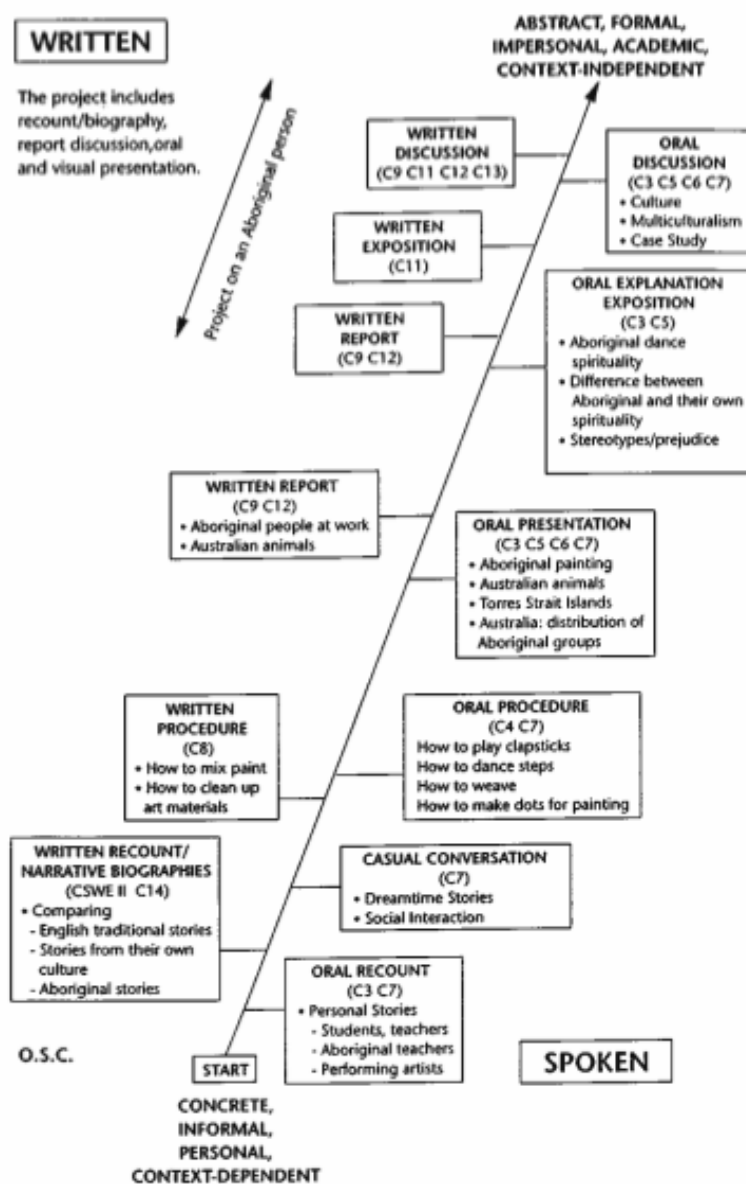


Figure 2.4. Sequence of text using a genre approach.

Veel (2006) asserted that a major problem with instructional writing methods is that students do not have enough practice with the language/texts that construct knowledge in their particular disciplines. Explaining several applications of the genre model, he elaborated on how it could be used to teach genres, where deconstruction could involve the translation of texts into



tables and diagrams, summarizing texts, examining the structure and generic stages of texts, accompanied by preliminary content-based instruction. During joint construction, students could work with teacher to write a text in the genre being studied. This could be accompanied by more significant content instruction and followed by independent construction toward the end of the unit, which would enable students to gain independent mastery of key content.

**2.4.4 A register approach.** This section outlines the work that has been conducted on L1 and L2 literacy from a register perspective. Mohan (2012) differentiates the genre approaches as defined in the previous section from a register perspective. Whereas the former focuses on genres, the latter incorporates the learning of the *field* or content area. From a register perspective, one needs to know about the topic one is writing on, in the sense that registers not only include genres but also how language is developed as a resource for learning a content area, and more widely for learning culture (Mohan, 2012). The register view holds that language is learned primarily as a tool to communicate with others and mediate thought. This draws on Halliday's idea of meaning potential, which can be described as the way that language both shapes the way we perceive the world, in particular our social world, while at the same time allows us to create new meanings that enable us to act upon and shape that world (Jones, 2010).

***Content- and project-based instruction.*** Content-based approaches to language learning inherently adopt a register approach, where students begin by emphasizing texts in their real-world contexts. From an SFL perspective, both content-based approaches to instruction, such as the theoretical framework pioneered by Mohan (1986) and that of project-based instruction (Beckett & Miller, 2006), are in accord with the general thrust of a register approach. Content-based instruction (CBI) or content-based language learning (CBLL) are derived from experiential content rather than linguistic criteria. This content may come from other subjects in

the curriculum, such as science, history, and social studies, or it may be based upon students' own interests or needs.

With CBI comes the belief that language learning and content learning cannot and should not be separate. A content-based approach to tasks is one where the subject matter is learned along with and through language. In this way, it takes into account the real contexts in which users will be asked to produce language. Moreover, CBI helps learners master content alongside language and helps them do so in an integrated way, providing a means for learners to achieve sustained engagement with both content and target language forms.

In a similar vein, project-based learning (Beckett & Miller, 2006) draws on the same SFL-based principles as CBI but applies them to larger learning units, in which students are guided through a collection of sequenced and integrated tasks in order to produce a final project. Beckett and Slater (2005) described a tool, the 'project framework', that was used to simultaneously teach language, content, and skills integration. The framework offered a way for language learners to establish a direct connection between language learning and its applications. Important features of the project framework, as it was implemented in a university-level ESL course, included a key visual of the overall project that showed students how things all fit together, which was modeled in the article using an example of a project on ecosystems. Students' experiences using the framework were explored using their written reflections, interviews, and project portfolios. Findings included reports that not only had students learned a considerable amount about their chosen topics but also about the language and skills required to show that knowledge. Although conclusions were drawn about the success of using the project framework as a cultural tool, caution was also expressed about potential conflicting philosophical beliefs held by students and teachers about how language should be learned. In

contexts where ESL instruction is assumed to be about learning language components (vocabulary, grammar, speaking and writing), the authors asserted that care must be taken to help teachers and learners raise their awareness of the benefit of language learning through cultural projects.

The assumption that language and content teaching is only appropriate at upper levels of language study is met with contention by Huang and Mohan (2009), who sought to show how a register approach could be used as a teaching heuristic by FL teachers of lower-division FL courses to support content-language integration and help language learners broaden their repertoire of meaning-form relationships. This article argued that systematic formative assessment of form-meaning relationships is central to bridging the major disjunction that presently exists between instruction of language, culture, content, and their assessment at lower and upper levels of the FL curriculum. The authors argue that it does no good to teach culture/content and test language: the two need to walk hand-in-hand. Their examples from classroom data in college years 1, 2, and 3 show how language and content teaching was achieved first by building student knowledge of *field* (the content of language) using key visuals. After knowledge was constructed, the use of language to provide meaning construction in the target language could be achieved. Visuals, together with input from students, provided the link between the meaning of cultural content (e.g., the family relationships in the target culture) and the wording in the target language.

***A sociopsycholinguistic view.*** Although not explicitly espousing an SFL view, Freeman and Freeman (2006) discuss the differences between two approaches to reading and writing which mirror many of the values inherent in a register approach. Differentiating between the ‘word-recognition’ and ‘sociopsycholinguistic’ views, they maintain that the

sociopsycholinguistic is based on the premise that students learn chunks of language (words and phrases) by focusing on their meaning within text. In contrast, the authors explain that a word-recognition view asks learners to use bottom-up processes, first focusing on the learning of words as units that can be broken down into parts (syllables) for identification. Giving a brief account of the historical rationale for how the word recognition view has come to be the dominant paradigm in the US and examples of how each view is carried out, the authors argue that the word-recognition view has and continues to wreak detrimental effects on how children learn to read, especially emergent bilinguals in the US, by assuming an erroneous view of how language is learned.

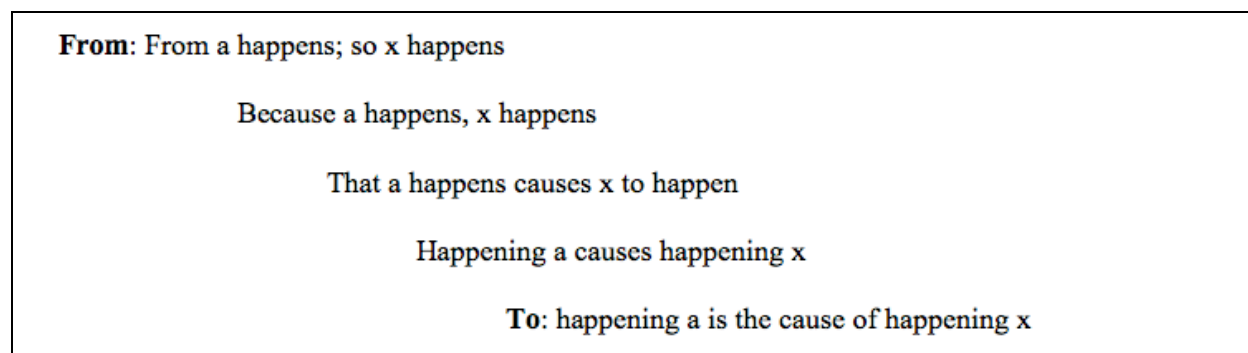
Contrary to the word-recognition view, register approaches could be classified primarily as top-down in the sense that learners begin by viewing examples or models of whole texts as meaningful stretches of language situated in particular contexts. As in the genre-approach, instruction iteratively cycles through text deconstruction, where the features of language are highlighted and discussed; joint construction, where teachers support learners in their attempt to construct a given genre; and finally independent construction, where learners attempt the genre without assistance.

During the deconstruction phase, numerous tasks can be exploited for learners to understand how language imparts meaning to text. As opposed to bottom-up approaches, which frequently present lists of vocabulary items or grammar points for learners to memorize, the psychosociolinguistic approach maintains that the isolation of vocabulary and clausal items should only be carried out in the sense that they emphasizes their relationship to the rest of the text and their surrounding context. Thematic units are broken down by topic and tasks engage students in ways of knowing and doing similar to CBI.

***Register analysis of academic language.*** Several studies have used discourse analytic methods, including register analysis, to help learners develop their ability to use language in academic settings. In their article focusing on functional recasts, Mohan and Beckett (2003) explored how functional recasts were important for grammatically scaffolding learners toward more advanced language development. The authors juxtaposed functional recasts with formal recasts, the latter of which have been extensively studied by second language acquisition research. Mohan and Beckett argued that formal recasts, whose main focus is corrective grammatical repair, and a sole focus on the correction of errors in grammatical form, are insufficient for the development of language as a medium of learning. In contrast, they explained how a focus on meaning, in which the teacher may recast by paraphrasing discourse, thus raising the question of relations between form and meaning in discourse, offers a more adequate tool for promoting language development.

Using the KF model, Slater and Mohan (2010) investigated learners' oral discourse from L1 and L2 English, primary and secondary science learners to see if it followed similar patterns shown in previous studies (e.g., Veal, 1997). Using Halliday and Martin's (1993) metaphor of 'grammatical shift', the results of their study showed that the developmental move in such learners' science discourse exhibited both a semantic and grammatical shift. Semantically, for example, L1 high school students were able to use a wider range of linguistic features to construct causal meaning than could L2 high school students and younger learners. Specifically, they were able to move through temporal meanings to causal meanings and then to proof. Lexicogrammatically, more advanced L1 learners shifted away from the use of conjunctions, adeptly drawing on more metaphoric ways of constructing meaning, such as nominalizations.

To elaborate on the idea of grammatical shift as it has been frequently applied in studies of causal language, it is useful to examine the graphic provided by Halliday and Martin (1993, p. 66). Figure 2.5 shows a schematic interpretation of how causal language develops in English.



*Figure 2.5.* Grammatical shift in English.

From this progression, we can see that there is a development of English from the use of conjunctions to show causal relations between clauses (e.g., because) followed by verbs (e.g., causes) to represent the causal relationship, to finally the causal relationship represented by a noun (e.g., the cause). Nominalization has been an important feature of language studied by researchers in the SFL tradition. Nominalization and grammatical metaphor tend to be characteristics of academic or sophisticated language, which expresses meanings more metaphorically (less congruently).

Schleppegrell (2006) described several discourse features of advanced writing, including those that present (a) dense information, (b) abstraction, (c) technicality, (d) multiple semiotic systems, and (e) conventional structuring. She states, “language used in schooling has developed resources for condensing information, presenting an authoritative stance, and organizing texts to achieve the goals of schooling” (p. 50). With this in mind, she took an example from a history text to show how language was used in dense clausal complexes that students had to unpack in order to derive meaning. This example also showed how abstract language was constructed,

involving students' building up of background knowledge to make appropriate interpretations.

Taking an example from O'Halloran (2000), the author emphasized the importance of using multiple semiotic systems to construct knowledge as the teacher uses spoken language.

According to O'Halloran, math understandings are largely complicated by the disjunction between the teacher's oral explanations and the textbook's written ones. For example, the teacher used the following language to orally present the characters in Figure 2.6: "and then you've got to add on the ea' squareds because of the brackets and the squareds, add up the ea' squareds so you get two ea' squareds plus your four ea'" (O'Halloran, 2000, p. 384). The written explanation in the book, however, read: "The sum of the squares of two consecutive positive even integers is 340."

$$a^2 + (a + 2)^2 = 340$$

Figure 2.6. Mathematical expression used in O'Halloran (2000).

While the *things* from the textbook were presented in written words (e.g., *sums*, *squares*), these *things* were processes in the oral explanation, and the written language did not preserve their linear ordering or relationships among the symbols.

Schleppegrell, Achugar, and Oteíza (2004) asserted that "texts have different organizational features, so the tools used to analyze them need to be flexible enough to bring out the meanings related to the specific content that is in focus in a particular text" (p. 83). In the context of the K-12 history classroom, they cited four aspects of language that teachers needed to help their students be aware of, including: identifying (a) events, (b) participants, (c) the relationship between participants and events and (d) how information was organized.

Functionally, they cited, "nominalizations, choice of verbs and ways of reasoning, ambiguity of

conjunctions and time reference, and lack of explicit explanations” (p. 77) as the grammatical characteristics that made history texts in English abstract and difficult to follow.

Contrasting academic language in English and Spanish, Gibbons (1999) used SFL discourse analysis to explore differences in these two languages. Drawing on four measurements, including lexical density, phrasal intricacy, syntactic intricacy, and grammatical metaphor, he showed how English and Spanish used both similar and different strategies to achieve academic language. In particular, Spanish realized the most complex noun group with the “of construction” (e.g., *de*), whereas English modified one noun with the other. For example, *language loss* was expressed as *la pérdida del lenguaje*. Gibbons concluded that the mastery of grammatical metaphor was an important indicator of textual competency in Spanish as well as English.

Colombi (2002) built on Gibbons (1999) by showing how bilingual Latino students moved in the direction of academic development over the course of one academic year. Her analysis focused on clause-combining strategies, specifically the characterization of each clause as main, hypotactic, paratactic, or embedded, to calculate the grammatical intricacy of students’ written texts. Participants were heritage learners of Spanish, Spanish-English bilinguals who drew on their knowledge of oral Spanish to develop their adeptness with written language. Colombi asserted, “rather than relying on paratactic and hypotactic clause combinations, familiar to them from spoken discourse, students at this level need to adopt strategies of clause condensation and nominalization in order to achieve an academic register” (p. 84). Findings showed that nominalization and clause-combining strategies provided a way of charting the development of academic writing skills in Spanish.

Looking at an online graduate-level seminar, Luo (2005) found that the construction of an online register was a complex linguistic process involving multifaceted array of dimensions,



such as education, culture, agency, and identity. Examining the perspectives and experiences of 14 students over a three-week period, the author used register analysis to broach important issues surrounding online discussion, including how academic discourse developed during online interactions. Luo's dissertation is, as far as this author knows, the only study that has taken such an approach to address BL learning. As the only one of its kind, it points to the need for additional research, especially that which takes a register approach.

## **2.5 Summary of the Chapter and Overarching Questions**

This chapter has reviewed the literature that serves as the basis for this dissertation. First it has looked at the work that has been conducted on BL course design, specifically comparisons of online, blended, and traditional classrooms and of models of BL learning. Next it has addressed tasks and technology, specifically the research that has been done on task classification, CMC, and CATBLT. Third, it has looked at blended writing development, honing in on the studies that have been done in L1, L2, and FL arenas. Fourth, it has discussed the theoretical and empirical applications of several models anchored in SFL, specifically those related to the ideational and interpersonal metafunctions, and the genre and register approaches. The review of these areas has pointed to a gap in the body of theoretically situated ethnographic research on third-year Spanish courses, specifically the role of technology in these courses, the types of tasks that students and teachers use as learning tools, and learners' development of academic language through these tasks.

As many scholars have argued, a gap exists between the lower- and upper-level FL sequence. This breach between the way that language is practiced and produced in lower- and upper-division courses can be problematic for students, who often find themselves ill-prepared for dealing with the more advanced texts and contents covered in their advanced language

courses. In this way, the third-year “bridge” course carries the heavy burden of preparing students for the types of tasks and language that they will soon encounter in 400-level courses. Whereas past courses may have reinforced students’ knowledge of grammar patterns (“knowing”), upper-division courses will likely require that they engage in tasks which involve the learning of more advanced literary and cultural genres (“doing”). How does a teacher effectively bridge the two levels? How can technology provide the tools to pave the transition from the lower-division to the 400-level courses? More specifically, the overarching research questions for the present dissertation were:

- (1) What role did technology—and the teacher’s and students’ attitudes about technology—play in teaching and learning in blended 300-level grammar and composition courses?
- (2) What tasks were used in blended Spanish 300-level courses and how did the instructor and students perceive of these as learning tools?
- (3) How was academic language developed in blended Spanish 300-level courses during in-class learning tasks?

These questions will be the focus of Chapters 4 and 5. The next chapter will explain the methodology chosen for this project, including the procedures, data collection, analysis, and research design.

## **CHAPTER 3: METHODS**

### **3.0 An Overview of the Chapter**

This chapter lays out the methodology for the dissertation involving two technology-imbued Spanish 300-level writing and grammar courses at a medium-sized public university in North America. Section 3.1 elaborates on qualitative inquiry and its associated epistemological and ontological assumptions. Section 3.2 discusses the trustworthiness of the study. Section 3.3 describes the ethical considerations of the study, the collaborative partnership I forged with the teacher of the third-year courses, and my role as both active and passive participant in my own research project. Section 3.4 includes the main research procedures for an ethnographic case study design. Section 3.5 outlines Grounded Theory and its application to the present dissertation. Section 3.6 gives the research procedures, and specifically details the sampling methods used, research sites, and participants. Section 3.7 outlines the data collection procedures, including online and direct participant observation, in-depth interviews, and textual documents. Section 3.8 shows how the grounded ethnographic and SFL frameworks were harnessed for data analysis. Section 3.9 reviews the study's design. Section 3.10 provides a chapter summary and specifies how the methods outlined in this chapter have been applied to address the overarching questions.

### **3.1 Qualitative Inquiry and Ontological Assumptions**

The present study draws on the interpretive epistemological position, which warrants the use of the qualitative, grounded ethnographic methods of participant observation and in-depth interviews. Such a position is based on the premise that we can infer knowledge of the social world by observing and experiencing real-life situations. Ethnographic observation views the

researcher as an interpreter of knowledge based on shared experience, someone who can facilitate the generation of data in specific social situations as they occur.

Different research paradigms rely on different terminologies to ensure the validity of their methods. The use of the term *validity*, however, may not always seem appropriate for use with interpretive research due to the fact that it originated in logical positivism and the hard sciences, whose researchers relied on quantitative means for testing the accuracy of their hypotheses. Alford (1998) describes positivism and interpretivism as two ends of the epistemological spectrum. Where the former stresses a single world and truth, the latter seeks to describe multiple, context-dependent realities. Mathematical manipulations of data, including regression, factor analysis, and structural equation modeling, were and continue to be commonly used techniques for validating claims based on numerical data. According to Winter (2000), validity is the tool of an essentially positivist epistemology. Nevertheless, the conceptualization of validity has evolved and it can now be seen as an argument supporting a particular interpretation of data (Chapelle, Enright, & Jamieson, 2008).

Validity in interpretive research is a central topic of discussion. In their quest to make the research process more public, Anfara, Brown, and Mangione (2002), for example, list several strategies that they have used for helping their graduate students increase the validity of their qualitative dissertations. These included (a) establishing and documenting a link between research questions and data sources, (b) theme and category development, and (c) triangulation of findings. Similarly, Creswell and Miller (2002) gave eight qualitative verification procedures, including (a) prolonged engagement and persistent highlight, (b) triangulation, (c) peer review or debriefing, (d) negative case analysis, (e) clarifying researcher bias, (f) member checks, (g) thick description, and (h) external audits.

Fundamental epistemological differences have led quantitative and qualitative researchers to adopt different terms to express their overarching quest for truth. Despite their differences, most would agree that validity is about the same idea: finding and expressing truth. Both quantitative and qualitative paradigms seek similar outcomes and in this respect, “when dealing with issues that involve human thought processes, which are affected by the beliefs and values of the individual, we as researchers must understand that there’s more to the answer than a number between one and seven” (Thomson, 2011, p. 80). Qualitative research strives to impart that understanding.

Qualitative and quantitative researchers share the goal of legitimization, but the ways in which they go about doing so are different. Despite criticisms of qualitative research as “unscientific,” the differences between positivist and interpretive research have actually facilitated the latter’s contribution to scientific progress (Le Compte & Goetz, 1982). Such differences include the way that each goes about formulating a research problem (e.g., *a priori* versus *en route*), the nature of their research goals, and the application of their results.

Quantitative research is conducted under the premise that experimental methods can be used to measure causal relationships between variables (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). From a positivist perspective, the world and data can be measured in a quantifiable way. Researchers strive for objectivity in order to tightly control different variables and determine cause-effect relationships. As Bogdan and Bicklen (2006) note, quantitative researchers “employ words such as ‘variables’, ‘populations’ and ‘results’ as part of their daily vocabulary” (p. 4) but these terms’ meanings change within neighboring paradigms.

Quantitative scientific methodologies “neutralize by design what is variable and individual (in human behavior or otherwise), [and] produce epiphenominally uniform accounts”

(Atkinson, 2002, p. 536). Whereas experimental research aims to eliminate as many of the extraneous contextual factors as possible, ethnography includes a series of interpretive methods that emphasize the interplay among details in a situated naturalistic context. The power of ethnography lies in the researcher's clear depiction of research methods, analytic categories, and phenomena in a given research site. These "thick" descriptions must be done so clearly that they may serve as grounds for comparing the behavior of similar and dissimilar groups (Geertz, 1973, p. 9).

Stereotypically, experimental research has been referred to as "hypothesis testing" and ethnography as "hypothesis generating" (Charmaz, 2006). The ways that ethnographers seek to establish validity are diverse. Grounded in a research site, an ethnographer's main goal is to find a theory to explain the data. Rather than statistical calculations to generalize findings to a larger population, ethnographers use methods such as participant observation, in-depth interviews, and textual documents to compare and transfer their discoveries.

Studies in the field of computer-assisted language learning (CALL) that draw upon an ontological position that sees evidence as socially knowable by participating in or experiencing natural, real-life settings are in the minority. Such research is needed, as it prioritizes the generation of qualitative data by observing the interactions, actions, and behaviors of people as well as the way that such individuals interpret these and act on them (Mason, 1996). With this in mind, it will be restated here that the epistemological stance of the present dissertation draws upon an interpretive, social constructivist paradigm and grounded, ethnographic methods. Since this position rejects the idea that objectivity as a researcher can ever be truly attained (nor is it desirable), the following discussion will provide a rationale for how this study ensured the necessary quality standards.

### 3.2 Trustworthiness of the Study

The proposed study has maximized trustworthiness and credibility by carefully documenting all steps of the research process, from the preliminary details of data collection to the deep “thick” descriptions of linguistic data, analysis, and interpretation. Many strategies were used in order to increase the dependability of the study, including (a) prolonged engagement in the field, (b) data triangulation, (c) theoretical sampling, and (d) member checks.

Here, the differences in epistemological orientation between positivist and interpretive research must be kept in mind. Whereas the former strives to achieve objectivity, the latter makes no claims about the researcher being able to excise herself from the research context. Given these differences, I have strived to document this process in a way that the reader can decide for him or herself about the claims and interpretations provided.

Interpretive research is conducted with the assumption that data generation methods are in themselves never inherently unbiased or objective. Such issues are really about the dependability and credibility of qualitative research. As qualitative research has grown in popularity, researchers in numerous fields have struggled not only to devise trustworthy criteria against which they can measure the quality of their research, but also to develop terminology that can express such criteria and differentiate it from that used by logical positivism.

Stewart (1998), whose perspective on ethnography comes from the field of general education, includes terminology such as veracity (i.e., validity), objectivity (i.e., reliability), perspicacity (i.e., generalizability) and other qualitative criteria. These terms are elaborated below.

**3.2.1 Veracity.** Issues surrounding the veracity of qualitative research, as defined by Mason (1996), are “contingent upon the ‘end product’ including a demonstration of how that

interpretation was reached” (p. 150). Such practices offered no easy shortcuts, but rather demand careful and painstaking collection of data and analysis.

The coding of audio transcripts and field notes, for example, was done with utmost care. Using grounded methods, I avoided forcing data into preexisting categories and tried to remain open to emergent themes and sub-themes as well as to contradictory evidence. Conversations with several key informants took place periodically throughout the semester in order to understand their perspectives on language learning with technology, tasks used in the Spanish 301 courses, and their own language development in Spanish. These interviews were also opportunities for me to gain reflexivity about the emerging themes. Engaging in discussion with participants enabled me to determine whether or not they agreed with my interpretations of the data and provided me with opportunities to constantly refine my developing hunches. These ‘member checks’ facilitated subsequent reorganization of themes as well as theoretical sampling to fill out new categories.

**3.2.2 Objectivity.** Rather than being synonymous with lack of bias, objectivity in interpretive research entails ensuring that data collection and analysis has been careful, thorough, honest, and accurate. In my case, it meant making sure that I took measures to make sure that I did not act carelessly, invent or misrepresent data during recording and analysis. This entailed making sure that the interviews and observations were conducted in such a way that I could remain open to what participants’ behaviors and words demonstrated.

As Anfara et al. (2002) argue, objectivity must be clearly documented in the write-up as well as supplemented with qualitative checks and balances. One example of objectivity as it was carried out in the present study is the constant refinement of interview questions to closely correspond with the original overarching questions. At various points throughout the semester, I



made adaptations to the interview questions and submitted an ongoing IRB review in order to legitimize the data collection process.

**3.2.3 Perspicacity.** In the hustle and bustle of everyday life with the pressure to meet deadlines, researchers may be tempted to do cursory analyses of the codes and categories within their data to discover some underlying theory. From the perspective of an interpretive researcher, perspicacity meant fighting the urge to rush the process. It also entailed reflexivity, or my being able to put myself in the shoes of my key informants in order to understand their different points of view and their personal and psychological states.

Lincoln (1995) defines critical subjectivity or perspicacity as “the ability to enter an altered state of consciousness or ‘high-quality awareness’ for the purpose of understanding with great discrimination subtle differences in the personal and psychological states of others” (p. 283). Attempting to include multiple interpretations and continually documenting the steps of the research process in order to justify my interpretations were several steps that I took toward increasing the rigor of my qualitative research practices. Upholding such standards enabled this qualitative, interpretive research project to go places that a quantitative project could not.

**3.2.4 Qualitative criteria.** How can qualitative inquiry get at what is important while still upholding quality standards? According to Lincoln (1995), this question is not easily answered, as the criteria against which to judge such research are still emerging. Anfara et al. (2002) claim that it is not the criteria themselves that are absent, but rather the commitment needed to uphold these standards. For the latter, the problem lies in the failure of qualitative researchers to clearly document and disclose their research processes and steps.

According to Smith (1993), interpretive researchers view qualitative criteria as a list of abstract standards rather than see them as an open-ended evolving record of characteristics about

what research should do and be like. There is not always agreement as to whether these criteria exist, nor how one should go about evaluating them. In much quantitative research, the quest for validity ends up overshadowing other equally if not more important issues.

Despite the recent proliferation of qualitative studies in the field of applied linguistics, researchers are still coming to a consensus about how to establish and assess the criteria for qualitative inquiry. An example of this can be seen in the multiple revisions of the *TESOL Quarterly* Guidelines for Qualitative Research (Chapelle & Duff, 2003). Clearly, the decisions surrounding what aspects should be considered key when conducting good qualitative research in the field of applied linguistics are complex. These issues entail questions such as: Should researchers indeed be striving for an established universal list of criteria against which qualitative research writing should be measured? And, if so, how and who should be in charge of choosing this criteria?

Such questions have led applied linguists to grapple with the daunting task of evaluating or documenting the excellence of qualitative, interpretive research in our field. The maintenance of quality standards begets questions about the lengths to which we, as qualitative researchers, are willing to go to produce a well-crafted work. These and other ethical questions, including the role of the researcher in the qualitative process will now be discussed.

### **3.3 My Role in Researching and Teaching**

This section outlines my role as both researcher, teacher, and participant in my dissertation study. As Spradley (1980) explains, ethnographic researchers often go back and forth between being passive, present at the research site without interacting with other people, and active, trying to involve one's self in the social practices or activities in which people are engaging. During the semester-long observation of technology-infused Spanish 300-level

courses, my participation in the research context varied between being a passive observer in the classroom to being an active participant. This role evolved alongside my developing relationships with the students and teacher. My goal was to effectively collect data, while at the same time not to disturb the students and teacher. If possible, I wanted to have a positive impact on the classroom community, develop relationships with all participants, and help the teacher in any way I could.

As ethnographers may find themselves in a given research setting for a prolonged period of time, they may have the potential to impact greatly the participants they encounter. In this sense, I made it my responsibility to ensure that my impact on the teacher, students, and classroom environment was as positive as possible and that the individual student participants as well as the teacher and administration in the Department of World Languages and Cultures were not disadvantaged by my presence. Making sure to first authorize the dissertation project goals with the Chair of the Department as well as the teacher of the Spanish 301 courses, I was able to establish a mutual relationship of trust and respect that enabled me to collect data in a way that was aligned with the overall goals of the department.

In the beginning of the semester, I signed a contract with the teacher, which ensured that: (a) the teacher had the right to end her participation in the study if she felt that it was hindering her students' learning, (b) only the students who agreed to participate would do so (i.e., the teacher would not force students to participate and students could cancel their participation at any time if they did not feel comfortable about the study), (c) communication between the teacher and I was key (i.e., I vowed to inform her of every step of data collection prior to its collection), and (d) I would tell the teacher if I was planning to make an administrative request (e.g., speak with another faculty member or administrator about her classes). At any point in the

project, the teacher reserved the right to approve each step of the data collection process and cancel her and her students' participation in the study if she felt that her class was being negatively affected. A copy of our teacher-researcher contract can be found in Appendix A.

Before data collection began, I had been developing a professional relationship with the teacher of the two Spanish 301 course sections. Three years prior to the study, the teacher had mentored me as I taught Spanish 301 for the first time. In addition to her PowerPoint Presentations and teaching materials (e.g., worksheets, tests, etc.), the teacher shared with me her vision for the Spanish 301 courses. Because she saw the course as a bridge between what students learn at the lower levels and what they need to do in the upper levels of language study, she emphasized that this was a key opportunity to prime students and prepare them to do the types of extensive reading and writing required in the upper levels. In turn, I shared with the teacher my belief that technology could aid in students' practice of certain textual genres covered in the course. In this vein, I developed teaching materials to be used for pre-, while-, and post-reading activities to be used in conjunction with the course textbook *Hacia niveles avanzados* (Steigler & Jiménez, 2007) to understand and construct written genres, such as the news report and the expository essay. This web-based teaching unit is open-source and can currently be found at: <http://people.clas.ufl.edu/jgleas/projects/>.

The semester before data collection, I approached the teacher with my idea to collect data for my dissertation in her sections of Spanish 301. Specifically, I wanted to help her integrate technology into these sections in order to help her achieve her goals and vision of the course. We wanted it to be a mutually beneficial relationship. She would enable me to collect a rich source of classroom data for my research project and I would support her as she integrated technology-based tasks into her courses. I also had the opportunity to substitute teach the courses several

times throughout the semester in order to assist the teacher while she was away presenting at two international conferences.

Although I did not play a role in the creation of the tasks that the teacher chose to carry out, I did help her gain knowledge and practice with two of the technological tools that she eventually decided to use in the courses: Netsupport and Google Docs. During 10 pre-semester interviews, the teacher and I brainstormed about how technology might play a beneficial role in these courses. We also took a trip to the computer lab where classes would take place and we had a technology specialist provide a demonstration of how to use the Netsupport system.

Once the semester of data collection began, my presence in the course remained consistent. I was able to attend all but three of the 50 classes that took place over the course of the semester. As such, I believe that students saw me as (a) an additional Spanish teacher in their classroom (e.g., they often asked me questions about language) as well as (b) a fellow student. Students knew that I was a graduate student completing my requirements toward the degree and I told them that they would be doing me a great favor to help me, a fellow student, finish my degree.

On the first day of class, I introduced the study to the students and asked them to read and sign an informed consent document. I also told them that they could decide to participate at any time if they did not feel comfortable giving their immediate consent. Likewise, they could decide to sign the informed consent document and subsequently decide not to participate. Approximately one third of the class signed the informed consent document immediately and another third signed the document later that same week. Approximately one third of the students across the two sections of Spanish 301 did not agree to participate. The informed consent document, which can also be observed in Appendix A, also gave students the choice of different

levels of participation. Students could opt for (a) Full Participation (this included giving me access to all of their online and face-to-face interactions, copies of their assignments and tests, permission to audio-tape their classroom interactions as well as my interviews with them), (b) Stage 1 Participation (this included access to their online and face-to-face class interactions only), (c) Stage 2 Participation (this included access to their online and face-to-face class interactions, and audio-taping of interviews), (d) Stage 3 Participation (this included access to their online and face-to-face class interactions, audio-taping of interviews, and copies of their assignments but no copies of their tests), or (e) No Participation. It was expected that by giving students this flexibility, that they would feel more comfortable and informed about my research practices and presence within their classrooms.

As the semester progressed, the Spanish 301 course was divided into two major types of lessons depending on their physical location: those that took place in the traditional classroom (Mondays) and those that took place in the language laboratory (Wednesdays and Fridays). During a typical Monday culture lesson, the desks were arranged in a semi-circle configuration facing the white board and slide projector. The teacher typically stood in front of the class to provide an initial presentation and then had students work in pairs or small groups with the people next to them. Oftentimes I sat at one end of the semi-circle, most often engaging with the people who were near me. On occasion, I raised my hand to participate in class discussion or the teacher prompted me to give my opinion, for example on dialectical or cultural differences between Mexico and Chile, her country of specialty and my own. In both course sections, I tended to sit next to and work with the same group of students. In the first section, this included Jack, and two other participants who did not become key informants. In the second section, this often included Cerise, Isla, and Caleb. The two different course sections during Monday culture

lessons had two very different student dynamics. Whereas the first tended to be livelier, with more students participating in the discussion, the second was more reserved with only a few common speakers.

The Wednesday and Friday lessons in the lab were divided into grammar and writing days, respectively. Here, desks with computers were arranged in rows perpendicular to the teacher's desk and two projection screens. On grammar days, the teacher typically faced the students, controlling and summoning their computer screens to the large projection screens at front of the classroom. I usually sat at a computer located at the opposite end of the classroom at the end of one of the rows.

On writing days, the teacher typically gave an initial presentation to the class and then allowed students to work individually or in pairs using computer-mediated tasks using tools such as the synchronous word processor and chat box in Google Docs. Later, she circulated the classroom, reading students' writing over their shoulders and giving students both oral and written feedback. Oftentimes, more than one student raised their hand at one time and in these situations, I was able to help the teacher by providing the students with another source of one-on-one feedback. Most of the time, however, I simply observed students f2f and online as they worked on their writing in Google Docs. Here, I took ample field notes that captured their online writing processes using a software program called *Jing* for screen capture. Occasionally a student used the chat box to ask me a question and I had the chance to offer them feedback or suggestions on their writing.

As an ethnographic researcher, it was essential that throughout the research cycle I asked myself questions about the selection of ethnographic classroom data and what I hoped to contribute to the field. In the case of the blended Spanish 301 classrooms, ethnographic

interpretive research enabled me to gain a deep understanding of Spanish learning in one type of BL course. This included an understanding of the full social context of these classrooms, which will ultimately allow me to engender more effective ways of learning a language with technology. I believe that the reflective approach I took to grounded ethnography and my collaborative research relationship with the teacher enabled me to positively impact the micro-worlds of the Spanish teachers and learners. My role, as an applied linguist helping a third-year Spanish teacher shape her course, made possible a unique and highly valuable teaching-research relationship. Although I was not directly involved in the creation of the tasks that the teacher planned and carried out, I was able to support the teacher by offering her advice about the types of technology to help her accomplish her goals. The methodological implications of this type of researcher-teacher partnership will be examined in greater detail in Chapter 5.

### **3.4 Ethnographic Case Study**


Contrary to representations of case study in many research manuals, including those in applied linguistics, case study in itself does not refer to a method per se but rather a research tradition (Casanave, 2010). According to da Silva (2004), “a case study is a way of learning, not a method of proving” (p. 251). Creswell (2007) asserts that case study involves an approach, either qualitative or quantitative, in which the object of study is singular (e.g., an individual person, group, or community) and bounded, in the sense that the researcher’s interest is on the particular rather than on the general. Multiple case studies are also common in which two, three, or several linked cases are examined and potentially held up for comparison.

Unlike other research approaches, case studies can involve almost any type of data. However, for qualitative inquiry, oftentimes data are collected over some period of time and in



some depth. According to Harklau (2005), some case studies involve ethnographic data, however, not all ethnographies are case studies.

Spradley (1980, p. 30) captures the potential scope of single and multiple case study research in ethnography as a continuum from the macro, operating at the level of the complex society all the way down to the micro, which analyzes a single social situation. This idea is shown in Figure 3.1.

Scope of Research	Social Units Studied
	Complex society
	Multiple communities
	A single community study
	Multiple social institutions
	A single social institution
	Multiple social situations
	A single social situation
Macro-ethnography	
Micro-ethnography	

*Figure 3.1.* Spradley's variations in research scope.

“The purpose of ethnography is to come to a deeper understanding of how individuals view and participate in their own social and cultural worlds” (Harklau, 2005, p. 179). Often involving other data sources, such as participant interviews, field notes, and recordings, the truly distinctive feature of classical ethnography is that of participant observation. Some argue that although the use of in-depth interviews, focus groups, and textual material collection may be invaluable qualitative methods, they do not on their own constitute ethnography in the absence of participant observation. Participant observation generally involves spending large amounts of

time in a given site and coming to learn the perspectives, attitudes, worldviews, and values of people within those settings.

Two different philosophical stances toward ethnography are prevalent. Early ethnographers, for example, tended to draw on the status of the science of the social while striving toward objectivity, giving special attention to methodology and study replication. Contemporary ethnographies in this tradition tend to include quantifiable data and statistical analyses.

Other theorists see ethnography through an interpretive or phenomenological lens, claiming that all facts are in themselves just interpretations. From this standpoint, human beings and the social worlds they inhabit are essentially different due to peoples' ability to use language and other ways of making meaning. Thus, the social world cannot be boiled down to the merely observable, but rather it is created, understood, negotiated, and interpreted by the individuals within it. In order to uncover knowledge about the social world, we ethnographers must obtain access to people's impressions.

Post-modern approaches portray ethnography as a literary-like, interpretive venture, rejecting scientific epistemology and its post-positivist roots. Post-modern ethnography, therefore, tends to reject the classical scientific notions of validity, reliability, and generalization, imploring researchers to question their privileged status and knowledge by striving toward reflexivity and examining both their participants' subjectivities as well as their own.

Richardson (2000) argues that two stances, the scientific as well as the literary, need to be considered in unison when evaluating the quality of ethnography. She lists five criteria that she uses when reviewing ethnographic papers or monographs, including if the manuscript (a) makes a substantive contribution, (a) has aesthetic merit, (c) impacts the reader personally, (d) expresses

a reality, (e) seems to represent a plausible account of lived-experience, and (f) if the author demonstrates reflexivity.

Hymes (1964) was the first to propose the notion of the ethnography of speaking, later referred to as the ethnography of communication (EOC). This strand of ethnography comes from linguistic anthropology and sociolinguistics rather than cultural anthropology and sociology. Scholars in this vein seek to counter cognitive and innativist views on writing and reading development.

Historically, EOC has been used to turn a situation that may at first seem exotic or foreign into something familiar and intelligible. As a method of discourse analysis, EOC rests on the notion that language is transmitted as a shared code within a speech community. This can be seen in studies that use EOC to uncover the communication acts most important among different societal groups (Carbaugh, 2005; Katriel, 1990; Sherzer, 1983). Seminal work in EOC has been conducted by Philipson (1975), who argued that individual speech communities determine the interpretations and appropriateness of a given speech act within a particular community.

In the field of sociology, Spradley (1979; 1980) has done seminal work on ethnography and participant observation. Participant observation allows that the researcher build his or her own hypotheses about the social practices that occur. For example, in the midst of the language classroom and later during ethnographic interviews with participants, I was able to check the plausibility of my emerging middle theories.

By eliciting participants' inner thoughts, perceptions, and knowledge, ethnographic interviews allow participants to construct their own theories of an activity as well as to reflect on the practices involved in making those theories concrete in their minds. Parallels have been drawn between the work of Spradley (1980), Goffman (1974), Mohan (1986) and Harré (1993),

all of which contain similar elements of theory and practice. Goffman's work in symbolic interactionism developed ethnography using interaction rituals and frames of linguistic and social behavior in different social contexts. Contemporaries in this branch include Gubrium (1988) and Silverman (1993).

Recent ethnographies exist of second and additional language learning and teaching in adult education and college (Atkinson, 2003; Atkinson & Ramanathan, 1995; Benson, 1989; Canagaraja, 1993; Flowerdew & Miller, 1995; Losey, 1997; Morita, 2000; Nelson & Carson, 1996; Nunan, 1996; Ramanathan, 1999; Spielman & Radnofsky, 2001) as well as those that examine the role of technology in these contexts, such as Burnett (1998), who looked at the effects of computers on FL classroom interaction, and Warschauer (1998), who examined computer use in an ESL composition classroom.

Ethnographies of L2 teaching and learning have used a variety of other data sources, including teacher lecture notes and handouts, annotated lesson plans, samples of textbooks and student-written materials, participant diaries and journals, dialog journals, elicited writing on target language attitudes, participant life history narratives, participant commentary on video recordings, member checks, focus groups, and questionnaires.

Ethnographic work on language and communication has been nothing if not eclectic, drawing on heterogeneous disciplinary and intellectual conventions. "Epistemological and methodological distinctions among EOC, interactionist sociolinguistic methods such as ethnomethodology, and discourse analytic methods deriving from conversation analysis and Hallidayan SFL have been obscured as these intellectual traditions have borrowed from one another" (Harklau, 2005, p. 184). In this way, Harklau (2005) and Davies (1995) agree that the true utility and merit of ethnography lies in the researchers' ability to situate their work within a

particular ethnographic and intellectual tradition. The present study thus, can be considered a multiple ethnographic case study involving two closely related social situations (two sections of a third-year Spanish grammar and composition). Given that these two social situations were governed by many of the same principles (e.g., same teacher, course objectives, assignments, classroom spaces, etc.), they were intricately linked and having two sections to compare offered me an additional source of data, which I used to confirm or refute my middle theories as they were constructed.

### **3.5 Grounded Theory**

Grounded theory (GT) is a systematic research methodology developed by sociologists Glaser and Strauss (1967). In the mid-twentieth century, GT attempted to build up the credibility of qualitative research, which at the time had been stigmatized as nonsystematic and nonrigorous (Blumer, 1940). Rather than beginning with a preconceived idea about the data, GT proponents called for a combination of inductive and deductive reasoning in order to generate conceptual categories that were firmly rooted in the data.

Grounded theory was an attempt to steer clear of common positivist methodologies, including theory verification, hypothesis testing, and parsimonious presentations of evidence, which had become the cornerstones of sociology research. By offering qualitative researchers a systematized means to break free from established theory, or “grand design” verification, it put the methodological tools of theory generation back into the hands of the researchers who were closest to their data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 15).

Grounded theory was put forth as a solution to many of the methodological enigmas of ethnography. Charmaz (2006) writes, “a potential problem with ethnographic studies is seeing data everywhere and nowhere, gathering everything and nothing...ethnographers who leave data

undigested seldom produce fresh insight and, sometimes, may not even complete their projects, despite years of toil” (p. 23). By providing ethnographers with inductive and deductive strategies for generating middle theories from their data, GT ethnographers are able to focus, structure, organize, and maintain better control over their research processes.

Battersby (1981) refers to grounded ethnography as “a strategy which utilizes the multi-instrument approach of the ethnographer to generate a thesis or picture of certain social processes” (p. 93). Two features of grounded ethnography include systematic data sampling and comparative analysis, providing a means by which the researcher can collect data and organize it into various categories to form the basis for further data collection. Consistent with traditional GT methods (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), comparative analysis eventually leads to theoretical saturation, where a delimited number of refined categories form the basis for the study.

Grounded ethnographic methods entail a set of powerful procedures for generating theory that is rooted in the realities of a particular research context. Other mechanisms of grounded ethnography include initial (open) coding, followed by focused, axial, and in vivo coding as well as the sorting and saturation of thematic categories. By systematically analyzing multiple sources of data, the same underlying principles behind the approach to validity as carried out in quantitative research traditions are put into play. Theoretical sampling and systematic coding, described in the following section, were harnessed in the present dissertation to increase the veracity of the project. Theoretical sampling goes hand-in-hand with systematic coding and triangulation to allow the ethnographer to diversify the types of evidence to support a particular interpretation. Theoretical sampling enabled me to modify my interview protocol and collect further data to fill out emerging categories pertaining to how technology and tasks were implemented in the blended Spanish 301 courses.

Specifically, I used triangulation of data by including three data collection methods including (a) direct and indirect (online) participant observation, (b) in-depth interviews, and (c) textual documents. I also harnessed theoretical triangulation by including ethnography, grounded theory methods, and systemic functional data analysis. Data were collected over time and involved multiple sections of Spanish 301 and their teacher. Several key informants became cornerstones in the study.

Indeed, the establishment of several key informants was critical for understanding multiple participants' views. According to Rieger (2007), key informants provide the ethnographer with an advantage in that they can extend her reach and illuminate meanings and behaviors that she might not otherwise be able to understand or explain. As knowledgeable participants, these individuals served as a way to check the information obtained from other informants and to verify my emerging hunches about the data.

Clearly, one of the very important key informants of my investigation was the teacher. In order to obtain permission to be a part of a particular instructor's course for an entire semester, a unique relationship of mutual trust and respect was needed—and quickly formed. Propitiously, this teacher was willing to include me as a participant-observer in her classrooms. By developing tasks and technology to be used in her classrooms, and by supporting her throughout the course planning and implementation, it was hoped that my presence as a researcher participant was beneficial. Conversations with the teacher about her views, expectations, and beliefs were crucial to my understanding and comparing classroom observations, textual documents, and interviews with other key student informants.

A grounded approach to ethnographic data collection, where analysis remained firmly rooted in the data, was the most appropriate means by which to understand the social practices of

language learning tasks. However, once the important issues involving these practices were constructed (e.g., the role of technology in blended Spanish 301 courses), I also needed a means of understanding how participants used language to build up their knowledge of content in the language classroom.

Grounded ethnographic methods, including theoretical sampling and systematic coding, coupled with a linguistic analysis using SFL at the discourse and clausal levels, provided the unique tools specially suited for the present dissertation project. Whereas traditional interpretations of GT may be opposed to using a theoretical framework such as SFL to help interpret results, I show that both GT practices and SFL-based discourse analysis were complementary for understanding the unique issues of language in the blended Spanish 301 classrooms.

### **3.6 Research Procedures**

The data for the present study were collected in and surrounding two 300-level blended Spanish grammar and composition courses. In this section, the sampling procedures, research sites, and participant profiles will be described.

**3.6.1 Sampling.** The present study employed both initial and theoretical sampling. For the initial sample of tasks and language, convenience sampling was used. Convenience sampling (or accidental or opportunity sampling) has been defined as sampling that is readily available and convenient given a population that is close at hand (De Veaux, Velleman, & Bock, 2012). After initial sampling using a convenience sample, theoretical sampling was carried out in order to fill out emerging categories. Charmaz (2006) explains an important difference between initial and theoretical sampling: “Initial sampling...is where you start whereas theoretical sampling directs you where to go” (p. 100). Consistent with grounded, interpretive methodologies, theoretical



sampling was advantageous during the data collection and analysis cycle in order to fill out categories of codes and explore the legitimacy of those categories. This was especially relevant for classifying language-learning tasks into types as well as for determining the role of technology in the courses.

Hood elaborates on her original (1983) description of theoretical sampling, describing it as what “allows you to tighten the corkscrew or the hermeneutic spiral so that you end up with a theory that perfectly matches your data” (Hood, as cited in Charmaz, 2006, p. 101). Theoretical sampling was undertaken later on in the semester, once middle theories had emerged from coded categories of observations, interviews, and documents. This accompanied a reevaluation of IRB protocol in order to incorporate additional interview questions. Once having established a tentative category, theoretical sampling allowed me to follow my hunches about the data to elaborate and refine developing categories. At this point, I also asked specific key informants for additional interviews to engage in member checks in which I was able to talk more in detail with them about emerging themes.

**3.6.2 Research sites and context.** The observational data for this study were collected in two different research contexts as listed in Table 3.1. Both of these courses involved the teaching of Spanish as a foreign language with technology at a medium-sized North American university.

Table 3.1

*The Two Research Contexts*

Course	Modes	Days / Week	Weeks	Min / Week
Spanish 301 / 1	f2f + online	3	15	150
Spanish 301 / 2	f2f + online	3	15	150

Spanish Grammar and Composition (Spanish 301) was a course in Spanish written communication that emphasized the development of reading and writing skills necessary to

comprehend, discuss, and produce authentic Spanish texts. It was a newly redesigned blended course that met f2f three times a week, Monday, Wednesday, and Friday, for 50 minutes at a time and employed a range of technologies in a f2f mode.

***Learning outcomes.*** The learning outcomes, as listed in the course syllabus, consisted of the following: (a) to demonstrate ability to write coherently two types of essays: an expository composition and an argumentative paper in the target language, (b) to recognize, define, and use vocabulary related to texts and or writings, including transitional expressions and conjunctions, and (c) to demonstrate through written work reasonable control over several grammatical moods and verb tenses, including the indicative mood (present, preterit, imperfect, present perfect) and the subjunctive mood (present, imperfect, present perfect, adverbial clauses), as well as the use of the infinitive, *ser* and *estar*, object pronouns, relative pronouns, agreement of nouns and adjectives, spelling, and accents, and (d) to demonstrate an understanding of cultural values, beliefs, and ideologies of the Hispanic world.

***Class format and dynamics.*** Over the course of the semester, students in Spanish 301 engaged in reading and listening, writing assignments (including two compositions), web-based homework, assessments such as online quizzes and exams, and class discussions. Class dynamics included a combination of collaborative work in pairs and small group for both grammar and composition activities as well as peer-editing workshops in the language laboratory. Tasks were designed with technology in mind in order to allow students to support each other in their writing and improve their editing skills. Along with attendance, an essential part of obtaining a high participation grade in this class was the timely completion of all assignments.

**3.6.3 Participants.** The majority of student participants in the study were undergraduates enrolled in one of two sections of Spanish 301. As students in a 300-level Spanish grammar and

composition course, most were pursuing at least a Spanish minor specialization and in a few cases a major. All spoke English as their first language and four of them were Spanish heritage speakers. Their ages ranged from 18 to 42 years old with an average age of 20 years. Of the 15 students who participated in interviews, nine of them became key informants who were interviewed multiple times. Information about these primary individuals is given in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2

*Key Student Informant Information*

<b>Pseudonym</b>	<b>Age</b>	<b>Sem of Spanish</b>	<b>Status</b>	<b>L1</b>	<b>Major/Minor</b>
Andy	18	9	Freshman	English	Engineering/Spanish
Caleb	19	9	Freshman	English	Engineering/Spanish
Cerise	19	7	Sophomore	English/Spanish	Global systems
Craig	19	10	Sophomore	English	Engineering/Spanish
Isla	20	3	Junior	English/Spanish	Design
Jack	27	3	Graduate	English	Education/Spanish
Kerry	19	12	Sophomore	English	Business/Spanish
Mary	19	10	Freshman	English	Engineering/Spanish
Mike	19	13	Freshman	English	Computers/Spanish

Six of these key participants, the teacher and five students, will now be further described due to their highly valuable contributions to the project.

**The teacher.** The teacher of both sections of Spanish 301 was a key informant in the study. Born in Mexico, she was an Assistant Professor of Spanish, specializing in the literature of Equatorial Guinea. She had over 20 years of teaching experience and had taught the course five times before. I, the researcher, had known her for four years and had had the pleasure of working with her on other projects, including the previous development of a web-based teaching unit for Spanish 301. The teacher was an excellent educator as evidenced by her exceedingly positive end-of semester course evaluations and high rapport with students. Many students confided in

me during interviews that they greatly enjoyed her classes as well as her teaching style and thought of her as a skilled teacher and caring person.

**Andy.** Andy was an in-state freshman student who was working toward a major in engineering and a minor in Spanish. He frequently mentioned his older sister, who had majored in Spanish at the same university several years before, as being one of his primary motivators for continuing with his own Spanish study. He came into the course with eight semesters of Spanish high school study. Having taken a semester off between high school and college, Andy said that he thought the Spanish 301 grammar and composition course was an excellent refresher. He appreciated the technology used in class, especially Google Docs, which he had used in other classes but never for language learning. As the semester went on, Andy provided valuable insights to the project. His contributions helped me to understand the role of technology in learning to write in Spanish for students with very busy schedules. For him, the moments in class to focus on his writing techniques were extremely valuable.

**Cerise.** Cerise was an out-of-state sophomore student who was working toward a major in global resource systems. As a heritage speaker of Spanish with both parents coming from Panama, Cerise had a background knowledge of a Hispanic culture and extended experience in a foreign country. Unlike many of the other heritage speakers of Spanish in the Spanish 301 course, Cerise had experience learning Spanish in a formal classroom setting as well. Nevertheless, she described her main challenge as that of grammar learning. She expressed being aware of the fact that her oral Spanish ability was not of a formal variety and attentively took extensive notes when the teacher would discuss grammar concepts in class. Despite her self-professed challenges, Cerise frequently contributed to class discussion by raising her hand to participate during the cultural classes.

**Jack.** Jack was one of two graduate students in the course. He had obtained a bachelor's degree in art and was also a painter and a cyclist. Jack was a self-taught Spanish speaker with numerous Hispanic friends. Jack told me that he had also spent extended periods in Spanish-speaking countries. He had picked up the language and much of the colloquial terminology used among his friends. He also was aware of many cultural customs and Hispanic traditions. Jack and I met regularly during the semester to speak in Spanish. In this way, it was a beneficial relationship for both of us, as he got additional Spanish conversation practice, and I got to talk with him about the dissertation project. Having had experience working in a dual-immersion Spanish-English school, he was at the university obtaining his teaching license. Despite the fact that the Spanish 301 class was his first experience with formal language instruction, he showed an excellent level of Spanish language ability.

**Kerry.** Kerry was an in-state sophomore getting her bachelor's degree in Business with a minor in Spanish. She expressed her father's interest in the Spanish language as having played an integral role in why she herself decided to continue with the language after high school. Kerry was also a previous student of mine, so we had a high rapport developed from the beginning. Kerry's contributions were some of the most reflective and insightful in that she was able to express for me her rationale for many of her preferences and theories about what worked in the classroom and what could be improved. With over six years of formal classroom experience learning Spanish, her contributions to the project were momentous. Her upbeat and positive personality made probing for more information a delight.

**Mike.** Mike was an out-of-state freshman working toward a major in computer science and a minor in Spanish. Having come from an excellent high school Spanish program, he described the majority of Spanish 301 as a review. Nevertheless, he also appreciated the focus on

writing since he considered that his weakest area. Mike was another student with over six years of classroom Spanish learning, and thus also had very insightful views of the tasks and technology that were harnessed in the classroom. He expressly liked Google Docs for working on compositions as well as cultural discussions. He, like Cerise, was always willing to offer oral contributions to the conversations about Hispanic culture.

### 3.7 Data Collection Procedures

The data collection procedures for the dissertation study consisted of both online and in-class observations of the Spanish 301 blended courses. Several in-depth interviews with the teacher were conducted before, during, and after the semester had ended. Several interviews with each of the key informants described in the previous section were also conducted. The important documents collected included the teacher's PowerPoint Presentations (PPTs) used for instruction in both sections of Spanish 301, online assignments submitted through the Blackboard™ platform, and end-of-semester student course evaluations provided by the teacher. Table 3.3 outlines these procedures including the numbers of classes observed and interviews carried out.

Table 3.3

#### *The Database*

	Observations	Interviews	Field Notes	Text Documents
Spanish 301 / 1	42	14	√	PPTs, texts
Spanish 301 / 2	42	16	√	PPTs, texts
Teacher		20		
Total	70 hours	~50 hours		

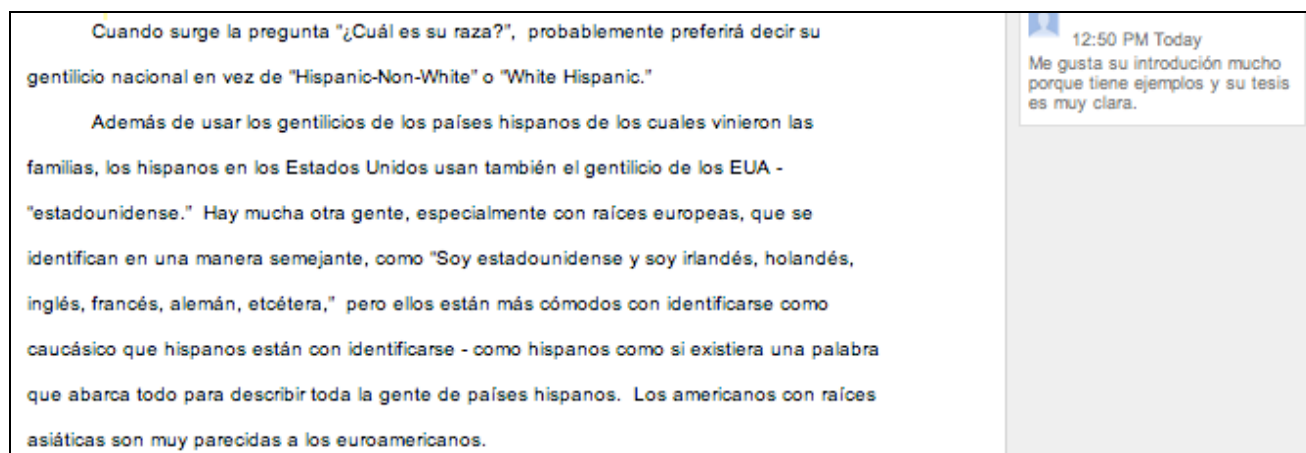
**3.7.1 Observations.** Mason (1996) outlines several reasons for electing participant observation as a methodological choice. Among them are the interpretive researcher-observer's willingness to exert an influence on the participants and their context. Unlike positivist research, which strives toward objectivity, interpretive researchers use being a part of the research site as an

opportunity to gain an in-depth understanding that would allow for a “thick” description (Geertz, 1973) of the research context.

Observation in conjunction with other data collection procedures provided a window into participants’ ideas and attitudes which other methods, including observation or interviews alone, would have been unable to provide. Asking students questions about what they thought (or knew) was supplemented by observing their behaviors (what they did in class). The doing/known pair accompanied by observation and confirmed or discarded by subsequent interviews allowed me to generate my own “middle theories” (Charmaz, 2006) about how participants behaved and reflected.

The observations of the Spanish 301 blended courses served two main purposes. The first was to allow an increased understanding of the types of tasks that students carried out in the different course delivery modes. The second was to meet and get to know the students so as to follow up observations with in-depth interviews. Over the course of the semester, 84 class observations were conducted over two class sections, 12 of which I taught as the teacher’s replacement while she was away at professional conferences.

These in-class observations were audio-taped using three audio recorders set up throughout the room. Audiovisual information from online tasks on Wednesdays and Fridays was captured using the online screen capturing software Jing™. One such image can be seen in Figure 3.2.



*Figure 3.2.* Screenshot of one writing task carried out in Google Docs.

All audio archives from these classes were formatted into .mp3 files and transcribed, totaling over 70 hours of files. To supplement the recordings, I took detailed field notes during class observations, sketching the layout of the f2f classroom in order to capture information about how and which students worked together. The names of the participants, in addition to any extra information that came up during the actual carrying out of language learning tasks, were noted. During class time, various discourse features and task types were captured. Tasks ranged from small-group and paired interactions among and between students to large-group direct interactions between the instructor and individual students.

During observations, I sat amongst the students for the audio-recorded tasks and interacted with them to an appropriate degree, trying not interrupt or distract them unless they specifically asked me a question. In the cases when they asked me a question, I responded and participated as much as I thought was suitable in order not to interrupt the flow of the class. Such instances happened relatively frequently as the semester progressed, as students got to know me better and became more comfortable with my presence in their class.

**3.7.2 Interviews.** Spradley (1979) defines the ethnographic interview as a “particular type of speech event” (p. 55), which follows certain cultural rules for starting, stopping, turn-taking,



question-asking and answering, pausing, and even how close you are to be in proximity to the other person. In a review of ethnographic studies carried out in the field of applied linguistics, Talmy (2010) writes that much research, both qualitative and quantitative, uses interviews as a means for accessing and presenting participants values, belief systems, perceptions, attitudes, and experiences. Emphasizing their flexibility, utility, and convenience, he presents various studies involving qualitative interview methods and shows how each can be extremely diverse in terms of topic, theoretical framework, research methods, and representations of data and analysis.

Talmy contrasts research interviews as they are commonly viewed as a mere data collection instrument with those used as a social practice. Researchers that conceive of interviews as the latter tend to treat the interview as a site for investigation in and of itself, rather than a resource for extracting data from a one-voiced respondent. He argues that the social practice of interviewing considers data to be co-constructed between interviewers and interviewees, where the data do not speak for themselves and actual analysis depends on the negotiation of meaning between speakers. In this sense, social-practice interviews are process-oriented and not only answer questions about the ‘what’ but also about the ‘how.’ Focusing solely on the content or the ‘what’ of the interview can mislead readers by showcasing one side of the story as an objective or subjective reality. Oftentimes such representation occurs in decontextualized, stand-alone quotes of respondents’ answers, which appear as direct reports having little analysis or evidence of the social interaction in which they were produced. For such an analysis, the presence of the interviewer as well as his or her own voice is absent, as are the power dynamics between the speakers. These omissions can result in a misleading, one-dimensional portrayal of the interaction.

Talmy (2010), among others (cf. Elwood & Martin, 2000; Gubrium, 1988; Weiss, 1994), argues that greater attention must be paid to the theories of the interview that qualitative researchers draw on, regardless of their epistemological orientation. It is advisable that such researchers adopt an increased perspicacity about the interview methods that they used, the role of the interviewer in such research, the person behind the interviewee, and the status given to interview data as well as to its analysis and representation.

Adopting the definition of an interview as a social practice, this dissertation viewed interviews as having both a dual action and reflection component. These instances were opportunities for speakers to reflect upon both what they knew as well as what they did in the Spanish 301 classrooms. After several weeks of in-class participation, I informally asked for volunteer students who would be willing to discuss their experiences in the blended Spanish 301 courses in an interview. This procedure was repeated throughout the semester several times with the nine key informants described above and as consistent with theoretical sampling procedures. The number and duration of interviews with key informants is shown in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4

*Key Informant Interviews*

<b>Pseudonym</b>	<b>Number of Interviews</b>	<b>Total Time</b>
Teacher	20	32 hours, 28 min
Andy	3	59 min
Caleb	2	49 min
Cerise	3	2 hours, 51 min
Craig	2	22 min
Isla	2	1 hour, 17 min
Jack	9	7 hours, 50 min
Kerry	3	2 hours
Mary	3	48 min
Mike	3	1 hour, 32 min
<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>50 hours, 56 min</b>

As one can see from the table, a total of 50 interviews were conducted with key informants over the course of the semester, totaling over 50 hours of transcribed audio files. Added to this were four additional interviews with students who ended up not becoming key informants due to limited time availability.

Before the course began, 10 preliminary interview/planning sessions were conducted with the teacher from the Spanish 301 courses. These were moments to talk about the teacher's goals and expectations for the course. Topics explored course aims, contents, tasks, and technologies, to name a few. During teacher interviews 1-10, the researcher collaborated with the teacher to reconceptualize the course based their mutual evaluation of how it had resulted in previous years. Interviews 11-18 included reflections that occurred between the researcher and the teacher at some point during the semester while class was in session. During the semester, the interviews became debriefing sessions and provided opportunities for the teacher to make modifications to the course as she saw fit. The final two interviews took place after the course had ended and focused on the results of having implemented the new class format and technology. These interviews later served as the basis for understanding the implications of how technology had been integrated into the blended Spanish 301 courses. They also fulfilled the purpose of reflecting on the new course format, implementation, and results. Without such a rich source of data, many of the revelations that occurred could not have been brought to light.

**3.7.3 Textual documents.** Oftentimes in historical qualitative research, documents have been collected as archival texts and artifacts. Ethnographic research in the field of applied linguistics has also incorporated a variety of textual documents, including teacher lecture notes and handouts, annotated lesson plans, samples of textbooks and student-written materials, participant diaries, and journals (Harklau, 2005).

The documents used in this study consisted of teacher PowerPoint Presentations (PPTs), assignment sheets used to guide students' tasks in the f2f and online delivery modes, and end-of-semester student course evaluations. I used these documents to compare the ways in which contents were presented to the students, the types of tasks that were carried out, and students' reactions to the course in general.

### **3.8 Data Analysis**

In addition to the grounded ethnographic tools, the linguistic analysis of data for the dissertation drew on two models that relate to and have been informed by the field of systemic functional linguistics (SFL): Register (Knowledge Structure) analysis and APPRAISAL analysis.

**3.8.1 Grounded ethnography.** Systematic coding practices are the trademark of grounded approaches to analysis. Coding consisted of (a) initial coding of field notes, interview transcripts, and other textual documents, and was followed by (b) focused coding, which enabled the initial selection of codes to be compared and tested against extensive data. Using this approach enabled the comparison of participants' experiences, actions, and interpretations. (c) In vivo coding allowed me to adopt participants' verbatim terminology in order to stay close to their particular contextual meanings. Choosing to use participants' own words helped to preserve their original nuances. These expressions served as symbolic markers of the participants' perceived realities.

Rather than forcing data into predetermined categories, grounded theory (GT) analysis gave me the flexibility to approach my data openly. In order to avoid forcing my own preexisting notions onto emerging categories, grounded ethnographic analysis emphasized reflexivity by encouraging me to construct conceptual categories from the patterns that I discovered in my data.

One of the noted criticisms of GT is Glaser's (1992) claim that the "pure" GT researcher must be a *tabula rasa*, a blank slate. Although the development of theoretical sensitivity lies at

the forefront of GT, Mills, Bonner, and Francis (2006) pointed out the naiveté of this position. Rather than being an empty vessel, these authors argued that grounded theorists must focus on the emergence or unveiling of data as a separate entity.

At the heart of GT is the desire to empower researchers to delve into their own data to look for the wisdom and truths they provide. Glaser and Strauss (1967) contended, “the masters have not provided enough theories to cover all the areas of social life that sociologists have only begun to explore” (p. 11). In their view, if researchers banked solely on the “grand designs” of their philosophical predecessors, this could preclude their new theory generation, leading to an absence of innovation that might otherwise help to explain issues in new arenas where previous theories had not worked. This holds monumental implications for ethnography in particular, as GT enables ethnographers to understand what is going on based on the unique terms and conditions of their research sites.

Using GT analysis, including the specialized procedures for coding and analysis of data described above, it was possible to construct categories to answer the first two overarching questions of the study involving the role of technology in the Spanish 301 classrooms and the types of tasks that went on. An example will now be given of how categories were constructed by going back and forth between insider and outsider perspectives while remaining close to the data. Table 3.5 details one of the categories which was developed regarding the role of technology in the blended Spanish 301 classrooms.

Table 3.5

*Representation of Grounded Development of Themes and Sub-Themes*

<b>RQ</b>	<b>Theme</b>	<b>Sub-Theme</b>	<b>Examples</b>
What role does technology—and the teacher's and students' attitudes about technology—play in teaching and learning in blended Spanish 301 grammar and composition courses?	(1) Technology is a way to lighten the load.	(1a) It lightens the students' loads.	Craig: "I used to think technology would interfere, I can keep my thoughts more complete now." (Int 1)
			Mary: "The computer corrects some of it so it just seems faster and more automatic, you can just do more in class." (Int 1)
		(1b) It lightens the teacher's load.	Teacher: "My goal is to make it more doable for them to work on their draft by using technology, technology should be the medium which would help me to give them feedback." (Int 2)
			Teacher: "This is why the class is so heavy on the teacher because you do the compositions, and it's times twice, the paper, the quizzes, the exams, the homework, I mean you really have to think of ways that you select what you are grading in person." (Int 5)
			Mike: "I feel like it's a lot more convenient for the teacher and for the student to have Google Docs instead of just 'print it off, turn it in, get it back, retype it, then print it our again, turn it in'" (Int 2)

From the above example, it can be seen how examples were chosen from the interview transcripts to support emerging theories surrounding the role of technology in the Spanish 301 classroom. By paying close attention to what students and the teacher were saying about technology use, several themes and sub-themes emerged. The example in Table 3.5 displays how themes and sub-themes were organized around student and teacher interview discourse in combination with class observations. As soon as a potential theme was identified, further examples were sought in order to fill out a category. This is in line with the GT methods of initial and theoretical sampling procedures described above.

**3.8.2 Register analysis and appraisal.** SFL is a theory of language as a social semiotic. It is a linguistic framework that is both flexible and functional enough to allow me to explore

classroom discourse and participants' meanings as their particular construals of reality by allowing analysis from different angles. Here, I focused on *field* and *tenor*, which correspond to ideational and interpersonal meanings respectively, as targeted by Knowledge Structure (KS) and APPRAISAL Analysis.

As a multi-faceted collection of meaning choices, SFL offered the linguistic tools to penetrate multiple layers of language with different levels of analytic delicacy. It offered a unified theory of language to understand how participants manipulated their lexicogrammatical resources to construct their different realities. Grounded ethnographic methods together with SFL analysis afforded a unique combination of inductive and deductive procedures for making sense of how participants' used their words to construct their worlds, and how these worlds in turn shaped their language.

Although KS and APPRAISAL analysis are referred to as separate entities, they drew upon the same underlying belief about language and allowed for different emphases and detail of analysis. In a commemorative essay, Halliday's (1979) thoughts on language remain with us today:

A discourse analysis that is not based on grammar is not an analysis at all, but simply a running commentary on a text: either an appeal has to be made to some set of non-linguistic conventions, or to some linguistic features that are trivial enough to be accessible without a grammar, like the number of words per sentence (and even the objectivity of these is often illusory); or else the exercise remains a private one in which one explanation is as good or as bad as another. (pp. xvi-xvii)

From this excerpt, we can see that a discourse analysis informed by grammar was necessary in order to avoid the pitfall that much discourse analysis falls into of a researcher simply offering up participants' words in a running commentary in order to support his or her claims. In other words, SFL analysis provided me a tool for understanding and identifying the lexicogrammatical resources present in participants' discourse in order to understand how tasks were being carried

out linguistically. An example of this is provided below, taken from a culture class in which the teacher used modality, a resource of the APPRAISAL network (Gibbons, 1999; Martin & White, 2005), to recast a student's statement.

Teacher: Les voy a pedir chicos que...se imaginen por ejemplo como una trabajadora doméstica **hablaría** de su cultura, si Uds. fueran a México, por ejemplo... y le preguntaban a una empleada doméstica qué sabe de su cultura, ¿Qué tipo de respuesta, qué tipo de información creen Uds. que esta persona les **daría**?

Student: (1) yo creo que la empleada doméstica sabe más de tradición de como cocinar y preparar comidas porque tuvo más comidas en casa en vez de salir a restuaranes o

T: (2) Muy bien, (3) entonces, tú **esperarías** que el tipo de información que **te daría** la empleada, *tal vez* **estaría basado** en lo que aprendió de su familia, ¿verdad? de su lugar de origen

[Teacher: I'm going to ask...that you imagine for example how a housekeeper (female) **would talk** about her culture, if you went to Mexico for example... and you asked a housekeeper what they know about their culture, what type of answer, what type of information do you all think that that person **would give** you?

Student: (1) I think the housekeeper knows more about tradition, how to cook and prepare food.

T: (2) very good, (3) so you **would expect** that the type of information that the housekeeper **would give would maybe be based on** what she learned from her family, right? on her place of birth]

In this example, identification of different processes and participants were first facilitated using the ideational metafunction and expanded upon using the interpersonal. Specifically the APPRAISAL resources of modality (*would expect, would give, would be based on, maybe*) were then identified to show how the teacher scaffolded students' language development during culture-based tasks. The teacher's paraphrasing with modalized processes and adjuncts brought additional voices into the meaning of the clause to include both the student's and others' points of view more explicitly than before (monoglossic versus heteroglossic reference). Using the tools of APPRAISAL and knowledge-structure analysis, I was able to present additional linguistic evidence to support participants' views as the basis for the coding and development of themes and categories.



### 3.8.3 Grounded ethnography in conjunction with SFL analysis.

It is argued here that both grounded ethnographic and SFL analysis can be used in conjunction. Both Halliday and Mathiessen (2004) and Glaser and Strauss (1976) have referred to the dangers of “grand designs.” However, whereas pure grounded theorists have rejected any preexisting theory for verification, Halliday and Mathiessen take pause, cautioning against the anti-theoretical stances adopted by some twentieth century thinkers. They argue, “to banish the macro [theory] and the system from one’s thinking is simply to indulge in another kind of grand design; being ‘atheoretical’ disguises a particular theoretical conviction which in our view is ill-judged and ill-informed” (p. 36).

In actuality, SFL analysis, as described in the previous section, avoided an adoption of “grand designs.” SFL analysis did not tell me what to view in the research context, but rather it provided me with linguistic guidance to understand how language was being used in the Spanish 301 classrooms to enact multiple realities. What is unique to SFL analysis is that it provides the flexibility to view my data from three strata, what Halliday and Mathiessen (2004) refer to as the trinocular perspective, which entails looking at the data from above, from below, and from roundabout. This means treating language as the expression of content (i.e., above), as the content of some expression (i.e., below), and in context or in relation to other features of its own stratum (i.e., roundabout). As Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) state, “we cannot expect to understand the grammar just by looking at it from its own level; we also look into it ‘from above’ and ‘from below,’ taking a trinocular perspective. But since the view from these different angles is often conflicting, the description will inevitably be a form of compromise (p. 31).

Having adopting a strict tabula rasa approach to data analysis would have entailed rejecting theoretically informed ideas of language use. For this reason, grounded ethnographic

methods were used in conjunction with SFL analysis. Halliday and Mathiessen (2004) propose a complementarity between theory and practice. In their view, the researcher must strive toward a dialectical approach, in which the data inform the theory and the theory informs the data: “we would argue for a dialectical complementarity between theory and data: complementarity because some phenomena show up best if illuminated by a general theory, others if treated as patterns within the data; dialectical because each perspective interpenetrates with and constantly redefines the other (Halliday and Mathiessen, 2004, pp. 35-36).

Although more orthodox GT researchers might object to the idea of their methods being used in conjunction with a theory like SFL, it is argued here both can be mobilized harmoniously in order to exploit the advantageous characteristics of each. GT methods, such as theoretical sampling and systematic coding, coupled with SFL analysis, informed and complemented one another, providing the tools to understand and explain the lexicogrammatical patterns present in participants’ language. By viewing the blended Spanish 301 classrooms as embodying a host of different social practices which all involved the greater practice of language learning, GT methods helped me uncover how students were interacting with their environments. This was later coupled with SFL analysis to explain how participants used their language to do so.

Once conceptual categories were established using GT methods, they were investigated further using SFL to show how language helped construct and enact the social practices of the language classroom. SFL was not imposed on the data from the beginning, but was rather used a posteriori to shed light on interpersonal and ideational meanings in the participants’ discourse. With this in mind, it is argued here that GT and SFL were legitimately applied in unison. By remaining open during the coding of data, without forcing data into preexisting categories, I could attend to the data on their own terms, allowing for the possibility of new conceptual

categories to emerge. Accordingly, using the SFL frameworks once these categories were established permitted me to contribute new ideas about language's role in classroom social practices.

### **3.9 The Design of the Present Study**

SFL's ideational and interpersonal metafunctions offered intriguing lenses through which to view learning and teaching, thus providing the tools to deeply understand the tasks, technology, and language implemented in blended Spanish courses. By closely observing the texts that were constructed in these sites, I was able to understand acutely the linguistically mediated meaning-making that occurred within such contexts. In other words, the case studies of the blended Spanish 301 classrooms provided the rich contexts that allowed for an examination of the language that was being produced and practiced during different types of language learning tasks. The additional analysis of reflection discourse during in-depth interviews pertaining to what these individuals thought and felt about blended classroom practices led to a deeper description and interpretation of the social actions that occurred within these circumstances. The design of the present study, which incorporated multiple, qualitative cases encompassing varied and disparate social practices can be observed in Figure 3.3.

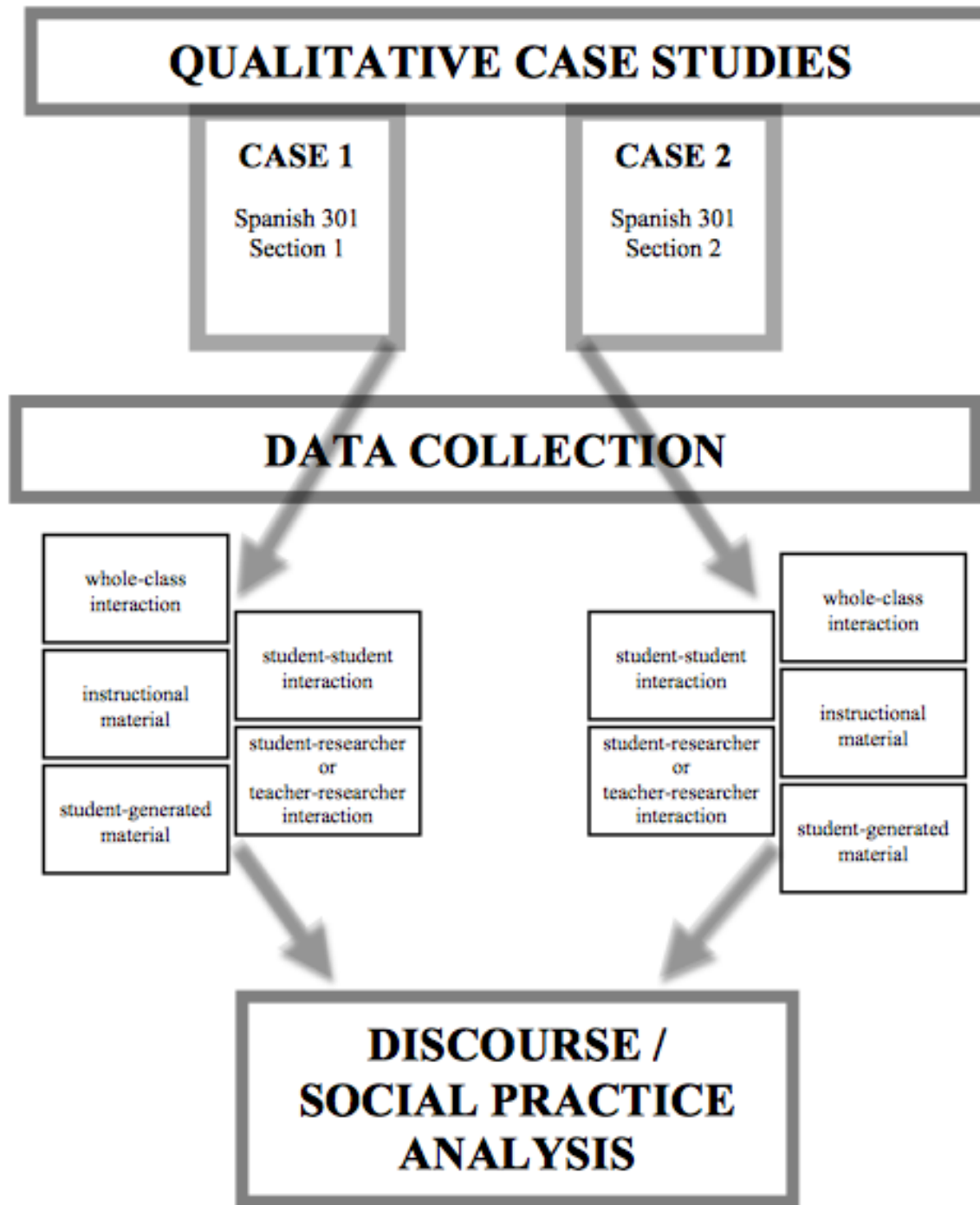


Figure 3.3. The design of the dissertation study.

Table 3.6 shows how each was implemented to answer the overarching research questions.

While some overlap existed between the methods used, the primary means to answer the first and

second questions was grounded theory. To answer the third question, the main analytical framework used was SFL.

Table 3.6

*Methodological Approaches Used to Answer the Overarching Questions*

<b>Research Question</b>	<b>Methodological Approach / Data / Key Literature</b>
RQ1: What role did technology—and the teacher's and students' attitudes about technology—play in teaching and learning in blended 300-level grammar and composition courses?	Grounded theory / Observations, Interviews, Textual Documents / Luo, 2005; Schultz, 2000; Stracke, 2007; Taylor, 2009; Webb Boyd, 2008
RQ2: What tasks were used in blended Spanish 300-level courses and how did the instructor and students perceive of these as learning tools?	Grounded theory / Observations, Interviews, Textual Documents / Byrnes, 2002; Coughlan & Duff, 1994; Huang & Mohan, 2009; Kraemer, 2008
RQ3: How was academic language developed in blended Spanish 300-level courses during in-class learning tasks?	Grounded theory + SFL / Observations, Interviews, Textual Documents / Gibbons, 1999; Martin, 2009; Mohan & Beckett, 2003; Schleppegrell & Colombi, 2002

### 3.10 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter has outlined the research design for this dissertation study involving blended Spanish 301 courses and has laid out the frameworks that will guide data collection and analysis using SFL. It has also described the two classroom sites where data collection occurred and has chronicled the participants who were the key informants of study within these sites. It was these individuals' discourse and interactions surrounding their involvement in classroom social practices that were the major focus of analysis for the dissertation study, in which the following overarching questions were addressed:

**Question 1: What role did technology—and the teacher's and students' attitudes about technology—play in teaching and learning in blended 300-level grammar and composition courses?** Research on blended learning ranges from comparisons of blended and

traditional learning (e.g. Blake, et al., 2008), to studies that put forth models of blended learning (e.g., Wold, 2011), to those that focus in on one aspect or skill, such as technology-mediated writing practices in the L1 and L2 (e.g., Kittle & Hicks, 2009; Matsuda, et al., 2003). Although this research is vast, few studies have examined at how technology specifically plays a role in the third-year bridge courses, which move students from the lower-division sequence to the upper-level content and literature courses. As many scholars have noted a gap between the way that language is taught at the lower and upper levels of study (Byrnes, 2002; Lord, 2014; Maxim, 2005; Schultz, 2000), technology's role in helping students make this transition is of utmost importance. Kraemer (2008), for example, showed how technology could be used in 400-level German courses to integrate language-and-content units. This study partially addresses the language-content gap and provides important groundwork for the present study.

This overarching question addresses a gap in the research literature on how a 300-level Spanish course was made more technology-mediated. Although studies on BL learning have gathered data about learner affective variables, such as student motivation, autonomy, and attitudes toward technology by using questionnaires, focus groups, and semi-structured interviews (Echavez-Solano, 2003; Grgurović, 2010; Scida & Saury, 2006), few have taken a grounded, ethnographic approach to hone in on how technology is being harnessed during different tasks. What's more, absent from these studies has been an in-depth understanding of the development of students and teachers' theories about technology over the course of a semester as well as the role of technology and its relationship to students' learning practices.

This question was addressed using grounded ethnographic methods. In-depth interview discourse from the teacher and students was compared to direct and indirect observations of what was happening in the third-year Spanish classrooms over the course of one semester in order to

understand the technology-mediated learning practices. The teacher's attitude and aspirations for a smoother bridge course by means of technology and students' own theories about the utility of technology as it was implemented in these classrooms were explored. Textual documents, such as PPTs, teacher lesson plans, and assignments facilitated the interpretation of data by enabling constant comparisons between what participants did in the language classrooms and what they said about the role of technology in these practices.

**Question 2: What tasks were used in blended Spanish 300-level courses and how did the instructor and students perceive of these as learning tools?** Understanding the tasks that were carried out in the Spanish 301 classroom and their role in language development was at the heart of this question. It builds upon research that testifies to a breach between a primary focus on forms at the lower levels of FL study and a primary focus on content at the upper levels (e.g., Byrnes, 2002). By understanding the specific learning practices that students engage in during the third-year Spanish bridge course, implications can be drawn about the best types of tasks for helping learners to succeed in upper-level courses. The research on BL learning in particular lacks a detailed description of the technology-infused tasks that occur in 300-level grammar and composition courses as well as what participants in these courses think about these for assisting their language development.

This question was answered by observing the two sections of the third-year Spanish grammar and composition course in order to understand the types of learning tasks that were carried out therein. In order to understand the types of language that were produced and practiced during such tasks, grounded ethnography enabled a re-envisioning and classification of tasks according to their interactional patterns and contents. This question addressed the scant ethnographic research in this area by drawing on the methods of online and direct participant

observation of the tasks used to teach Spanish 301 blended courses, as well as in-depth interviews with the teacher and students about these tasks. Data analysis using grounded theory showed how a variety of tasks compared in terms of the language used and the knowledge constructed.

**Question 3: How was academic language developed in blended Spanish 300-level courses during in-class learning tasks?** A grounded approach to ethnographic data collection coupled with SFL analysis were the most appropriate means by which to understand the social practices and language features of learning tasks. Once the important task features were constructed (as addressed by Questions 1 and 2), a means of understanding how participants used language to enact language-learning tasks of different types was needed. There is a need for more research that takes a systemic functional perspective to discourse and academic discourse development in the area of BL learning and CALL. Luo's (2005) dissertation took a first step in this direction by looking at how students used English in asynchronous electronic discussion forums during a blended graduate seminar. Lacking, however, are studies that investigate academic discourse development in Spanish at the 300-level using BL tasks. This question was addressed by examining the discourse that the teacher and her students used in both f2f and electronic mediums, complementing the body of research that has already been conducted on academic discourse development in f2f settings (e.g., Schleppegrell, et al., 2004). By first analyzing the language learning tasks themselves (Question 2), patterns regarding language development during these tasks became salient. Analysis of language using the SFL enabled a clearer understanding of how academic language was developed via tasks in technology-enhanced Spanish courses. The following chapter responds in detail to these questions, presenting and discussing the patterns uncovered in the data.



## **CHAPTER 4: RESULTS**

### **4.0 Chapter Overview**

The following chapter provides the results that serve as a basis for understanding the ways that tasks and technology were implemented in two sections of a third-year Spanish grammar and composition course. These results are divided into six sections. Section 4.1 provides a “thick” description (Geertz, 1973) of the Spanish 301 classrooms, offering a “true-to-life” narrative (Fisher, 1989) to paint a portrait of a typical lesson on culture, grammar, and writing. Section 4.2 looks at the infusion of technology into the course, specifically exploring participants’ opinions of three types of technology and their benefits and drawbacks for language learning at the 300-level. Section 4.3 identifies the types of feedback that became relevant and essential in parts of the third year bridge course, including both f2f oral feedback provided by the teacher during the days in the language laboratory as well as written feedback provided via Google Docs. Section 4.4 elaborates on the patterns of topics in the third-year bridge courses, including the tasks that were commonly covered during culture, grammar, and writing lessons. It presents the common sequences of tasks that occurred during these days, specifically chronicling the task groupings during different types of lessons. Section 4.5 describes how learning occurred in these courses, specifically honing in on six prototypical tasks and sub-tasks, and using SFL discourse analysis of the language produced during these tasks to illustrate how learning was accomplished. Lastly, Section 4.6 provides a summary of the results and highlights the main findings presented.

### **4.1 A Thick Description of the Language Classroom**

Using a “thick” description (Geertz, 1973), the following sections paint a narrative picture of the language learning environments of the two Spanish 301 course sections and the

human beings that populated these spaces. Specifically, I show how a typical lesson about culture, grammar, and writing unfolded and illustrate my role as researcher-participant therein. I focus on the actions and possible feelings that the people, specifically the students, had as they came to life through my field observation and in-depth interviews. For this section, I use a “true-to-life narrative” style (Fisher, 1989), which allowed me to elaborate on the details of each particular learning environment. Of primary importance were the ways that students worked in these spaces, both among themselves and with their teacher and how they acted during a typical lesson.

**4.1.1 A typical culture lesson.** As I arrive to the classroom, some students are already sitting at their usual spaces around the semi-circle of desks. A few friendly faces salute me as I take my seat at one end of the half circle. *Hola* says Jack, *¿Cómo estás? Bien*, I reply, *¿y tú? Bien también*.<sup>3</sup> A few other students look up from their smart phones and smile before going back to tapping away at their tiny screens. We wait a few more minutes for the class to begin, chatting in Spanish.

Soon, the teacher makes her way to the white board at the head of the classroom and begins the class with a joke about her experience as a student in Mexico. She uses only Spanish. The joke puts students at ease and their faces lighten as they are able to relate her experience to the reading they did about Hispanic cultural heritage for homework. After two or three minutes of light and informal conversation as a big group, the teacher asks students to get with their partner to check a vocabulary assignment that they did for homework. Students begin to turn their chairs to face one another and spend the next several minutes comparing notes. Next, the

---

<sup>3</sup> *Hi, how are you? Good, and you? Good also.*

teacher brings students back into the big group and starts to ask for their answers to the vocabulary assignment.

The teacher devotes the next five or ten minutes to going over the vocabulary items from the reading on cultural heritage. She clearly pronounces and explains each word, carefully making sure to give several examples of how it is used in context. *Étnia*,<sup>4</sup> she explains, *es una palabra que asociamos específicamente con el patrimonio biológico y en muchos contextos ya no se aplica*. She goes on: *es mejor usar la palabra 'patrimonio cultural', lo cual también incluye todas las prácticas culturales de una comunidad dada*. Periodically, the teacher uses humor to lighten the conversation. Cerise raises her hand and asks a question about the word *oficios* (trades) and the teacher explains to the whole group in Spanish that the term *oficios* generally pertains to jobs that people learn by practice and apprenticeship rather than by formal study at the university.

After the vocabulary task, the teacher asks students to get into small groups and talk about the discussion questions from the book. Taking out their homework, students immediately engage with one another, chatting and sharing their answers in Spanish. I work in a small group of four, which includes Jack and two other students. After two minutes, the teacher reads the following question from the class textbook aloud: *¿Cómo definiría usted los términos Latinoamérica, Iberoamérica e Hispanoamérica? ¿Cuál considera usted más apropiado para denominar a las personas que viven en la region ubicada al sur de los Estados Unidos? ¿Por*

---

<sup>4</sup> *Ethnicity is a word that pertains specifically to a person's genetic heritage and no longer makes sense to use in many contexts...it's better to use the word 'cultural heritage', which takes into account all of the cultural practices of a given community.*

*qué?*<sup>5</sup> Students begin to shuffle their chairs, getting closer to the classmate that they are going to work with. Around the room, I can hear the sound of notebook pages turning and chairs moving across the carpet. Then, the volume of the room gets quieter as students read aloud from their notebooks. Students quietly discuss what they had written for homework with their partners. Meanwhile the teacher circulates the room, checking in with individual groups and answering specific students' doubts. Soon, the volume in the room becomes louder, as each group of students actively engages with the discussion question.

After approximately three minutes, the teacher walks back to the center of the white board. The noise in the room grows slowly quieter and then falls silent. The teacher then reads the discussion question in the textbook aloud for a second time. After this, she pauses, looking individually at students and imploring them for their feedback. *¿Nadie?*<sup>6</sup> She questions. The room remains silent. *Sé que estaban conversando de algo, ¿de qué estaban hablando?* Another three or four seconds of tense silence pass and then Mike, the student who always talks first, raises his hand. The teacher nods her head.

*Nosotros dijimos que Hispanoamérica depende en la lengua*<sup>7</sup> reports Mike. *Okey* says the teacher, *Muy bien. Entonces ¿ustedes creen que el prefijo delante de la palabra es lo que determina la lengua que las personas de tal region habla?*<sup>8</sup> Mike and the other two students in Mike's group tentatively nod their heads. The big group conversation continues, with the teacher

---

<sup>5</sup> *How would you define the terms Latin America, Ibero-America and Hispano-America? Which one would you consider most appropriate to talk about the people that live in the region located to the south of the United States? Why?*

<sup>6</sup> *Nobody? I know you all were talking about something. What were you talking about?*

<sup>7</sup> *We said that Hispano-America depends on the language.*

<sup>8</sup> *Okay, very good. So you all think that the prefix before the word is what determines the language that the people of a given region speak?*

asking individual students for their answers to impromptu questions. The teacher responds to students' doubts by giving additional oral input and writing a small diagram on the white board. After five or six minutes of big-group discussion, the teacher returns to the textbook and reads a second discussion question from the same page of the book. The whole process of students talking in pairs and then as a big group repeats itself three or four more times until all of the discussion questions on the textbook page have been addressed.

The teacher then tells students that in the 10 remaining minutes of class they will watch a short video about the cultural heritage of Spain. She begins the task by soliciting their background knowledge about Spanish culture, specifically the typical food commonly consumed in the Spanish Mediterranean region. Several students who have recently returned from a study abroad semester in Valencia Spain raise their hands to give examples of food that they tried during their journeys abroad. *Jamón*<sup>9</sup>, Kerry offers. *Claro*<sup>10</sup>, responds the teacher. *El jamón serrano es un tipo de jamón muy especial, los puercos españoles comen solamente castaños y esto les da un sabor muy especial.*

After two or three minutes of talking about Spanish food and the Mediterranean diet in the big group, the teacher turns off the lights and pulls up a Youtube video on the projection screen. All the students in the class turn their heads to face the screen and each watches attentively as the video shows an example of how the Mediterranean diet has been adapted to offer healthier options. The video introduces a new product called *jalmón*, an invented term for a type of salmon that has been prepared to be served dried and sliced, similar to the way Spanish ham is served. I notice that some of the students, Isla and Cerise for example, are smiling and

---

<sup>9</sup> *Ham.*

<sup>10</sup> *Sure, Spanish ham is very special, the Spanish pigs eat only chestnuts and this gives them a very special flavor.*

enjoying the video. Others students, Mary for example, are furrowing their brows, entrenched in active concentration. Still other students' faces remain with blank without any noticeable sign of comprehension.

After the video ends, all students turn to face the teacher. The teacher studies their faces closely and apparently understanding the many looks of confusion, asks students if they would like to watch the video again. Almost everyone in the class, including me, nod our heads vigorously in agreement. The teacher then plays the video for a second time. Finally, the video ends and the teacher turns on the lights. *Okey, muy bien. Entonces, les voy a preguntar: ¿cómo se está transformando la dieta mediterránea?*<sup>11</sup> She asks. There are several moments of silence, with all faces looking imploringly at the teacher. *¿Entendieron?*<sup>12</sup> The teacher asks. Most students continue to stare blankly at the teacher or avert their eyes.

Isla, a heritage Spanish speaker, raises her hand and explains to the class in Spanish that *jalmón* is a new preparation of salmon that looks like and is served similar to Spanish ham (*jamón serrano*). The teacher follows up Isla's comment by explaining this idea in greater detail and telling students that the Mediterranean diet is part of the cultural heritage of Spain. She tells them that the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) recently proclaimed the Mediterranean diet an important marker of cultural heritage. *¿Ahora entendieron?*<sup>13</sup> The teacher asks them again, simultaneously glancing at her watch. It is two minutes past the end of class. Students nod.

---

<sup>11</sup> *Okay, very good. So, I'm going to ask you all: how is the Mediterranean diet being transformed?*

<sup>12</sup> *Did you (all) understand?*

<sup>13</sup> *Now did you (all) understand?*

*Okey, muy bien, entonces para el miércoles...*<sup>14</sup> The teacher proceeds to tell students what they need to do for homework to prepare for the next class, which will be a grammar class that will take place in the language laboratory. Students listen anxiously until she finishes talking and then they begin to gather up their notebooks and other materials, storing them in their backpacks and standing up. As many students begin to exit the classroom, the teacher stays behind, answering several individual student inquiries. I wait until all students have left the classroom and then I begin to help the teacher erase the white board and prepare the classroom for the next period. The teacher and I walk out of the room together, turning off the lights and casually discussing Mexican cultural heritage.

**4.1.2 A typical grammar lesson.** The next lesson takes place in the language laboratory. I arrive to the classroom 10 minutes before the class begins. A few students are already seated at their computers and either chatting with their classmates or looking at their computer screens when I walk into the lab. I greet Jack and another student, who are seated at the front of the classroom. *Hola, ¿cómo estás? Bien, ¿y tú?* We exchange light conversation while I sign into the teacher's computer at the front of the classroom. She has asked me to do her this small favor on Wednesdays and Fridays in order to make sure the computer and projector are set up by the time she arrives. Since she is coming directly from teaching another class, I make sure to have all the technology ready to go.

After logging into the three programs she frequently uses for grammar lessons (Netsupport, the online workbook, and the Blackboard course management system), I gather my belongings and make my way to the back of the lab. I take my seat in the usual place and greet the students sitting across and beside me. I pull up the same three programs that the teacher uses

---

<sup>14</sup> *Okay, very good. So for Wednesday...*

for Wednesday grammar lessons as well as *Jing*, an open-source screen capturing software program, which will allow me to video record students' online interactions. After about five minutes, the teacher walks into the classroom and enthusiastically greets the class. She makes casual conversation in Spanish, asking them about their day and making sure to tell them something about how her day has been going as well. *¡Que rápido está pasando este semestre, ¿no?*<sup>15</sup> She says. I, along with many students, nod our heads in agreement.

The teacher's tone of voice soon becomes more serious, as she asks students to pull up their online homework exercises having to do with direct and indirect object pronouns. The first exercise asks them to replace the subject and objects in the sentence with the appropriate pronouns. The teacher explains that this type of exercise is important because it is what will allow them to make their writing more streamlined and compact. She projects the online workbook onto one of the two big screens at the front of the classroom, reading the following sentences aloud: *Las niñas fueron a visitar a su abuela en el campo. Las niñas trajeron un regalo a su abuela. El regalo era una sorpresa para su abuela.*<sup>16</sup> After reading these sentences, the teacher asks students to talk with their partner about how they would change these sentences in order to make them more compact.

Students turn to the person sitting next to them and begin to chat quietly, mostly in Spanish. The sound of keyboards clicking reverberates loudly around the room. I watch my own computer screen and log into the online course management system to review the students who have already completed the assignment for homework. It looks like several of the students have

---

<sup>15</sup> *This semester is sure flying by, right?*

<sup>16</sup> *The girls went to visit their grandmother in the country. The girls brought their grandmother a gift. The gift was a surprise for the grandmother.*



already tried this assignment before the class began. The majority of students, however, are completing this online exercise for the first time.

After approximately two minutes, the teacher asks for volunteers to share their answers with the big group. An enthusiastic student in the middle row of computers raises her hand and reads aloud: *Las niñas fueron a visitar a su abuela en el campo. Le trajeron un regalo que era una sorpresa para su abuela.*<sup>17</sup> *Muy bien*, says the teacher. *Podemos reemplazar el sujeto de la segunda frase porque está implícito en el verbo.*<sup>18</sup> The teacher continues to explain in Spanish the overarching grammar principles behind the direct and indirect objects and then she proceeds to the next paragraph. Students attentively type along with the teacher as she goes over the next item. Occasionally, a student raises her hand with a question and the teacher pauses in order to explain in Spanish the rationale behind the grammar. The teacher carefully makes sure to provide the big group of students with additional examples and write several example sentences on the white board.

After this online grammar task, the teacher prompts the students to go to the next exercise in their online workbook. This one is similar to the last one but with more complex paragraphs. The teacher explains that this time they will be doing the task along with her instead of in pairs. She asks for student volunteers to rewrite the sentences. Students eliminate unnecessary words in the paragraph to make it more compact. Both of the exercises expose students to authentic and complete (although broken down into chunks) texts. Students seem to be able to understand the meaning of the texts and subsequently raise their hands to offer their answers. The teacher writes their answers into the online workbook, projecting her writing as she goes. She occasionally

---

<sup>17</sup> *The girls went to visit their grandmother in the country. They brought her a gift that was a surprise for the grandmother.*

<sup>18</sup> *We can replace the subject of the second phrase because it is implicit in the verb.*

pauses to provide them with additional examples about how the discrete components of language work together.

Occasionally, the teacher uses other strategies to get her point across. She stops typing and uses emphatic gestures with her hands, varying her tone of voice in order to show an exception to the grammar rule she has just explained. A few students' faces still remain blank after her explanation in Spanish and so she switches into English to reiterate her point. *You are not doing anything to this person or for this person*, she explains, *that's why vecina (neighbor) is a direct object*. About five minutes before the class ends, the class has not been able to work through the whole grammar exercise and so the teacher tells the students that they will have to finish it on their own for homework.

*Muy bien, chicos*, she says. *Ahora vamos a hablar un poquito sobre su primera composición*.<sup>19</sup> She proceeds to tell them about the first essay, explaining that it will be an expository piece and telling them that they will talk about exposition in greater depth during Friday's writing workshop. *Recuerden que tienen que traer dos fuentes resumidos para el viernes*, she reminds them. *Vamos a trabajar en los resúmenes y comenzar nuestro bosquejo en línea*.<sup>20</sup>

Students nod their heads as they begin to pack up their belongings and log off their computers. I slowly pack up my things as well, waiting for all of the students to leave before I approach the teacher and thank her for letting me sit in on the class. *Gracias por la clase*, I say, telling her how much I enjoyed it. *¡Por nada!* She exclaims, also thanking me for my presence and for arriving early to prepare the room. I tell her that it was no problem and that I would plan

---

<sup>19</sup> *Very good guys. Now we're going to talk a little bit about your first composition.*

<sup>20</sup> *Remember that you have to bring your two sources summarized for Friday. We're going to work on our summaries and begin our sentence outline.*

on arriving early to Friday's class as well to get the technology set up in preparation for their first collaborative writing activity. We exchange casual conversation before turning off the lights and leaving the lab.

**4.1.3 A typical writing workshop.** *Escribir es como hacer una escultura, nunca está perfecta sino que siempre hay más que puedes hacer para moldearla, perfeccionarla, mejorarla.*<sup>21</sup> The teacher's inspiring pep talk at the beginning of Friday's writing workshop sets the mood of the classroom and invites students to be mindful about their writing and editing processes. As an expert writer herself, the teacher then shares with students, in Spanish, an anecdote about how her own writing, and her way of approaching it, continues to evolve.

After this inspiring and cheery introduction, the teacher tells students to please log on to their computers and to open their Google Docs. In their Google Drive, students have saved two summaries of sources that they researched for homework. The teacher tells students that before revising their summaries, she would like to talk to them about the expository essay. Projecting her computer screen onto one of the screens at the front of the classroom, the teacher shows students where they can find the rubric that she will be using to grade their first essay in their online course management system. On the other projection screen, the teacher shows students the essay rubric, explaining each component one-by-one.

Students begin to log in to their computers and pull up a copy of the rubric on their own computers. The teacher explains: *Este semestre voy a estar evaluando los ensayos de manera distinta. Vamos a estar escribiendo una gran parte de sus ensayos dentro de la clase y yo les voy*

---

<sup>21</sup> *Writing is like making a sculpture, it's never perfect rather there's always something more that you can do to mold it, perfect it, make it better.*

*a ayudar a hacer sus revisiones aquí también.*<sup>22</sup> The teacher goes on to tell students that a large portion of how they will be evaluated on their first composition will be based upon the way that they work within the classroom during the Friday writing workshops. *Quiero que se sientan cómodos para tomar riesgos en un lugar seguro. Voy a estar evaluando su trabajo y también su esfuerzo.*<sup>23</sup> Students listen attentively to this, nodding their heads in understanding and approval.

While the teacher is explaining her vision of the course and how they will be graded during the writing workshops, I open up my own Google Drive. I see on my list of shared documents the names of the students who have agreed to participate in the study. Some have already shared with me their Google Docs containing a summary of the sources that they will use to write their first essay.

The teacher tells students to open up their Google Docs and begin editing their summaries of sources that they have brought for homework. I choose to focus on Kerry and Jack's Google Docs. I start up *Jing*, my screen-capturing program. I watch my computer screen and see a green cursor labeled "Kerry" and a purple cursor labeled "Jack." Both cursors begin to flit across the Google Docs as Kerry and Jack work on editing their summaries.

Out of the corner of my eye, I see the teacher slowly making her way around the room. She starts at Jack's computer at the front of the lab. She leans over his shoulder and silently reads his first paragraph. She lifts her hand and points to something on Jack's screen. On my own screen I can see Jack's cursor moving as he makes the changes to his essay based upon what the teacher is telling him. *No usamos el verbo 'pertenecer' como 'belong' en ingles*, the teacher

---

<sup>22</sup> *This semester I am going to be evaluating your essays differently. We are going to be writing a big part of your essays during the class and I am going to help you do your revisions here as well.*

<sup>23</sup> *I want you to feel comfortable with taking risks in a safe place. I'm going to be evaluating your work and also your effort.*

explains to Jack. *No decimos ‘ella pertenece en su hogar’, suena raro, es mejor decir ‘ella se siente en casa’*<sup>24</sup>. Out of the corner of my eye, I watch Jack nodding his head and listening to the teacher’s suggestions. On my screen, I watch as Jack’s little purple cursor move, reflecting the teacher’s suggestion in his Google Doc.

The teacher continues talking with Jack for several more minutes and then she moves on to the next student in the row. I alternate between watching my own computer screen, which is recording Kerry and Jack’s progress, and watching the teacher slowly make her way around the computer lab. After about 10 minutes, she has visited each student individually. She then makes her way to the front of the room to make a short announcement: *¿Hay alguien que tiene una pregunta? ¿Hay alguien que necesita ayuda?*<sup>25</sup> She asks. A few students raise their hands simultaneously. *Jesse, ¿me puedes ayudar?*<sup>26</sup> She asks me. *Claro,*<sup>27</sup> I tell her.

She indicates with her hand, pointing first to herself and then to a student at the far end of the class with his hand raised. I nod, understanding that she would like me to help the other student. I stand up and make my way over to Mary, the other student with her hand raised. I take my recorder with me and set it down beside Mary’s desk. *¿Está bien si grabo nuestra conversación?*<sup>28</sup> I ask her. *Sí*, she responds. Mary then asks me if the way she has written the first paragraph sounds correct. I read silently what she has written and make a few suggestions about how to better use a preposition in Spanish and how to make sure that the endings of her

---

<sup>24</sup> We don’t use the verb ‘*pertenecer*’ like ‘belong’ in English. We don’t say ‘she belongs at home’, it sounds strange, it’s better to say ‘she feels at home’.

<sup>25</sup> Is there anyone that has a question? Is there anyone who needs help?

<sup>26</sup> Jesse, can you help me?

<sup>27</sup> Sure.

<sup>28</sup> Is it okay if I record our conversation?

adjectives correspond to the feminine or masculine gender of the nouns that they modify. Mary thanks me and nods in agreement.

I pick up my recorder and make my way back to my own computer. I quickly make sure that the screen capturing software has been appropriately recording Jack and Kerry's essays. It seems to have stopped capturing their progress and so I reboot the software and start recording again. In the meantime several other students have raised their hands and the teacher is slowly making her rounds. I wait for her to finish with the student she is working with to ask her if she would like me to help the other students with questions. Five minutes are left of the class. We each attend to one more student who has a question and then the teacher heads to the front of the classroom to thank students for their hard work and to tell them that it is almost time to leave.

The teacher once again pulls up the rubric of how they will be evaluated on their expository essay, projecting it on the screen at the front of the classroom and reminding them that today's writing workshop counted for five percent of their total essay grade. She asks students to keep working hard on their summaries and to begin their sentence outlines at home. I can hear the shuffling of bags and the tapping of computer keys as students log off their computers and begin to gather up their belongings. *Hasta el lunes, que tengan buen fin de semana*,<sup>29</sup> the teacher tells them as they head for the door. *Hasta luego*<sup>30</sup> several students say as they exit the classroom. *Hasta pronto*<sup>31</sup> I tell them. I help the teacher erase the white board, where she has written several sentences. I again thank her for having me in the class and she bids

---

<sup>29</sup> *See you Monday, have a good weekend.*

<sup>30</sup> *See you later.*

<sup>31</sup> *See you soon.*

me farewell. We leave the computer lab, turning off the lights. We walk together toward the main office, chatting and discussing the class.

#### **4.2 The Infusion of Technology**

The previous section used a “true-to-life” narrative in order to paint a picture of the three different types of lessons that took place in the Spanish 301 courses. I will now switch gears in order to focus on the role of technology in blended Spanish 301 courses. Before beginning, I must highlight the specialized circumstances under which technology was implemented in the course. Every instructor who decides to adopt a blended format for the course, every instructor who has chosen to use technology, does so for certain reasons, to respond to different pressures or challenges. Blended Spanish 301 was no different. The teacher, who had been teaching the course for several years, decided to adopt technology to achieve certain goals. These specific objectives, which were based on many years of experience teaching Spanish 301, helped her shape the principles for technology use in the course. Some of the main changes that the teacher grappled with surrounded (a) the way the course was designed and the sheer quantity of material and assignments, (b) her doubts that Spanish 301 students were taking full advantage of her feedback, and (c) the large amount of time outside of class that students from previous courses had to spend in Spanish 301 in comparison to other 300-level courses. Although realizing that it would not be a panacea, the teacher hoped that technology could help with some of these issues.

As a result of the increased technology, the class format was changed to accommodate certain contents and formats on certain days of the week. By dividing up the course into culture days in the regular classroom and grammar days and writing days in the language laboratory, the teacher expected that the class contents would be more manageable. Writing workshops were implemented to address her concern that students were not taking advantage of her written

corrections. Having the students write and revise their essays during class time also alleviated some of the outside work time that the Spanish 301 course required. This section lays out the results of the changes that the teacher made, specifically examining the ways that technology was infused into the course.

Infusing more technology into Spanish 301 than what there had been in previous years entailed mindfully bringing specific technological tools into the classroom to help accomplish the teacher's objectives. One of these objectives entailed harnessing technology to help apprentice students into the writing process. The technology used in Spanish 301 consisted mainly of three types of tools, as listed in Table 4.1. Cultural videos were reserved mainly for culture days, the online grammar workbook with Netsupport for grammar days, and Google Docs for writing days. The following sections chronicle how each of these technologies was harnessed during the different lessons as well as participants' opinions of these for aiding learning.

Table 4.1

*Technology Used in Spanish 301*

<b>Technology</b>	<b>Day/Lesson</b>	<b>Example Tasks</b>
Cultural videos	Culture days	Big group, Pair work
Online WB Netsupport	Grammar days	Big group, Pair work, Work-along
Google Docs	Writing days	Big group, Pair work, One-on-one tasks

**4.2.1 Cultural videos.** The first circumspection about technology pertains to how students used video clips in the Spanish 301 classrooms. In total, four of the 15 culture lessons during the semester included one or more videos. One issue that came up regarding the use of these videos surrounded some participants' beliefs that videos made students tend to check out mentally. As Kerry said, "focusing on a lot of videos, I think that that can just bog you down and then it's easy



to space out a little bit... halfway through it's kinda easy to just check out" (Interview 2).

"Checking out" or "spacing out" in a mental sense is something that teachers would like to avoid amongst their students on a daily basis. Although student engagement with technology in Spanish 301 seemed to be positively impacted by some forms of technology (such as NetSupport for public sharing of students' written work, as described in the next section), it seemed that in other cases screen time using cultural videos might have had the opposite effect.

Although not all students voiced a concern with the potentially mind-numbing effect of watching movies in the classroom, five students did emphasize the difficulty that they had understanding the content of the videos. Many of the Youtube videos watched in class, for example, contained native speaker speech that was too fast for many to understand. Indeed, five non-native Spanish speakers (NNS) brought up the issue of not being able to understand the videos, which later impeded their participation in-group discussions. One NNS learner, when describing in-class videos, stated, "it was difficult to pick up what they were saying and then have us talk in our little groups, everyone just sort of stares at their group awkwardly, it's hard to get a conversation started" (Caleb, Interview 1). Although teachers would like their students to eventually be able to understand native speaker oral discourse at a natural pace, a question remains about how best to accomplish this feat. By not understanding the majority of the videos' contents, five students claimed that they were not able to contribute to the post-video group discussion. As Kerry reiterated, "it was awkward because it was like I didn't get anything from that [video] so I don't know what to say about it now" (Interview 3).

Despite many reflections from NNS surrounding the ineffectiveness of cultural videos, the two heritage speakers of Spanish (HS) interviewed remarked that the video tasks were some of their favorite learning practices. These two both heralded the videos as being some of the most

enjoyable and productive moments of class. As Isla noted, “when she shows the videos, it’s something you can relate to” (Interview 1). This difference between the way that NNS and HS described their experiences with video tasks in the Spanish 301 classrooms led to the likelihood that these two groups approached cultural videos differently. This finding undoubtedly holds implications for the use of short films and video clips in classrooms where both HS and NNS of a language are present. Table 4.2 shows several of the contrasting comments made by HS and NNS about the use of cultural videos in class.

Table 4.2

*Representative Sample of HS and NNS Comments About Cultural Videos*

<b>Heritage Learners of Spanish</b>	<b>Non-Native Students of Spanish</b>
“I really like watching videos...when she shows the videos, it’s something you can relate to, in my situation, when she showed the video of Luis Fonsi today; I was like oh, why this song, this is the first one of his...yeah, when she puts up videos that we can relate with or that I can relate with, [but] I don’t know how many other students knew about Luis Fonsi.” (Isla, Int 1)	“It was difficult to pick up what they were saying and then have us talk in our little groups, everyone just sort of stares at their group awkwardly, it’s hard to get a conversation started.” (Craig, Int 1)
“The culture part of what we do on Mondays really helps especially for my topic correlates to what we have been doing the past couple weeks, so that’s helped me, especially with my topic...it’s [the videos] tied in with culture, how as Latinos identify as Latinos and Hispanics ...and we’re going more in detail about what people think of Latinos in general, where they come from, the different languages that they speak.” (Cerise, Int 1)	“Youtube videos are okay but I can’t understand the majority of the Spanish because they talk so fast.” (Jack, Int 1)  “It was awkward because it was like I didn’t get anything from that [video] so I don’t know what to say about it now.” (Kerry, Int 3)

**4.2.2. The online workbook with Netsupport.** By using a program called NetSupport in the language laboratory in unison with web-based tasks from the online grammar workbook, the

teacher was able to take control of students' screens, summoning up their work for correction or group examination. Similar to using a document projector such as an electronic light machine organization (a.k.a., ELMO) camera, the Netsupport technology allowed the whole class to view each other's work. Unlike a document camera, however, it provided the teacher the ability to access students' computer screens and make changes to their work if necessary. While at first students' reactions to this public viewing of their screens were mixed (e.g., "that's a little embarrassing" Craig, Interview 1; "I think that's pretty cool" Caleb, Interview 1), after just a few weeks into the course NetSupport sharing seemed to become a common component of their classroom landscape. Mary, for example, stated, "I like seeing other people's examples, cuz it might be something I would write" (Interview 1). Later, she expanded on this by saying, "it kinda gives you an idea of what you're doing wrong too, so if you did the same thing that that person did, you're like 'oh this is how you do it,' instead of her [the teacher] having to explain it to every person" (Interview 2).

Although many students at first mentioned their surprise at having the teacher exhibit their writing publicly to the whole class, the grand majority of them also later maintained that Netsupport was useful for learning because it gave them clear and concrete examples. The same students who initially may have reluctantly shared their examples with the class later became the first ones to volunteer to have the teacher examine their writing publicly. Craig, for example, who initially said that viewing his work publicly was a little embarrassing, could be seen later on in the semester frequently volunteering to have the teacher show his work with Netsupport.

Supporting learning and teaching in blended Spanish 301, NetSupport became an integral tool. While perhaps not the latest or most high-tech option in instructional technology, it was used in such a way and in combination with other teaching strategies to give students a

personalized experience and maximize their opportunities to receive valuable feedback. This can be seen in the participant comments in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3

*Representative Sample of Participant Comments of Netsupport with Online Workbook*

<b>Student Comments</b>	<b>Teacher Comments</b>
“When she pulls up our documents on the board and in front of the class, I think that kind of pushed me to make it better because it’s going to be seen by the whole classroom, so you’re not performing to what you’re happy with your performing to what you’re happy with everyone else seeing.” (Isla, Int 1)	(1) “My goal is to make it more doable for them to work on their draft by using technology, technology should be the medium which would help me to give them feedback.” (Int 2)
“I really like when she goes through what people have written and corrects it because then it kinda gives you an idea of what you’re doing wrong too, so if you did the same thing that that person did, you’re like oh this is how you do it instead of her having to explain it to every person, it gives me more examples to go on.” (Mary, Int 2)	(2) “I think the technology has personalized their experience...I think that they feel closer, what I always believe is that the technology always helps me to get closer to their writing experience and I think that has been achieved.” (Int 9)
“I think that’s really nice cuz instant feedback.” (Mike, Int 1)	(3) “They’re all making a really big effort, it’s a something very positive that I’ve noticed with this change.” (Int 10)

A second way that the online workbook was used in conjunction with Netsupport technology in the Spanish 301 classrooms was by allowing students to do work alongside their teacher and classmates. This occurred frequently during the days in the language lab, where the teacher provided input about how to complete a certain task and the principles behind a given concept. Students had to put these concepts into practice by applying their new knowledge during a computer assisted language task. This knowing-doing relationship could not have been more clearly facilitated by technology, as expressed in the teacher’s comments (Table 4.3) about

the positive changes that resulted from the new way that Spanish 301 was implemented. These positive remarks hallmark technology's facilitative role in making the class more personalized for students. Reflecting on how the technology had personalized the students' experience for her, the teacher contended that a clear relationship existed between their writing of different texts and her own experience reading and evaluating them as shown in her third comment, above.

In addition to the teacher's belief that technology helped her become closer to students' writing experiences, at least four students established that the technology had helped them to stay engaged with the material. Statements such as, "I have a chance to write everything down [in the lab] and it just keeps me engaged more" (Caleb, Interview 1) and "I like being in the computer lab and being able to compare something and write something and then talking about what you wrote" (Kerry, Interview 1) showed that these students really believed that they benefitted from being able to establish a link between their spoken knowledge about language and their written knowledge through language. Being able to do grammar and writing tasks and being able to discuss how to do (i.e., know) them with the teacher and as a group appeared to be invaluable for personalizing students' experience and engaging them with the course content. This knowing-doing connection was present on various levels throughout the semester and became notably visible through the use of Netsupport in the classroom.

**4.2.3. Google Docs.** On writing days, the use of the computer in the classroom seemed to become almost invisible, as it became part of a standard routine. As one of the main technologies used during the writing workshops, Google Docs allowed users to share documents and synchronously edit them together online. Many participants lauded the convenience and reliability of using Google Docs for writing tasks. Similar to other word processing tools, Google Docs provided the functionality to correct many of students' spelling and grammar mistakes.

This and the ability to access their documents from any computer with an internet connection as well as an automatic save feature that allowed them to safely keep a current version of their work online were just some of the reasons that students mentioned to advocate the use of Google Docs in the language classroom. Despite these many benefits, there were also several drawbacks mentioned about Google Docs as they were implemented during the writing workshops, as will be discussed below. Several positive and negative comments about Google Docs as they were used in Spanish 301 classrooms are shown in Table 4.4 and further elaborated in the following sections.

Table 4.4

*Representative Sample of Participant Comments About Using Google Docs in Spanish 301*

<b>Advantages of Google Docs</b>	<b>Drawbacks of Google Docs</b>
“I think I’ve gotten better about thinking in Spanish while I’m writing...I was really in my head in the beginning translating what I wanted to say in English into Spanish and as we’ve written this essay it’s a lot easier because it’s more just saying it in Spanish and not worrying about how I would say the same thing in English.” (Kerry, Int 3)	“Sometimes it can be hard for me when you’re going through it that quickly to really connect and say okay, why was that wrong...sometimes if the comment’s on the side it’s easy for me just to make the change really quickly and not really think about what the change meant or what I did wrong...it’s really so much faster to do it but then you don’t really say oh, well what was wrong about that; it’s almost too fast in a way.” (Kerry, Int 2)
“I think it’s very efficient, time-wise, it’s somewhat more reliable than Word, I think it was beneficial; I feel it’s easier to write out on a computer, you start learning how to better process your ideas.” (Cerise, Int 2)	“[My concern is] so are you really learning that or are you having it done? Who’s to say you knew that or the computer knew that for you?” (Cerise, Int 1)
“Now they are correcting their own, it’s like they have a little more pride in their writing, and that’s been because we’re using the technology for writing, a word processor, it’s not much, but it’s much more flexible.” (Teacher, Int 9)	“It’s [technology is] kind of a crutch, writing things down first [on paper] you can see all of the errors you made yourself.” (Mike, Int 1)

*Positive opinions of Google Docs as used in Spanish 301.* “I should be a promoter for Google Docs!” exclaimed Cerise during the second round of interviews: “I have it all there, it’s under a folder, click, click, click and bam! It’s there on my computer” (Interview 2). Cerise was one of the students who lauded Google Docs, describing it as a “life saver.” She emphasized its utility and convenience as “just one less thing to worry about” and mentioned that although Spanish 301 was her first exposure to the program, she had begun to use it to write papers and store information for her other classes as well.

Whereas at first at least five of the students interviewed were wary of increased technology incorporation into their class time, later at least four of the five began to herald the use of technology on writing days for helping them learn more efficiently and conveniently. These four stated that while at first they were critical of using Google Docs as a learning tool, they quickly grew accustomed to the role it played in their classroom experience. For example, one student stated, “I used to think technology would interfere, I can keep my thoughts more complete now” (Craig, Interview 1). This comment reflected the sentiment of the other three, who expressed their approval of technology for assisting classroom language learning. The idea that Google Docs permitted students to cover more content and to do more tasks in one class period was reiterated periodically throughout the semester. As Mary explained, “the computer corrects some of it so it just seems faster and more automatic, you can just do more in class” (Interview 1).

Not just students voiced the utility of technology in the language classroom. The teacher also talked about the way that technology fostered more valuable opportunities for formative assessment and feedback. Talking about how the class used to be designed and carried out, as well as her perceived reluctance of many of her fellow faculty members to teach the course, she

stated, “this is why the class is so heavy on the teacher because you do the compositions, and it’s times twice, the paper, the quizzes, the exams, the homework, I mean you really have to think of ways that you select what you are grading in person” (Interview 5). As one of two faculty members in the department who regularly taught Spanish 301, the teacher had a vested interest in making the course beneficial for students while at the same time making it manageable for a busy teacher with limited time.

*Negative opinions of Google Docs as used in Spanish 301.* Just as many positive aspects have just been described about the facilitative, favorable role of Google Docs in the blended Spanish writing classrooms, no conscientious depiction of these courses would be complete without also addressing comments about the potentially adverse role that it may have played. As technology continues to make life easier, in many respects students showed a growing concern about it also possibly robbing them of valuable lessons. One example of this was the automatic spell-and-grammar-check feature in Google Docs, which when active automatically corrected students’ errors as they typed. Here, two of the students interviewed described a marked difference when writing an essay in English, their native language, and writing in Spanish. They stated that when writing in one’s native language, the spell-and-grammar checker might be advantageous for catching slip-ups or silly mistakes. However, while writing in Spanish, at least four students expressed a concern about whether or not this automated process was actually working to their benefit.

As shown above, Mike stated, “it’s kind of a crutch, [on the other hand] writing things down first you can see all of the errors you made yourself” (Interview 1). Cerise shared a similar concern, asking: “so are you really learning that or are you having it done? Who’s to say you knew that or the computer knew that for you?” (Interview 1). These examples pointed to a



growing fear that using Google Docs might have led some people to miss out on important lessons or knowledge. Mike stated that he would prefer to write the first draft of the essay by hand in order to gain awareness and increased reflexivity about what is his own knowledge. In a world where the handwritten word is rapidly diminishing, automatic spell-and-grammar checkers have become almost ubiquitous.

Students expressed a second worry surrounding Google Docs usage in the Spanish 301 classroom, namely its tendency to speed up important learning processes to the point that it may render them ineffectual. Through Kerry's quote from Table 4.4, one can see that although it may have been slower and more painstaking to write comments and corrections by hand, there may be an advantage to making manual revisions to one's writing, especially if it means that it will provide the time necessary to understand the thought processes behind one's errors. As Kerry's reflection shows, laboring a little bit more in order to understand (and hopefully not repeat) one's errors may prove well worth it in the long run.

### **4.3 The Types of Feedback Done**

During a preliminary interview, the teacher commented, "my goal is to make it [the course] do-able for them to work on their draft by using technology; technology should be the medium which would help me to give them feedback" (Interview 2). After several years of imparting Spanish 301, the teacher had come to believe that students were not taking full advantage of her feedback. As she explained during the pre-course planning phase of interviews, in previous years the course had been taught by giving students instruction on how to write during class and later expected them apply this knowledge on their own when they went home. Rather than expecting students to focus on the correction of their grammatical errors, she desperately wanted to help them learn how to write. As she stated during one of the preliminary

interviews, “I want this to be a reflective experience for [students], for them to really improve their writing, the way that they confront writing” (Interview 6).

Instead of focusing on errors, the teacher wanted to accompany students throughout their writing processes, giving them personalized feedback that would really help them to work through their texts. Instead of telling students exactly what was wrong with their essays, in previous years she had classified each type of error using a coding key. When students of previous years received back their rough drafts, they used the key in order to make the corrections on their own. As a result, past students would use the teacher’s codes and error key to make guesses about the types of language that would be appropriate in a given context. Finally, they would turn in their essay a second time for a final grade, not having learned whether their guesses about language were correct.

According to the teacher, this way of grading and providing feedback was problematic for a number of reasons. First, she felt that the quality of students’ work tended to be rather low. She explained that she would write out the codes for students to correct on their rough drafts, but students would end up doing only the bare minimum to make these corrections. Oftentimes, they would guess incorrectly or continue to repeat mistakes that she had pointed out time and again.

After the new course format was in place, Mike described it in the following way: “I feel like it’s a lot more convenient for the teacher and for the student...instead of just print it off, turn it in, get it back, retype it, then print it out again, turn it in” (Interview 2). Mike, who was familiar with the rough-draft-correction-final-draft cycle common in many courses, reiterated the teacher’s notion that the way feedback used to be given in Spanish 301 was less useful than the new method for writing and revising in class. Commenting on the convenience of working on

their papers during class time, his quote shows that both his and the teacher's goals for the Spanish 301 course were in sync.

During the final interview, the teacher remarked at how differently she felt that students now viewed the course. She stated, “[before] it was out of insecurity that they committed mistakes...this [new] method gave them more security... I think much of it was that they felt secure with the language” (Interview 12). Feedback, both written and oral, played a major role in Spanish 301. Since the teacher had redesigned the course specifically with feedback in mind, students had been offered increased opportunities for revising their papers and receiving input about their writing. A large amount of class time was now spent in the classroom doing writing, apprenticing students into the writing and research process, and giving them input about how to improve their work.

Students had different views of technology's affordances with regard to giving and receiving feedback. Many said that oral feedback was more useful for understanding why something was wrong while others voiced a preference for written feedback due to its permanency; it was available after the fact to be able to return to and learn from. The following sections elaborate on the important role that two types of feedback played in the Spanish 301 blended courses.

**4.3.1 Oral feedback.** One of the aims of the days in the language lab was to be able to see students in action. As carried out in previous years, the Spanish 301 course left students to “fend for themselves” (i.e., to work on a rough draft at home on their own and then to make corrections to their papers based on a series of written codes). Not only did this old format hold students solely accountable for their essays, it also meant that they had to spend exceedingly large amounts of time writing their essays outside of class, as they forged their own novice methods

for writing and research. This, in comparison to other 300-level courses (e.g., Spanish conversation) required comparatively little work outside of class, seemed like an unfair balance.

As the first time that many of such students had written a longer piece of writing in Spanish, the teacher expressed wanting to accompany these novice writers toward more sophisticated ways of constructing written knowledge. To this end, the teacher said, “I really think that by performing the editing in class, one-to-one or two-to-one groups, students will think more about how to improve their writing” (Interview 5). The teacher believed that if she could regularly talk to students about how to improve their texts while they were in the process of creating them, this would lead to a positive change in their writing techniques. Her goal was to personalize their writing experience and help students understand the types of errors that they were making so that they could make positive changes to their discursive strategies.

The types of feedback that were afforded during in-class revisions primarily took the form of oral feedback, as could be seen in the portrayal of the typical writing day. Occasionally this feedback was given in peer-groups but for the most part the teacher took this upon herself. As Mary recalled, “she’s really good about walking around and reading...she’s really good at giving individual feedback, which is why I like the labs better, it’s more individualized” (Interview 1). Mary and other students voiced the value of having personalized, one-on-one time to talk about their particular language questions during writing workshops. As the teacher walked around the classroom, she stopped by each student’s seat to read what he or she was writing and to offer personalized input. This type of one-on-one oral feedback was a productive way to help students improve their writing.

As the teacher explained, this new method of giving oral feedback was something that had grown out of having taught the Spanish 301 course many times in the past. When referring to

the way that she used to teach the course, the teacher said, “sometimes when you give them the type of written input on their papers they don’t even read the feedback and they continue doing the same mistakes...that’s the bridge we need to come across and maybe technology and this type of approach will help us” (Interview 5). By having students access their assignments via computer and revise them in real-time as she circulated the classroom giving personalized feedback, the teacher surmised that a major hurdle of students not understanding feedback could be overcome. The simple fact of not understanding the types of corrections that the teacher was trying to emphasize in the grammar-coding key made students in previous years struggle to improve their writing effectively. As many students explained, the in-class feedback directly from the teacher helped them to make sense of the types of language that were either appropriate or ill-suited in a given context.

**4.3.2 Written feedback.** In addition to oral feedback, written feedback played an important role in students’ Spanish 301 classroom experiences. Although less frequently employed, the teacher and researcher periodically used the comment function in Google Docs as the medium to highlight specific problematic points within students’ essays. As Andy explained, the written feedback was helpful for going back to his writing after the fact and understanding why he had committed a particular mistake: “I like that it [the feedback] is personal when you get it face-to-face, but also you can’t relate exactly what she said... whereas if it’s posted here [in Google Docs], you can see, oh that’s exactly what she means, it doesn’t change over time” (Interview 2). The permanency of written feedback in Google Docs helped students go back to their revisions outside of class and understand how to improve their writing.

A danger that was brought up by students regarding only receiving oral feedback was that some people, especially those with lower oral Spanish proficiency, might not be able to

understand exactly what they were doing wrong. Kerry, for example, said, “it’s a little harder if she’s coming around and moving quickly, trying to get to everybody that has questions, and she might say something but you might not remember exactly how she said it” (Interview 2). As noted earlier, as opposed to receiving oral feedback over your shoulder as the teacher circulates the room, it was apparent that some students preferred written feedback in Google Docs, as this offered the benefit of being able to return to it again and again on one’s own time.

The type and amount of written feedback that the teacher gave by offering written comments in Google Docs varied. While some students stated that they received few comments, others said that they received many and that most of the comments tended to focus either on language form errors (e.g., missing accent marks or spelling) or form-meaning errors, such as the one Andy discussed: He explained that the teacher might have written something to the effect of “this doesn’t make sense or this would make more sense if you phrased it like this; look at the meaning of this; think about revising it” (Interview 2). From this kind of example, one can see that written comments in Google Docs, especially as they were used in conjunction with oral feedback, likely helped students improve their writing on various levels. Written comments offered the benefit of being in real-time, while still offering students the option of returning to the feedback in order to identify exactly what they could improve.

#### **4.4 The Patterns of Topics and Tasks**

The following section presents the findings brought to light by 38 classroom observations that were carried out over the course of one semester in two sections of Spanish 301. While a complete list of the classes organized by topics and tasks can be found in Appendix B, the findings reported here are presented in a way that remains faithful to the manner in which the course was designed. The following sections elaborate on the patterns of tasks, specific tasks, or

task groupings that were common throughout the lessons. The use of the term “groupings” will be used to refer to a specific sequence of tasks that related to the same topic or contents. For example, on culture days it was common to have students interact as a big group with the teacher leading the discussion, later to break up into pairs, and then finally to come back together as a big group. This series of patterns (e.g., first big group discussion, then pair work, then big group discussion) was thus, categorized as one task “grouping” (BG-PW-BG) containing various sub-tasks related to a given topic. Table 4.5 shows how similar task patterns occurred during different lessons. For example, big group (BG) and pair work (PW) tasks were carried out during all three types of lessons, whereas work-along (WA) tasks only occurred on grammar days and one-on-one (1on1) tasks only on writing days.

Table 4.5

*Task Classification Based on Interactional Patterns, Sub-Task Types, and Lessons*

<b>Pattern</b>	<b>Task Type</b>	<b>Culture</b>	<b>Grammar</b>	<b>Writing</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>BG</b>	Teacher input	21	19	28	68	39.3
	Input/IRF	24	14	3	41	23.7
<b>PW</b>	Sharing ideas	7	6	6	19	11.0
	HW check	4	1	2	7	4.1
	Online workbook		2	1	3	1.7
<b>WA</b>	Online workbook		17		17	9.8
<b>1on1</b>	Revision			14	14	8.1
	Student feedback			2	2	1.2
	Teacher feedback			2	2	1.2
<b>Total</b>		56	59	58	173	100

BG sub-tasks were defined as those in which the whole class was involved together. These tended to be more teacher-centered than PW tasks, in which students worked with other students. The WA tasks emerged as a special type of tasks in and of themselves, where technology mediated students’ classroom experiences, as they followed along with the teacher on online grammar exercises. The 1on1 tasks were defined as those in which the students worked

individually, often in Google Docs, while the teacher circulated offering her personalized feedback.

At a glance, one can see that the majority of BG sub-tasks that occurred over the semester involved teacher input alone (e.g., lectures, video presentations) or teacher input with input-response-feedback (IRF) sequences (63.0% of total tasks). Whereas on culture and grammar days the proportion of these types of tasks was approximately equal (21:24 on culture days, 19:14 on grammar days), on writing days there were quite a few more input tasks than IRF (28:3). PW sub-tasks also occurred during all three types of lessons and in approximate ratios. As mentioned, WA tasks (9.8% of total tasks) only occurred on grammar days and 1on1 tasks (10.5%) only on writing days.

As the only study that the author knows of which investigated patterns of tasks by their interactional patterns, the classification of tasks and sub-tasks allowed for several groupings to emerge. Although all types of lessons included a BG-PW-BG grouping, the culture lessons relied exclusively on some variation of big group and pair work sub-tasks. With technology present during grammar and writing days, different interactional patterns and groupings also emerged, such as the big-group/pair-work/big-group (BG-PW-BG) grouping for grammar practice and the big-group/work-along/big-group (BG-WA-BG) grouping for writing.

**4.4.1 Culture lessons.** The tasks on culture days primarily involved two interactional patterns: BG and PW, typically in that sequence and followed again by a BG sub-task. These required students to use their oral language to communicate either in the large group discussion or during smaller paired conversations. During a typical culture lesson, as the true-to-life narrative showed, the teacher spoke to the large group, eliciting students' background knowledge and providing additional oral input. Usually this input consisted of her telling stories or offering contextualized



examples. BG sub-tasks were often followed by PW sub-tasks, in which students collaborated, brainstormed, and shared information. The PW sub-tasks were generally followed by a second BG sub-task, in which the teacher asked students to share their PW conversations orally with the rest of the class. Table 4.6 quantifies the BG and sub-PW tasks on culture days throughout the semester.

Table 4.6

*BG and PW Sub-Tasks on Culture Days*

<b>Pattern</b>	<b>Task Type</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>BG</b>	Input/IRF (homework check, brainstorming, sharing ideas)	24	42.8
	Input (mini-lectures, discussion, videos, feedback)	21	37.5
<b>PW</b>	Homework check, sharing ideas	11	19.6
<b>Total</b>		56	100

Although the topics varied on culture days, the tasks and sub-tasks consisted of either teacher-led interaction (IRF sequences) or teacher/video input. For IRF tasks, the teacher typically asked a question related to a reading that students had completed for that day, then a student volunteered his or her answer, and lastly the teacher evaluated the student's response. The BG sub-tasks included homework checks, brainstorming as a group, and the sharing of ideas. Other times, input was given in the form of mini-lectures, discussions stemming from textbook questions, web-based videos, and teacher feedback. The PW sub-tasks often included students checking their homework for the day with a partner, sharing ideas, and discussing background knowledge. Students' opinions about tasks carried out on culture days could be classified as both positive and negative. Table 4.7 shows a sample of comments that students made about these tasks.

Table 4.7

*Representative Sample of Student Comments About Culture Tasks*

<b>Advantages to Culture Tasks</b>	<b>Drawbacks of Culture Tasks</b>
“There’s not much that just writing will do, I really think you need to be speaking it well and then after you get the speaking you can write.” (Andy, Int 1)	“I thought the big group was pretty easy, it could have been a lot more challenging and that would have been better...it’s just that she did all the work right in front of us, not very many people actually did the work, the would just look at her.” (Mike, Int 3)
“Talking about it opened my mind...it’s definitely broadening my idea of my paper and what other pinpoints I could incorporate into it.” (Cerise, Int 1)	“It’s always the same people talking...sometimes I feel like some people are very timid...everyone sees each other, it’s a little intimidating with the teacher and everyone looking at you, like when she’s asking you a question and we’re supposed to talk now, all of everyone’s looking at you, so if some times people don’t talk, that could be why, in our class it’s always the same person who talks.” (Cerise, Int 3)
“For me it’s beneficial putting your ideas and speaking them out loud instead of just keeping them to yourself, and especially starting out talking with a partner and then talking in front of the class, I feel like it’s a lot better, because say you and me are talking, I can talk to you about my ideas but maybe initially as a class some people would tend to shy away or not be able to think of things right on the spot, when you’re talking to someone one-on-one, I feel like it’s more time to think about it, then you say something and you’re like oh yeah, well also this and then you kinda brainstorm from there” (Cerise, Int 2)	“I think it’s a big challenge when a whole class period is devoted to one topic alone and some topics some people aren’t gonna care either way...by the third or fourth class talking about the same article where you’re getting down to really specific sentences or paragraphs where things were stated one time, I mean, how are you supposed to have a discussion about that? When you don’t have anything to say in English it’s so much harder to say things in a language that isn’t your native language, if you want to have productive discussions, I think you need broader topics that you can say more about and I think it encourages people to say things and have different sides of the discussion.” (Kerry, Int 3)

From these select comments, we can see that students were able to pinpoint positive and negative aspects of the culture tasks. On one hand, students were pleased with the way that

culture tasks tended to emphasize speaking, both as a large group and with a partner, and for facilitating their ideas about culture and writing, which would then be useful for incorporating into their papers. One student, Cerise, was able to see both the positive and negative aspects of topics, suggesting that she both liked and disliked certain aspects of the tasks. She mentioned the benefit of being able to bounce her ideas off a classmate first before working up the courage to talk in a big group. Jack was another student who was able to identify with both positive and negative sides of an issue.

On the negative side, some students tended to show a lack of motivation to work due to the effortlessness of the culture discussions. As Mike mentions above, the BG-PW task groupings could have been more stimulating if they presented a challenge or goal for students instead of leaving the discussion open-ended. Students also seemed to be more frustrated as the semester progressed with the tendency of only certain people to speak as a big group. This can be seen in Cerise's comment about only a select few individuals doing the bulk of the speaking. Also mentioned was a lack of variety of tasks during culture days, which harnessed BG and PW sub-tasks almost exclusively. This is apparent in Kerry's comment about the challenge of talking in Spanish about detailed topics or readings that had been covered for several classes.

**4.4.2 Grammar lessons.** The following section presents examples of two types of sub-tasks and their groupings. The sub-tasks on grammar days primarily involved three interactional patterns: BG, PW, and WA. While the BG grammar sub-tasks were similar in structure to the BG sub-tasks carried out on culture days as described in the previous section, with the students and teacher interacting orally in a mixture of input/IRF and teacher input, the PW grammar sub-tasks were different. This occurred partly due to the different class setting (the traditional classroom

versus the language laboratory) and since students often worked together in pairs alongside a computer to create a joint text.

During typical PW grammar sub-tasks, students constructed dialogues in their online workbooks. Similar to the PW-BG grouping on culture days, the grammar groupings also often included a teacher follow-up. Here, technology was also integrated, as the thick description showed. Netsupport, as previously described, allowed the teacher to project students' computer screens and correct their written work in front of the class after the PW grammar sub-tasks. Using technology, the teacher used students' own examples to provide personalized feedback. Giving feedback in front of the class, other students were encouraged to compare the teacher's comments about their classmates' paragraphs to their own texts.

A second common task grouping on grammar days involved a mixture of BG sub-tasks and what I have termed "work-along" tasks. During BG-WA-BG groupings, the teacher projected an activity from the online workbook onto the projector screen while students simultaneously worked alongside her on their own computers. Table 4.8 shows a quantification of the types of sub-tasks carried out on grammar days over the semester.

Table 4.8

*Quantification of BG, PW, and WA Sub-Tasks Used on Grammar Days*

<b>Pattern</b>	<b>Task Type</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>BG</b>	Input/IRF (homework checks, sharing ideas)	14	23.7
	Input (mini-lectures, videos, feedback)	19	32.2
<b>PW</b>	Homework check, sharing ideas, Online workbook	9	15.3
<b>WA</b>	Online workbook	17	28.8
<b>Total</b>		59	100

As one can see from the table, there was a fairly equal mixture of Input/IRF BG sub-tasks and Input sub-tasks (14 Input/IRF: 19 Input) over the semester. Both PW and WA sub-tasks were

frequently carried out in conjunction with BG sub-tasks during the grammar lessons. By frequently supplementing BG work with a WA or a PW sub-task, the teacher was able to give students opportunities to practice previously covered concepts and skills. One can also observe that the ratio of BG input to PW/WA practice was approximately equal (55.9%: 44.1%). This suggests that students had roughly the same amount of in-class opportunities to learn the theory behind the grammar as they had to engage in technology-mediated tasks that asked them to do the grammar. Students' opinions and attitudes surrounding the grammar tasks could also be classified for their positive and negative stance. Table 4.9 shows several of these comments about the work that students carried out on grammar days.

Table 4.9

*Representative Sample of Student Comments About Grammar Tasks*

<b>Advantages to Grammar Tasks</b>	<b>Drawbacks of Grammar Tasks</b>
"It's difficult to get grammar [instruction] outside of class, I can read and write outside of class but grammar is what I need most, it's what I'm paying for." (Jack, Int 1)	"I'm not a big fan of the actividades when you have a sentence and you have to choose the way a word goes, even though I know that it's practice." (Isla, Int 1)
"I feel the explanation is beneficial...it's beneficial for me to see and then write, it helps me retain the information more, so when I'm putting it into practice in the exercises, the information's fresh in my mind...in Quia [the online workbook] it's more a breakdown so you actually have to think and then put it into practice, so it's helpful...I feel like it's different but it's helpful, I feel like it makes it smoother and faster." (Cerise, Int 2)	"For our homework this week we just put the word and then we had another one where we had a sentence or a paragraph we had to write out, I think those are good for home, but I feel like in class, for me it would be easier to have it all written out in a sentence, or to just go sentence by sentence or paragraph by paragraph." (Cerise, Int 2)
"Sometimes she would look at other people's writings and share them with the big group and I thought that was really helpful because she would be like okay guys, here's a common mistake, try not to make that in your writing because it sounds weird in Spanish even though it sounds completely normal in English." (Mike, Int 3)	"I guess it's probably something I could have done at home...I think just bringing it and being able to ask certain questions about okay, is this the word I was supposed to use? Because although I enjoy the exercise, I could have easily done what I did outside of the classroom." (Kerry, Int 1)

From these quotes, we can see again that even the same student could sometimes identify the positive and negative aspects of the grammar tasks. For example, while Cerise was enthusiastic about the BG grammar instruction, she was less so about the WA or PW sub-tasks that required her to simply plug in a word to a sentence. Similarly, Kerry and Isla both felt that while being important for homework outside of class, such tasks were not appropriate for use in the classroom. On the positive side, at least three of the students interviewed brought up the fact that they enjoyed the BG sub-tasks in which the teacher shared students' work and corrected it together. A similar idea can be seen in Mike's comment about the utility of sharing common grammar mistakes as a group for subsequent application.

**4.4.3 Writing workshops.** The following section presents the types of tasks that took place during Friday writing workshops. These tasks primarily involved three interactional patterns: BG, PW, and 1on1 sub-tasks. While BG sub-tasks on writing days were similar to BG sub-tasks on culture and grammar days, PW and 1on1 sub-tasks were different. Instead of PW sub-tasks that involved oral sharing ideas about teacher input, PW writing sub-tasks had students helping one another to edit each other's written work. Another type of sub-task termed '1on1', consisted of students bringing their written work from home and revising it during class. The 1on1 sub-tasks also afforded students opportunities to ask the teacher specific questions about their writing, which resulted in a very personalized form of feedback, as addressed in Section 4.2. Table 4.10 details the different types of sub-tasks that were carried out during writing days in the language laboratory.

Table 4.10

*BG, PW, and 1on1 Sub-Tasks Used on Writing Days*

<b>Pattern</b>	<b>Sub-Task Type</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>BG</b>	Input/IRF (sharing)	3	5.2
	Input (lectures, feedback)	28	48.3
<b>PW</b>	Homework check, sharing ideas	9	15.5
<b>1on1</b>	Revision, student feedback, feedback	18	31.0
<b>Total</b>		58	100

As one can see from Table 4.10, BG writing sub-tasks together with 1on1 sub-tasks formed the basis for the majority of sub-tasks carried out on writing days (85.5%). Similar to the grammar days, the ratio of BG to PW/1on1 sub-tasks was approximately equal (53.5%: 46.5%), again suggesting that students had approximately equal opportunities to receive input about writing as they had actually putting into practice their writing skills. Although PW was less frequent during writing days than during culture or grammar days, 1on1 sub-tasks provided ample opportunities to receive feedback from the teacher and peers. Students' comments about the tasks on writing days could also be classified into positive and negative statements, as shown in Table 4.11. This classification suggests how students felt about the use of Google Docs for writing instruction and practice.

The main problem that students cited with the 1on1 sub-tasks on writing days was the inability to concentrate in class. While some students, such as Andy, were able to take maximum advantage of the time and described the writing lab as "a really positive environment," others such as Jack, Kerry, and Cerise mentioned not being able to focus as much as they might have if working at home. While much of the writing days were devoted to 1on1 writing, there were also moments to talk about the activity of writing as a big group. As Mike said, these moments were

beneficial for helping to deconstruct other students' texts and to get feedback about how to improve one's writing.

Table 4.11

*Representative Sample of Student Comments About Writing Tasks*

<b>Advantages to Writing Tasks</b>	<b>Drawbacks of Writing Tasks</b>
<p>"It's a really positive environment and I write a lot better and a lot faster  Researcher: Okay, so you don't feel these days in the lab are a waste of time?  A: No, definitely not  R: And do you ever feel like oh, I wish the teacher were lecturing or something during that hour, like I'm paying for her to teach me?  A: Well, she is teaching you, when she walks around you get your moment, and you get to ask the question you have and she'll give you the direct answer to your question." (Andy, Int 2)</p>	<p>"I can't work well writing in class, I can't think, I have to be drinking coffee, there's not enough time to relax to be ready to think well for me, too many distractions in class, but at the same time I like that she can help us, you both can help us, so I think it's necessary." (Jack, Int 3)</p>
<p>"I think that the way you have it now gives you a chance to ask questions...if you go to office hours, that's just going to help you or if you get the grade back, then it's just helping you, if she gives you comments on your paper, the comments aren't that important to you, like the grade, now I think it's better to do it in class...personally it's better to be able to ask questions in class directly to the teacher." (Cerise, Int 3)</p>	<p>"It was hard to talk about it with a partner because nobody really cared about what some random person's thesis statement was...I'm someone who takes writing as a very personal thing and for me it's harder to be comfortable with sharing and discussing in a large group, I find it uncomfortable knowing that someone's reading my writing at a particular time...I like it when she comes around and has a quick discussion with everybody, I think that would have been helpful for me." (Kerry, Int 3)</p>
<p>For that class [analyzing thesis statements] I thought that it was good to speak Spanish with my neighbors and analyze it together, I think that's a really good way to improve your writing by analyzing other people's writing, so I thought that was pretty effective." (Mike, Int 3)</p>	<p>"I can be creative to develop an idea but not write it in class, I can write but I can't focus on anything well." (Cerise, Int 3)</p>



## 4.5 How Learning Occurred

While the previous section has laid out the different types of tasks and students' reactions to these tasks, this section will delve deeper into the language that occurred. Six examples were chosen to show explicitly how language learning occurred. These include (a) a BG cultural discussion sub-task, (b) a BG grammar sub-task, (c) a PW grammar sub-task, (d) a WA grammar sub-task, (e) a BG-PW writing grouping, and (f) a 1on1 writing sub-task. These are summarized in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12

### *Sub-Tasks Chosen For Discourse Analysis*

Section	Task Topic	Sub-Task Pattern	Type
4.4.1	Culture: Hypothetical scenario	BG	Discussion
4.4.2	Grammar: Subjunctive	BG	T input/IRF
4.4.3	Grammar: Subjunctive	PW	Online workbook
4.4.4	Grammar: Object pronouns	WA	Online workbook
4.4.5	Writing: Thesis statement	BG-PW	T input/IRF
4.4.6	Writing: Thesis statement	1on1	Student revision

**4.5.1 Cultural learning through discussion.** Several excerpts of discourse from a typical BG culture sub-task will now be elaborated on. The topic of the lesson was cultural diversity in the Spanish-speaking world. Table 4.13 shows the task groupings for the day, as derived from the complete list of tasks in Appendix B. The shaded portion of Table 4.13 shows the two sub-tasks that are the focus of a discourse analysis, a BG discussion involving a hypothetical scenario. As one can see from the organization of the typical culture day, the topic of the day was historical and contemporary issues in Spain. From this particular class, the BG sub-task chosen for analysis was task 3b (shaded) due to the common style of interaction, which was similar to other BG sub-tasks carried out during culture lessons. The teacher began by explaining the task, in which students had to work together to discuss a question from their textbook. The question specifically

asked students to discuss how the socioeconomic position of an individual impacts their view of their culture. Students had already written the answers to these discussion questions for homework and were thus expected to share their answers orally with their partner.

Table 4.13

*Task Groupings from a Typical Culture Day*

Class	Day	Groupings	Subgroups	Pattern	Format	Topic
14	Culture	1	a	PW	HW check	Languages of the world
			b	BG	HW check	Languages of the world
		2	a	BG	T input	Languages of the world
		3	a	PW	Discussion	Hypothetical scenario
			b	BG	Discussion	Hypothetical scenario
		4	a	BG	T input	Reconquista <sup>32</sup>
			b	PW	Discussion	Reconquista
		5	a	PW	Discussion	Modern vs. Trad. Spain
			b	BG	Sharing	Modern vs. Trad. Spain
		6	a	BG	Videos	Immigration in Madrid
			b	PW	Discussion	Immigration in Madrid
			c	BG	Sharing	Immigration in Madrid

After a PW sub-task, the teacher asked students to share their ideas during a follow-up BG sub-task, in which she brought the students back together as a larger group. By first eliciting students' answers and then providing them with oral feedback, the teacher was able to build up their knowledge, adding to their contributions. To do this, the teacher used functional recasts<sup>33</sup>. Several examples will be given to show how follow-up BG sub-tasks enabled students to enhance their knowledge of cultural topics and their ability to construct their knowledge through language. In the following passage, the teacher has asked a question about the different ways that

<sup>32</sup> The recapture of Spain, when the Christian kings retook the country from the Muslims.

<sup>33</sup> Mohan and Beckett (2003) distinguish a functional from a formal recast in that while the latter's main purpose is grammatical error repair, the former "paraphrases meaning in discourse and thus raises the question of relations between form and meaning in discourse" (p. 424).

a female Mexican housekeeper and a female Mexican engineer might view their culture. By first presenting a hypothetical situation related to the PW discussion questions recently discussed, the students had to use their backgrounds and their knowledge from the reading to answer appropriately. Original transcripts can be found in Appendix C.

Teacher: Les voy a pedir que...se imaginen por ejemplo como una trabajadora doméstica **hablaría** de su cultura, si Uds. fueran a México... y le preguntaban a una empleada doméstica qué sabe de su cultura, ¿Qué tipo de respuesta, qué tipo de información creen Uds. que esta persona les **daría**?...

Student: (1) **yo creo** que la empleada doméstica sabe más de tradición de como cocinar y preparar comidas...

Teacher: (2) Muy bien, (3) entonces, tú **esperarías** que el tipo de información que **te daría** la empleada, *tal vez estaría basado* en lo que aprendió de su familia, ¿verdad? de su lugar de origen

[Teacher: I'm going to ask...that you imagine for example how a housekeeper (female) **would talk** about her culture, if you went to Mexico for example... and you asked a housekeeper what they know about their culture, what type of answer, what type of information do you all think that that person **would give** you? ...

Student: (1) **I think** the housekeeper knows more about tradition, how to cook and prepare food...

Teacher: (2) very good, (3) so you **would expect** that the type of information that the housekeeper **would give would maybe be based** on what she learned from her family, right? on her place of birth]

In the above example, the student answered the teacher's question by using a mental process in (1), which projected her thoughts about a specific housekeeper. The teacher built this meaning up by incorporating more advanced modal processes and a modal adjunct in her paraphrasing of information. The teacher first positively evaluated the student's idea (*very good*) in (2) and then paraphrased or functionally recasted the information in (3), using several modalized processes (*would expect, would give, would be based on*) and a modal adjunct (*maybe*). Using modality in her recast of the information given by the student, the teacher effectively opened up the student's answer. While the student's answer referred only to what she thought of the hypothetical housekeeper (*I think...*), the teacher's functional recast with modalized processes brought

additional voices into the meaning, in essence including the student's and others' points of view more explicitly than before.

Modality forms part of the APPRAISAL network as a way that writers/speakers open up discourse to multiple possibilities (Martin & White, 2005). As modality is often used to temper the force of statements, this example shows how the teacher used a functional recast to guide students toward more heteroglossic statements, thus modeling more potentially academic discourse. Modal processes and adjuncts color language with different shades of meaning. The use of modality modeled by the teacher encouraged students to use non-committal language that left options open to possibilities.

A second feature in the BG sub-task was that of technical and abstract language. In the following IRF sequence, the teacher uses another functional recast, this time modeling more technical language. According to Schleppegrell (2006), technical language is a primary feature of the discourse that constructs "schooling" knowledge. In the following example, we can see how the teacher helped one student move toward more abstract, technical meanings.

Teacher: ¿Cuál es la relación entre el dinero y expresar tu propia cultura?

Student: Puedes (2a) **comprar** más (3<sup>a</sup>) *cosas* como, I don't know, *artesanías* o *cosas* así que no, I don't know

Teacher: okay, muy bien, puedes **tener** un poco **más acceso a** (2b) **consumir** (3b) *bienes artísticos*

[Teacher: (1) What is the relationship between money and expressing your own culture?

Student: You can (2a) **buy** more (3a) *things* like, I don't know, *handicrafts* or *things* like that

Teacher: okay, very good, you can (4) **have** a little more **access to** (2b) **consume** (3b) *artistic goods*]

In (1) the teacher asked a question, which the student's answers using material process (*buy*).

The teacher then recasts this in (2a) choosing more sophisticated terminology (*consume*, *have access to*) in (2b). The student's use of non-technical terms like *things* and *handicrafts* in (3a) is

paraphrased and built up by the teacher's choice of more technical participants (*artistic goods*). By effectively increasing the lexical density<sup>34</sup> of the utterance, the above example shows how the teacher functionally recasted a student's statement using more technical language, including both processes (*have access to, consume*) and participants (*artistic goods*).

A third feature of discourse present in the teacher's functional recasts during the BG culture task included the presence of nominalization and grammatical metaphor. Halliday (1998) suggests that there is a developmental progression from less grammatically metaphoric constructions, such as relators (conjunctions), toward more grammatically metaphoric ones. This nominalization provides a higher level of abstraction. In the previous example, for example, one can notice in (4) how the teacher brought in a relational process (*have*) and nominalized the rest (*a little more access to consume artistic goods*). As an example of grammatical metaphor, the teacher changed the student's common material process (*buy*) into a relational one (*have*), which connects a person with an attribute of some kind.

In another example, below, the teacher functionally recasted the student's answer, nominalizing the utterance and taking the student's relational process toward a more metaphoric construction.

Teacher: (1) Cómo afecta la posición socioeconómica de una persona su manera de entender y expresar su cultura?

Student: La profesional probablemente (2) **tiene más tiempo y más dinero** para expresar su cultura

Teacher: (3) Okay, muy bien, (4) **disponibilidad de tiempo libre, dinero**

[Teacher: (1) How does the socioeconomic position of a person affect the way she understands and expresses her culture?

Student: The professional probably (2) **has more time and more money** to express her culture

Teacher: (3) Okay, very good, (4) **time and money availability**]

---

<sup>34</sup> Lexical density is defined as the number of lexical items over the number of clauses; higher lexical density has been shown to occur more frequently in advanced language (Veel, 1997).

The teacher began by asking a question in (1), which the student answered using the relational process *has more time and money* in (2). The teacher then positively evaluated the student's answer in (3), offering an alternative way to build up the density of the clause by nominalizing the relational process (*has*) into *time and money availability* in (4). From this example one can see that the teacher's functional recast takes the student's relational process and replaces it with a noun. In this way, the student's less metaphoric clausal construction (*has*) is replaced by a more metaphoric construction (*availability*).

Using the teacher's functional recasts of student's speech during BG sub-tasks to show how meaning is constructed through language, three exemplary language features have been presented. These include (a) modalized processes and adjuncts to temper statements and open up possibilities, (b) technical and abstract terminology to build up academic discourse, and (c) grammatical metaphor and nominalization as features of more advanced linguistic development. These excerpts of student-teacher interactions have shown how BG sub-tasks presented opportunities for students to gain exposure to more sophisticated ways of using language to construct knowledge during culture lessons.

**4.5.2 Grammar learning through input/IRF.** The BG grammar sub-tasks often instructed students about how to use language form appropriately. This specialized use of language to talk *about* language resulted in the construction of a specific Spanish grammar register, which was used only to talk about what language does. The following examples were taken from the initial BG input sub-task, which appears shaded in Table 4.14.


Table 4.14

*Task Groupings From a Typical Grammar Day: Big Group Work*

Class	Day	Groupings	Subgroup	Pattern	Format	Topic
15	Grammar	4	1	BG	T input/IRF	Subj. adj. clauses
			2	PW	Brainstorm	Subj. adj. clauses
			3	PW	Online WB	Subj. adj. clauses
				BG	T feedback	Subj. adj. clauses
			4	BG	Videos	Subj. adj. clauses
				BG	T input/IRF	Subj. adj. clauses

Similar to the BG sub-tasks on culture days, the discourse from BG grammar sub-tasks contained many examples of functional recasts, which helped students enhance their knowledge of Spanish grammar principles. In addition to functional recasts, formal recasts were also often present, which required students to rethink their grammar forms<sup>35</sup>. In the following example, both functional and formal recasts were present. The BG grammar sub-task asked students to understand the differences between the use of the subjunctive and indicative moods, one of the most challenging aspects for NNS to master. Here, the teacher asked students to compare two sentences from a PowerPoint (PPT) slide, as shown in Figure 4.1, one that used the subjunctive mood and another the indicative. Original transcripts can be found in Appendix C.

<sup>35</sup> Mohan, Leung, and Slater (2010) describe the difference between formal and functional recasts by highlighting that whereas the former stem from a traditional view of assessment as a judgment of correctness of form, the latter is associated with a functional view of assessment, which judges the functional appropriateness of an expression of meaning.



Hay dos profesoras en WLC que vienen de China.

¿Hay alguien en tu escuela que venga de China?

There are two teachers in the WLC (World Languages Department) that **come** from China.  
(indicative) [Hay dos profesores en WLC que **vienen** de China.]

Is there anyone in your school that comes from China? (subjunctive) [¿Hay alguien en tu escuela que **venga** de China?]

Figure 4.1. PPT side of BG grammar sub-task about subjunctive and indicative moods.

Teacher: ¿Por qué en la primera hay un verbo en indicativo?

Student: Primero era un (1a) *derecho*, ellos son de China y vienen de China

Teacher: Bien

Student: El segundo fue una pregunta, (2a) **por si hay alguien de China**.

Teacher: Correcto, tenemos un (1b) *hecho* y aquí tenemos una pregunta, (2b) **no sabemos que si hay gente con esas características en tu escuela**

[Teacher: Why in the first one is there a verb in indicative?

Student: The first one was a (1a) *right*, they are from China and they came from China.

Teacher: Good.

Student: And the second one was a question, (2a) **if someone was from China**.

Teacher: Correct, we have a (1b) *fact* and here we have a question, (2b) **we don't know if there's someone with those characteristics in your school]**

In this BG sub-task, the teacher first elicited an answer about why the first sentence took the indicative mood and the second the subjunctive. From the example, we can see the student correctly identified the reason why this occurred, despite using an incorrect term (*right*) in (1a).

The teacher follows up the student's answer with a formal recast in (1b), where she corrected this term (*fact*) as well as providing a functional recast in (2b) to paraphrase the student's answer and elaborate on why the subjunctive mood was most appropriately used in the second sentence.



As mentioned, during the BG grammar sub-task, the teacher used both formal and functional recasts to help build up students' understanding of grammatical concepts. Her functional recast of the student's answer (*if someone was from China*) with more precise and complete information (*We don't know if there's someone with those characteristics in your school*) both elaborated on the student's contribution in (2a) and added information that clearly related to why the sentence took the subjunctive mood. This type of interaction, which used specific language features such as functional and formal recasts to talk about language, frequently occurred during BG grammar sub-tasks. These features enabled students to gain adroitness with a specialized Spanish grammar register.

Talking about language was common during BG grammar sub-tasks to build up a specialized grammar register common perhaps only in classrooms where grammar is taught. Certain abstract language concepts require specialized terminology to help students pack and unpack their knowledge about language (Schleppegrell, 2006). A second example from the BG sub-task will now be given to show how the teacher helped scaffold students to understand complex grammatical concepts. In this example, terms like *subjunctive* and *indicative* became laden with meaning as students expanded their knowledge about grammar. In the following excerpt, the teacher gave students input about adverbial clauses, emphasizing that if the first clause refers to the future, the second takes subjunctive mood (Appendix C).

Teacher: Ayúdame a completar estas frases chiquillos 'ven a visitarnos *tan pronto como* (poder/tú)'

Student: (1) puedas

Teacher: muy bien, ¿Por qué **subjuntivo**?

Student: (2a) porque no ha ocurrido

Teacher: (2b) está en el futuro ¿verdad?

[Teacher: Help me to complete these phrases guys, 'come visit us *as soon as* (can/you)']

Student: (1) you can (subjunctive mood)

Teacher: very good, why **subjunctive**?

Student: (2a) because it hasn't occurred

Teacher: (2b) it's in the future, right?]

In this example, the term *subjunctive* is packed with more and more meaning as students built up their understanding of when and how to use this structure. Whereas the culture tasks asked students to enhance their knowledge about culture, the grammar tasks asked that they enhance their knowledge about language. While the contents differed, the underlying idea and linguistic structures used to build this knowledge appeared to be similar. In this case, the use of the subjunctive mood depended on whether or not the clause referred to a future or present/past time event. Students had to unpack this knowledge simultaneously in order to apply it correctly in various examples.

From the above task discourse, one can see that the student has applied his knowledge of the subjunctive in (1) in order to answer the teacher's prompt. In (2a), he then made this knowledge explicit (*because it hasn't occurred*) by answering the question. Finally in (2b) the teacher followed up by repeating the rule that for the second clause to take subjunctive, it needs to refer to a future moment (*it's in the future, right?*). This example shows how abstract language terminology, such as the term *subjunctive*, became laden with multiple meanings, which students had to unpack in order to appropriately complete the task. Recasting, both formally and functionally, became instrumental for the teacher to ensure that students were able to correctly use the terminology as they applied the concepts to language examples.

**4.5.3 Grammar learning through pair work.** The next example comes from the same class as in the previous example, but focuses on the PW sub-task as shown shaded in Table 4.15. This PW grammar sub-task asked students to apply the principles they learned about the subjunctive and indicative moods during the initial BG sub-task by using their newly acquired metalinguistic knowledge.

Table 4.15

*Task Groupings From a Typical Grammar Day: Pair Work*

Class	Day	Groupings	Subgroup	Pattern	Format	Topic
15	Grammar	4	1	BG	T input	Subj. adj. clauses
			2	PW	Brainstorm	Subj. adj. clauses
			3	PW	Quia work	Subj. adj. clauses
				BG	T feedback	Subj. adj. clauses
			4	BG	Videos	Subj. adj. clauses
				BG	T input/IRF	Subj. adj. clauses

In the example below, students carried out the PW sub-task, applying their grammar knowledge while writing a dialogue in which they had to use certain adverbial phrases with the subjunctive and indicative moods. During the writing of the dialogue, there was a chance for students to collaborate in order to understand the key principles behind using the subjunctive and indicative moods with adverbial phrases. This is shown below in the dialogue between students (see Appendix C).

Student A: (1a) **en el presente** tenemos que usar (2<sup>a</sup>) **subjuntivo**

Student B: no sé, ¿estás seguro? no sé

A: ah

B: no es tan mal si estamos equivocados, pero

A: sí, yo pienso

B→T: tenemos una pregunta

T: ¿sí?

B: esta, ‘si en cuanto lleguen van a tener hambre’ ¿está bien dicho?

T: está bien...

A: sí, solo usamos (2b) **indicativo** con ‘en cuanto’ cuando algo ha pasado

B: sucedió

A: sí, (1b) **en el pasado**

[Student A: (1a) **in the present** we have to use (2a) **subjunctive**

Student B: I don’t know, are you sure? I don’t know

A: ah

B: it’s not so bad if we’re wrong, but

A: yeah, I think so

B →T: We have a question

T: Yes?

B: this one, ‘if *as soon as* they arrive they are going to be hungry’ is it well said?

T: it's good...

A: yes, we only use (2b) **indicative** with 'as soon as' when something has happened

B: it happened

A: Yes, (1b) **in the past**]

This interaction above shows how Student A was able to rethink his understanding of the principles behind the use of the subjunctive mood with adverbial phrases by collaborating during the PW sub-task. By working with his partner and the teacher to apply grammar concepts covered during the BG sub-task, Student A was able to fill a gap in his knowledge about when and how to use the subjunctive mood.

Following the students' conversation, we can see that they came to an agreement by using classification language, one of the key knowledge structures of academic language as noted by Mohan (1986). By classifying the ways in which the indicative and subjunctive moods are used, the students were able to reorganize the concepts underpinning the task. In this example, the students collaborated to classify the use of the present tense with the indicative mood. In (1a) and (2a), one can see that Student A has created a classification of present and past tenses, and has associated the use of the subjunctive mood with the present tense. Student B thinks that something may be wrong with this knowledge and so decides to ask for help from the teacher. The teacher tells the partners that the answer is correct and, therefore, both students are able to confirm that the use of the indicative with the adverbial *as soon as* should be in the category of past tense, and thus the adverbial's use with the subjunctive is with the present tense.

**4.5.4 Grammar learning through the L1.** The next example comes from a grammar WA sub-task, the topic of which was object pronouns. Table 4.16 shows the task groupings for the day, where the shaded portion indicates where in the lesson this particular sub-task occurred.

Table 4.16

*Task Groupings from a Typical Grammar Day: Work Along*

Class	Day	Groupings	Subgroups	Pattern	Format	Topic
18	Exam review	1		BG	Input/IRF	Object pronouns
		2		WA	Online WB	Object pronouns
		3		WA	Online WB	Object pronouns
		4	a	1on1	Listening task	Stereotypes
			b	BG	Sharing ideas	Stereotypes
		5		WA	Online WB	Preterite & Imperfect
		6		WA	Online WB	Subjunctive

In the following WA sub-task, students worked along with the teacher to complete an assignment from their online workbook about object pronouns. From this example, one can see that this WA grammar sub-task presented opportunities for students to build up their knowledge about language. One of the linguistic features of these tasks was a pronounced use of English<sup>36</sup>.

From the following example, we can see that the use of the L1 in a specific case, as an alternative resource that students were familiar with, played an important role in making certain that they understood key grammatical concepts. As one anonymous student wrote in her or his course evaluation, “she [the teacher] speaks to us in English only when explaining very important dates and concepts that we CAN’T mix up. Then she will speak in English only for that little bit.” From this, we can see that use of the L1 was limited to very particular situations and fulfilled the purpose of confirming students’ understanding. The following example shows how the L1 was used to construct students’ knowledge about language. Original transcripts can be found in Appendix C<sup>37</sup>.

<sup>36</sup> Although some research shows that extensive use of the L1 in the language classroom robs students of valuable L2 input, others argue that occasional use of the L1 in the FL classroom may serve an important purpose (e.g., Brooks & Donato, 1994).

<sup>37</sup> In the translated passage, **bold** text represents English and regular text Spanish.

Teacher: okay 'veo mi vecina por esta ventana' ¿cuál es el objeto directo?

Student: vecina

T: a mi vecina ¿sí? now I do have an 'a' personal, but still the object within this sentence, the object that receives directly the action is 'a mi vecina' ¿sí? I'm not giving her anything, she's not being impacted on a second level of a previous action of me giving her something or doing something for her, right? directly I'm looking at her, (3) entonces ¿cómo voy a escribirlo? a ver, por esta ventana, (4) how do I rewrite that, is that possible? no (5) ¿por qué? entonces la veo por la ventana

[Teacher: (1) okay, 'I see my neighbor through the window' what's the direct object?

Student: neighbor

Teacher: to my neighbor, right? (2) **now I do have an 'a' personal, but still the object within this sentence, the object that receives directly the action is to my neighbor I'm not giving her anything, she's not being impacted on a second level of a previous action of me giving her something or doing something for her, right? directly I'm looking at her** (3) so, how am I going to write it? let's see, through this window (4) **how do I rewrite that, is that possible? no** (5) why? so I see her through the window]

In this case, the neighbor is being seen by the subject of the sentence. In this particular instance, the identification of the neighbor as the direct object is complicated by the use of the personal preposition (*a*), which is used before human or sometimes animal objects. In order to make sure that students understand this exception, the teacher uses the L1 to explain the fact that in this example, the personal preposition is confounded with the preposition of direction (in English *to* *someone*), which is generally used with indirect objects (e.g., she mailed the letter *to* you).

Although use of the L1 was limited only to special moments during grammar days, one can see that its use fulfilled the purpose of making sure that students understood a particularly tricky grammar concept. Using the L1, the teacher worked along with students to rewrite sentences in their online workbooks. Students had to replace direct and indirect objects with their pronouns, a complex idea to master because it required them to understand the principles behind different relationships between the participants in a clause, a principle that the teacher felt was better explained using the students' L1.

Code switching, in which the teacher shifted from using Spanish (1) to English (2) when a difficult concept was presented, and back to Spanish in (3) and (5) allowed the teacher to scaffold students' understanding of metalinguistic principles. The shift from English to Spanish in grammar classes where concepts were difficult to master served the purpose of ensuring students' understanding of complex grammar rules.

**4.5.5 Talking about writing.** We will now see an example of a BG writing sub-task paired with a PW discussion sub-task and BG follow-up sub-task. Later, in Section 4.5.6, we will see how a 1on1 writing sub-task became the natural progression from talking about writing to doing writing. The shaded portions of Table 4.17 show where these sub-tasks occurred during a lesson on writing thesis statements.

Table 4.17

*Task Groupings From a Typical Writing Day: BG, PW, and 1on1*

Class	Day	Groupings	Subgroup	Pattern	Format	Topic
38	Final project	3	1	BG	T input/IRF	Thesis statement
			2	PW	Sharing ideas	Thesis statement
				BG	T feedback	Thesis statement
				PW	Sharing ideas	Thesis statement
				BG	T feedback	Thesis statement
				PW	Sharing ideas	Thesis statement
				BG	T feedback	Thesis statement
				PW	Sharing ideas	Thesis statement
				BG	T feedback	Thesis statement
				BG	T feedback	Thesis statement
				PW	Sharing ideas	Thesis statement
				BG	T feedback	Thesis statement
			3	1on1	Student revision	Thesis statement

The BG writing sub-tasks were often teacher-led opportunities for text deconstruction. In the following example, the teacher used functional recasts to help students deconstruct and later jointly construct different text genres and sub-genres. As mentioned, the use of functional recasts

helped increase the lexicogrammatical sophistication of students' utterances. In these examples, the teacher helped students to build their formal language use via technical processes and embedded clauses. In the following text, the teacher used an IRF sequence to help students understand the concept of a thesis statement as a sub-genre of their final essay. Original transcripts can be found in Appendix C.

- Teacher: Okay, ¿listos? ¿Qué es una tesis entonces?  
 Student A: El enfoque del ensayo  
 Teacher: Muy bien, el enfoque del ensayo dice [Student A], ¿qué más?  
 Student B: (1a) **Conecta** todo el contenido  
 Teacher: Muy bien, entonces es una idea (2) **que cuando se tome en cuenta, (1b) puede unificar** todo el contenido
- [Teacher: Okay, ready? What is a thesis [statement] then?  
 Student A: The focus of an essay  
 Teacher: Very good, [Student A] says it's the focus of an essay  
 Student B: (1a) It **connects** all the content  
 Teacher: Very good, so it's an idea (2) **that when taken into account, (1b) can unify** all the content

In this example, we can see that the teacher used a functional recast to increase the lexicogrammatical sophistication of Student B's utterance. Using a more modalized technical process (*can unify*) in (1b) versus Student B's choice of *connects* in (1a), the teacher moved Student B from less formal to more academic language. The teacher also used an embedded clause (*that when taken into account*) in (2), thereby taking the clause to greater lexical density<sup>38</sup>.

The BG writing sub-tasks also presented opportunities for students to understand the principles behind good writing. Here, the knowledge structures of classification and evaluation<sup>39</sup>

<sup>38</sup> According to Schleppegrell (2006), lexical density, abstraction, and organizational expectations are features of academic language that students find difficult to master and thus, about which students need formal instruction

<sup>39</sup> According to Mohan (1986), the knowledge structure of classification is about grouping items based on their similarities or differences while the knowledge structure of evaluation is about evaluating, judging, or appreciating.



helped students draw connections between the categories within “good” genres and their own written work. Classification language that grouped items was used to confer specific organizational expectations of the given genre. Organizational expectations, such as what to include in a thesis statement and how to arrange the information into subsequent paragraphs, was the topic of the following interaction. For this task, the teacher first had established several categories that connoted a good thesis statement, including (a) clarity, (b) focus, and (c) connection of ideas. She then used these categories to evaluate students’ thesis statements, as in the following example.

Teacher: [Reading] “La educación para las indígenas es muy limitada por muchos factores, particularmente la discriminación y el racismo hacia ellos y su situación económica” En pares, dime pros y contras de esta tesis [2 min] (1) **¿Hay información enfocada y específica en esta tesis?** a ver, que es lo que sabemos, de qué se va a tratar este ensayo?

Student A: educación de niños

Teacher: la educación de niños, ¿en dónde? ¿cuándo? ¿cómo?

Student B: no se sabe

Teacher: ¿sí? necesitamos todo eso, (2) no está mal pero dime más, ¿sí? qué, cómo, dónde, cuándo ¿sí? ¿por qué? por muchos factores, particularmente la discriminación y el racismo hacia ellos y su situación económica, bueno así (3) **vas a tener un párrafo al menos de discriminación, de racismo otro y de su situación económica**

[Teacher: ‘Education for indigenous people is very limited because of many factors, particularly discrimination and racism toward them and their economic situation.’ In pairs, tell me the pros and cons of this thesis [2 min] (1) **Is there focused and specific information in this thesis?** Let’s see, what is it that we know, what’s this essay going to be about?

Student A: children education

Teacher: the education of children, where? When? How?

Student B: we don’t know

Teacher: right? We need all that, (2) it’s not bad but give me more, okay? What, how, where, when, okay? Why? Because of many factors, particularly the discrimination and racism toward them and their economic situation, well then (3) **you’re going to have at least one paragraph about discrimination, another about racism, and another about their economic situation]**

From the above example, we can see that the teacher first used the language of classification<sup>40</sup> to ask the question (*Is there focused information in this thesis?*). This is apparent by the use of existential “being” process (*is there*). Later in (2), she draws on the language of evaluation (*it’s not bad*) and in (3) she uses relational “having” processes (*you’re going to have*) to help the student mentally organize his essay into paragraphs according to sub-topics.

This example shows how the teacher used BG input/IRF writing tasks paired with PW tasks, which gave students time to reflect and provided opportunities for text deconstruction, allowing them to draw connections between a “good” thesis statement sub-genre and students’ actual text instantiations<sup>41</sup>. Directly applying one of the characteristics of a good thesis statement as including focused and specific information, the teacher was able to help students by examining their specific examples. In this example, the teacher had already established several categories of a good thesis statement. Using one of these categories (focus), she drew on key knowledge structures to offer additional feedback about organizational expectations for the rest of the essay.

**4.5.6 Doing writing.** In a final example, we will look at how 1on1 writing sub-tasks offered students semi-private ways to begin to independently construct particular written genres and sub-genres. As the teacher walked around the room giving students private feedback, she could individually scaffold them toward independent text construction<sup>42</sup>. This feedback helped clear up

---

<sup>40</sup> Classification is indicated with bold font and evaluation with underlined text as consistent with other research (e.g., Mohan & Slater, 2006; Slater & Mohan, 2010).

<sup>41</sup> According to many researchers, construction and joint construction of genres or sub-genres are two of the necessary steps in helping students to write effectively (Christie & Martin, 2007; Martin, 2009; Veel, 2006).

<sup>42</sup> Independent text construction is the third and final stage in the genre approach to teaching as adopted by the Sydney School and as outlined by Veel (2006).

their own doubts related to the ways that language was used to make meaning in their specific essays. In her final interview, the teacher explained what types of feedback she would offer students during these “mini-conferences.” Below, she relates in detail this process. Appendix C presents data and discourse associated with the 1on1 task.

Researcher: y ¿qué tipo de comentarios o retroalimentación les daba en la sala cuando tú caminabas por ahí?

Teacher: mira, era simple, pasaba y veía con ojo de águila el primer párrafo de todos...**la idea**<sup>43</sup>, tenía yo que entender **su idea**, entonces yo veía que no entendía **la idea** y les decía ‘¿qué quieres **decir** con esto? esto no se entiende,’ ‘quiero **decir** esto o lo otro’ y entonces yo a veces les decía ‘estás *pensando* en inglés, debes *pensar* en español’ cuando era muy difícil lo que trataban de expresar, yo se lo decía en español y ellos lo *parafraseaban* como lo entendían... cada persona era diferente... cada persona tenía un reto diferente... cuando les corregía a veces les decía ‘¿pero qué quieres **decir**?’ no les decía ‘está mal,’ les decía ‘no se entiende’ (Teacher, Interview 12)

[Researcher: So, what type of comments or feedback did you give them when you walked around the room?

Teacher: Look, it was simple, I would pass by and see with an eagle’s eye everyone’s first paragraph...(1) **the idea**, I had to understand **the idea**, so I would realize that I didn’t understand **the idea** and (2) I would tell them ‘what do you want to **say** with that? That doesn’t make sense,’ [and they would tell me] ‘I want to **say** this or that,’ and (3) so I would sometimes say ‘you’re *thinking* in English, you should *think* in Spanish’ (4) when what they were trying to express was very difficult, I would tell them how to say it in Spanish and (5) they would *paraphrase* it as they understood it....(6) for each person it was different, each person had a different challenge...(7) when I would correct them, sometimes I would say to them ‘but what do you want **to say**,’ I didn’t tell them ‘that’s wrong’ I would tell them ‘that doesn’t make sense’]

From this example, we can see that at least from the teacher’s perspective, the types of feedback she would provide to students in the language laboratory during 1on1 writing sub-tasks related directly to how students were making meaning with language. In (1), the teacher repeated the same participant (**the idea**) to show that her focus was on how to help students effectively

---

<sup>43</sup> Here, coding groups similar lexical items, for example all mentioning of the participant **idea** appears in **bold text**, all of the verbal process **say** appears in **bold underlined text**, etc.

transmit the meanings that they intended to express. She then said that she would question students about what they wanted to convey, using a verbal process (*to say*) in (2). Sometimes, when she would see that students were using their L1 as the tool to mediate their thoughts, she would remind them that they needed to use Spanish as the tool, as indicated by her use of the mental process (*think*). In (5), we see an indication that much of her feedback about how to mean effectively may have taken the form of functional recasts, as indicated by her use of verbal process (*paraphrase*) to describe how students would likely incorporate her feedback into their essays. From (6), we see that these instances of one-on-one feedback were highly personalized so that students received input directly related to their own challenges. Finally, in (7) it became clear yet again that the focus of the 1on1 sub-task feedback was on meaning, on what students wanted *to say* rather than on what they did wrong. Rather than extensive error correction, as had been done in the Spanish 301 courses in years past, the teacher now focused on the meanings in students' essays.

In the following example taken from the 1on1 sub-task, the teacher privately talked through an issue with one student's final paper. We can see that the task discourse indeed supports what the teacher said during her last interview, as her focus here was on meaning while she explained to the student how to present the information effectively. As this type of feedback is exactly what the student needed to be able to convey his message effectively, he was highly invested in what the teacher had to say. From the following example, we can see that not only did the 1on1 sub-task interactions give the teacher an opportunity to functionally recast information for the student, but also for the student to functionally recast the teacher's message in order to check his understanding.

Teacher: (1) tú **puedes tomar** los resultados de ese estudio, las explicaciones de por qué hay más incidencia de sicopatía entre los hispanos y **puedes integrar** tu

contribución va a ser ver los resultados de ese estudio con este ejemplo específico ¿sí? **Dime** si es verdad o no

Student: [recasting what teacher said, what she understood of the teacher's suggestion]  
(3) **entonces va a decir si lo** [que] **pienso es la verdad**

Teacher: (4) **sí** basado en este ejemplo, o **puedes dar** varios ejemplos porque tú tienes varios ejemplos, **tal vez** tú ves que este hombre tiene algunos de las características de las cuales se explican en ese estudio, **a lo mejor** Francisco tiene ciertas características y luego alguien de otro tiene otras características

[Teacher: (1) you **can take** the results of this study, the explanations why there is more incidence of psychosis among Hispanics and you **can integrate** your contribution, it's going to be seeing the results of this study with a specific example, right? (2) **Tell me** if it's true or not

Student: (3) **so it's going to say if I think it's the truth?**

Teacher: (4) **yes**, based on this example or (5) you **can give** various examples because you have various examples, **maybe** what you see is this man has some of the characteristics that are explained in that study, **maybe** Francisco has some of the characteristics and later someone from another [source] has other characteristics]

From this interaction, we can see that the student was listening carefully to the teacher's suggestion about how to incorporate the results of a study into his paper. In (1), the teacher used modalized processes (*can take, can integrate*) to open options up to different possibilities of how the student might accomplish this integration. Then, in (2) she closes down these possibilities using the imperative mood (**tell me**), reacting to a look of confusion on the student's face. By closing down options, the imperative mood<sup>44</sup> indicated to the student exactly what he must do to accomplish her advice. In (3), the student functionally recasted what he thought the teacher's suggestion was to check his understanding. Then in (4), the teacher evaluated his recast in the affirmative (*yes*) and in (5), again used modalized processes and adjuncts (*can give, maybe*) to reopen the possibilities of how to accomplish her original suggestion.

---

<sup>44</sup> The MOOD network includes options such as the declarative, interrogative, and imperative moods (Derewianka, 2001). Imperatives are monoglossic in that they do not provide alternatives for alternative actions (Martin & White, 2005).

Based on the previous interaction, the teacher scaffolding that took place during 1on1 writing sub-tasks helped students independently construct written genres. The sub-task provided the student, who was highly invested in effectively communicating his ideas in writing, with opportunities to recast the teacher's information in order to confirm his understanding of her feedback. In a writing course where students must produce their own personalized product, this type of one-to-one scaffolding that focused on building meaning is extremely valuable. By discussing how language conveyed meaning, students were able develop their Spanish writing ability during 1on1 sub-tasks, thus reaping maximum benefit from the teacher's personalized writing help. This personalized help aimed to move students from the language lessons of the earlier Spanish courses into more advanced language-and-content work that they would need in their upper-level courses.

#### **4.6 Summary of Results**

This chapter has presented the findings associated with the technology, tasks, and learning in two sections of blended Spanish 301 as well as the perceptions of the teacher and students regarding technology and tasks. The first section provided a thick description of the Spanish 301 classroom, which narrated a typical culture, grammar, and writing lesson. The second section looked at technology, specifically three main types of technology that were used including cultural videos, online workbooks with Netsupport, and Google Docs. Here, students' ideas about using technology for language learning in the third-year Spanish course. Both positive and negative aspects were examined. The third section expanded and built upon the previous one by honing in on the importance of technology-mediated feedback in third-year bridge courses. In the fourth section, the topics and tasks that formed the basis for the revised Spanish 301 curriculum were shown, in particular the tasks—and students' attitudes about

tasks—carried out on culture, grammar, and writing days. Specific attention was paid to BG and PW sub-tasks during all three lessons as well as WA sub-tasks during grammar days and 1 on 1 sub-tasks during writing workshops. Finally, the fifth section built on the previous one, providing a discourse analysis to show how language learning occurred during six main sub-tasks. Several important features of discourse were shown including functional recasts, modality, and key knowledge structures. While this chapter has presented the data in a way that tells a story of how the blended Spanish 301 course played out, the next chapter will show how the data collected over the course of a semester has enabled answers to be drawn in response to the original overarching questions of this study. Several conclusions and implications for future inquiry will be presented.

## **CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

### **5.0 Chapter Overview**

The following chapter extrapolates from the findings presented in the last chapter in order to answer the overarching questions of the study as well as to draw several conclusions and implications for future research. In Section 5.1, the first research question concerning the role of technology in the blended Spanish grammar and composition courses—and the teacher and students' attitudes about technology—is discussed. Section 5.2 addresses the second research question by looking at the tasks that were carried out in these courses and how they were used as learning tools. Specifically addressing the role of language in enacting these tasks, Section 5.3 responds to the third research question about how academic Spanish was developed during f2f and technology-mediated tasks. Section 5.4 makes several conclusions about the claims presented here and includes an examination of the limitations of the study and implications for research and for practice. Finally, several directions for future inquiry are provided.

### **5.1 The Role of Technology—and Participants' Attitudes About Technology—in Teaching and Learning in Spanish 301 Courses**

What role did technology play in the Spanish 301 bridge courses? This section answers this question by elaborating on four main themes (technology as a way to alleviate the workload, technology as a motivator, technology as a feedback method, and concerns about technology) as well as nine sub-themes surrounding the role of technology as it was implemented in the Spanish 301 classrooms. The section also examines the teacher and students' reactions to the technology this course used. These themes and sub-themes, which can be observed in Table 5.1, were constructed using raw data originating from three rounds of one-on-one and group interviews with students and 20 individual meetings with the teacher, as described in Chapter 3.



Table 5.1

*Main Themes Surrounding Technology Use in Spanish 301*

Themes	To Alleviate	As a Motivator	Feedback	Concerns
Sub-Themes	(1) To lighten the teacher's load	(3) Netsupport as a motivator	(5) Oral feedback	(7) Missing important lessons
	(2) To lighten the students' load	(4) Technology keeps students engaged	(6) Written feedback	(8) Speeding up the learning process
				(9) Screen time during videos

**5.1.1 Technology as a way to lighten the load.** “My goal is to make it more doable for them to work on their draft by using technology. Technology should be the medium which would help me to give them feedback” (Teacher, Interview 2). This quote summarizes the role that technology took in the third-year Spanish courses as a way to alleviate participants’ workloads. The way that technology was implemented in Spanish 301 curbed many of the teacher’s as well as the students’ responsibilities.

***The teacher’s load.*** Technology was a way for the teacher to maximize her energies. In order to address one of her main frustrations with the course, namely the tendency for students to fail to take her written suggestions on their rough drafts into account, the teacher hoped that technology would assist in her scaffolding of students’ writing practices. The sheer amount of grading involved with teaching third-year composition courses was one of the main reasons the teacher was among the few faculty members in her department to frequently teach Spanish 301. She described these courses as very gratifying but exhausting at the same time. The amount of energy that went into the preparation and correction of students’ written work was one of the main reasons she sought alternative means to lighten her load. By using NetSupport to facilitate

oral feedback on students' grammar work and Google Docs for mediating this feedback, the teacher was able to personalize students' experiences while at the same time reducing the amount of written corrections that she had to take home.

As the teacher explained time and again, the third-year Spanish students came in with a variety of strengths and weaknesses and the previous years' one-size-fits-all grammar and composition course was not serving them. The way she designed the course to implement technology gave her the ability to specifically tailor it so as to personalize students' experiences. The way technology was used on grammar and writing days permitted her to cater to each student's unique strengths and challenges. This method was in line with Taylor's (2009) principles for incorporating instructional technology into new blended classrooms including (a) keeping students first (b) starting simple, and (c) indentifying and building from program principles. Using technology, the teacher was able to comply with these three important principles, putting pedagogy before technology (keeping students first), implementing basic but powerful technological tools (Netsupport and Google Docs), and using her experience, intuition, and goals for the course to guide her decisions about how technology was used.

***The students' loads.*** Students agreed that the writing practices that they engaged in during the workshops in the language laboratory allowed them to keep their thoughts more organized. Many lauded the accessibility of the online word processor, Google Docs, for permitting them to work on their essays from any computer and for easily permitting them to share their essays with their teacher and peers to get personalized feedback. These results support the findings of Kittle and Hicks (2009) among others who have argued the advantages of using online word processors as part of the blended writing environment (Broin & Raftery, 2011; Mansor, 2011; 2012; Montero-Fleta & Pérez-Sabater, 2011). Some students were especially

enthusiastic about the technology used in the course. Cerise, for example, reported using Google Docs for her other classes after she had been introduced to them in Spanish 301. Andy and Mike thought that Google Docs was very helpful for getting feedback in a timely manner. Some students, such as Craig, while tentative at first of projecting their work via NetSupport, were later eager to receive feedback in front of the class. Rather than needing to seek the teacher's help outside of, during office hours for example, students automatically received personalized feedback on problems or issues they were having.

**5.1.2 Technology as a motivating force.** “They’re all making a really big effort—it’s something very positive that I’ve noticed with this change” (Teacher, Interview 10). A second way that technology played a role in the Spanish 301 courses was as an incentive for students to do quality work and to keep them engaged. As a motivating force in the classroom, technology positively pressured many students to do their best. Since one of the main concerns brought up in the research on BL course development has revolved around students feeling a lack of interaction with the teacher and classmates (e.g., Webb Boyd, 2008), the fact that students were motivated by the new format was extremely important. Given that other research has shown that technology can be a disincentive for students to engage with the course, this finding suggests that at least two ways that technology was harnessed by the teacher of Spanish 301 served to strengthen the lines of communication and feelings of enthusiasm among students.

***Netsupport as a motivator.*** One of the ways that students were motivated by technology was by the teacher's use of NetSupport. As many students said, Netsupport's facilitation of document sharing pushed them to do their best. The teacher also noted a marked increase in the quality of students' work over previous years. While the majority of research so far on blended learning in the writing classroom has focused on asynchronous blended tools, such as the wiki,

blog, or electronic discussion board (Lee, 2010; Myazoe & Anderson, 2010), little has been said about how document sharing tools, such as Netsupport, have been implemented as instructional writing tools to help support students in their move from the lower-division to the upper-division FL courses. As the first time that Netsupport with online workbook tasks had been incorporated into Spanish 301, the situation was unique in that the number of f2f classes remained constant but the role of technology in the course provided ways of maintaining frequent interactions between the teacher and her students. This format seemed to keep students motivated to improve their work. As a powerful yet simple way for teachers to help their students improve their grammar and writing, Netsupport technology can be the focus of future research that seeks to understand the role of public sharing of student work in the blended or technology-enhanced FL course.

***Technology keeps students engaged.*** As mentioned, one important issue in the research literature on BL learning surrounds how to maximize student engagement in BL courses (Myazoe & Anderson, 2010; Webb-Boyd, 2008; Wolsey, 2008). With the idea of the “flipped” classroom (e.g., Brunsell & Horjesi, 2011), which maximizes in-class time to revisit concepts and address student concerns, two types of technology implemented in the Spanish 301 courses (Netsupport and Google Docs) kept students actively engaged in their learning without distracting them from the objectives of the course. This echoes what many CALL researchers have stressed about the importance of putting pedagogy before technology. Technology should not be used as a novelty but rather to help teachers fulfill important objectives. The objectives should come first (Lord, 2014).

As a tool for strengthening students’ conceptual knowledge, Netsupport in conjunction with online grammar tasks also aided in strengthening students’ knowledge and the application

of grammar concepts. Google Docs for process writing (e.g., Pearson & Gallagher, 1983) was another way that students were constantly engaged in the blended Spanish bridge courses. By supporting students and facilitating the teacher's feedback on students' particular weaknesses and challenges, the course format permitted many students to engage themselves, taking maximum advantage of their in-class writing time and exploiting expert feedback. Consequently, feedback is the topic of the next section.

**5.1.3 The role of technology-enhanced feedback.** “Let’s make sure that we make this an experience that they will get the most feedback out of. Maybe technology and this type of approach will help us” (Teacher, Interview 5). As forecasted by the teacher before the semester began, feedback became a primary theme in helping to effectively bridge students’ writing practices in the Spanish 301 courses. The role of feedback in the blended writing classroom has been a major issue both in research on L1 writing development and in the L2. Some of the aspects investigated in this area have been the importance of oral in addition to written feedback (Krych-Appelbaum & Musial, 2007; Wolsey, 2008), the anonymity provided by written mediums (Guardado & Shi, 2007), and the importance of peer-collaboration (Roux-Rodríguez, 2003).

***Oral feedback.*** While some literature has shown that anonymity of feedback has been a positive result of using technology in blended writing courses (e.g., Guardado & Shi, 2007), the fact that much of the peer feedback in the 301 courses was carried out orally within the classroom and therefore precluded anonymity could have been seen as a disadvantage of the setup, as it may have prevented some students from offering their ideas. However, the role of Netsupport in the bridge courses, in addition to positively pressuring students to do their best, worked to keep the lines of communication and interaction intact among class members. Having

the teacher there to mediate student feedback also may have offset the potential setback of decreased anonymity. By being present, the teacher was able to play a facilitative role to prevent confusion or lack of trust in peer commentary, a negative result in earlier studies (Wosely, 2008).

***Written feedback.*** Confusion among peers concerning the meaning of written peer feedback has been an issue broached by many blended writing researchers, who have questioned the role of technology-mediated versus f2f oral feedback in helping students revise their writing (Krych-Appelbaum & Musial, 2007; Roux-Rodríguez, 2003). Many times, however, this problem was avoided in the Spanish 301 courses by offering students opportunities to receive feedback in the form of written comments on the side of students' electronic documents, followed up by chances to orally discuss these comments f2f with their teacher and peers. On-site written feedback played a role in the Spanish 301 classroom and the students as well as the teacher were satisfied overall with the high level of interaction and feedback that the course format provided via Google Docs. Focusing on how the unique specifications of technologies such as Google Docs (e.g., the sharing feature) can help students receive access to increased teacher and peer feedback will help to extend and further interpret these results.

**5.1.4 Concerns about technology.** “So are you really learning that or are you having it done? Who’s to say you knew that or the computer knew that for you?” (Cerise, Interview 1). The role of technology in making students miss out on important lessons, speed up their learning processes, and making them mentally remiss were three of the main concerns that came up during in-depth interviews.

***Missing important lessons.*** Cerise’s quote above echoes the qualms brought up by several students about the negative role of technology in Spanish 301. It specifically brings up their fears that the computer was in a sense allowing them to “cheat” by providing them with

automated spell-and-grammar check features and other means of mindlessly correcting their work. These findings relate to and build upon other work in the area of BL learning that focus on student perceptions (Mehlenbacher, et al., 1999; Webb Boyd, 2008). Although the studies that have been carried out so far on student perceptions of blended and online learning have largely been comparisons of student opinions using questionnaires or end-of-semester interviews, the present study had the advantage of being able to track students' concerns throughout the semester in order to note changes over time. For example, students such as Caleb, who at first expressed apprehension about using technology such as Netsupport for public viewing of work, later on in the semester changed their opinions. This was also the case for Cerise and Craig; both of who had never before used Google Docs and who worried that it might hinder their learning but who later positively evaluated technology's role in the course.

***Speeding up the learning process.*** Not all students changed their opinions of technology, however. Some expressed concerns in the first interview that seemed only to grow over time. Kerry brought up the issue of the excessive speed of technology for preventing her from sufficiently digesting and pondering important feedback. When receiving feedback in the form of a comment on the side of her essay, she related the problematic nature of being able to quickly click on her essay and make the change without taking the time to reflect upon how or why the change had been suggested. This finding both builds on and contradicts the findings of Wosely (2008), who discovered that students in a blended writing course preferred written feedback embedded in their essays in the form of comments rather than at the end of the document. While Wosely's study depended primarily on reported rather than observed behaviors and practices, another advantage of grounded ethnography as it was implemented in the present work is that it enabled a combination of "knowing" and "doing," the two important pieces of the social

practice, to more thoroughly explore student' preferences. By providing both detailed written and f2f oral feedback, students like Kerry and Mike were able to express the benefits and drawbacks of the traditional way of revising papers, such as being able to closely review and reflect on peer and teacher comments (benefit) while unfortunately having to wait extended periods of time for feedback on their work (drawback).

***Screen time during videos.*** A final issue that was brought up by students was the tendency of certain technology-mediated tasks to prevent deep concentration and mindfulness. Many of the students, especially the NNS, brought up this issue, specifically as it pertained to the viewing of cultural videos in class. Although others have explored the use of video-based tasks in conjunction with language learning, Chacón (2012) for example, showed how such tasks could be useful when watched outside the language classroom. As the study was carried out in Venezuela, the author did not raise the HS/NNS dichotomy as an issue. However, research carried out in a US context must highlight the apparent disjunction between the reactions of HS and NNS regarding the use of short culture clips in the classroom. This was a major challenge confronted in the Spanish 301 courses, which had students of disparate language abilities. In order to be effectively and equitably carried out, the results of this study show that teachers of blended Spanish bridge courses may need to seek alternative ways of scaffolding both NNS and HS learners based on their unique strengths and challenges. Of course, given the limited number of HS learners who agreed to participate in this study, further work needs to be done to explore these differences.

## **5.2 Tasks—and Participants' Perceptions of Tasks—in Spanish 301 Courses**

According to many scholars, a major challenge of curricular renovation in US FL departments is a breach between focusing on linguistic structure at the lower levels and focusing



on content at the upper levels (e.g., Byrnes, 2002). Students are expected to learn all that they need to know about language forms in the first four semesters and then immediately be able to apply those forms to learn content—typically literature—in the advanced courses. While much research has addressed this issue in a myriad of ways, there is surprisingly little that has focused on the third-year Spanish bridge course and the tasks—and participants’ perceptions of these tasks—that make up these types of courses. The question was posed as to which tasks were most helpful for helping students make the transition from the lower-level language courses to the upper-division content courses. In other words, which were the most valued types of tasks in the third-year FL bridge courses? This section answers this question by revisiting in depth the four major types of sub-tasks: big group work, pair work, work-along, and one-on-one sub-tasks carried out in the culture, grammar, and writing lessons in the Spanish 301 courses. Table 5.2 lays out the themes that were constructed surrounding sub-task types as they occurred in the different types of lessons in Spanish 301, highlighting the perceptions that participants had regarding these sub-tasks.

Table 5.2

*Main Themes Surrounding Sub-Task Types as They Occurred in Different Lessons of the Third-Year Spanish Courses*

<b>Lesson</b>	<b>Big Group Work</b>	<b>Pair Work</b>	<b>Work-Along</b>	<b>One-on-One</b>
Culture	Building knowledge through oral language	Getting the guts to speak		
Grammar	Enhancing knowledge about language	Peer scaffolding to solidify knowledge	Knowing and using language	
Writing	Making meaning through written language	Unifying language knowledge and use		Moving toward independent text construction

**5.2.1 Big group work.** The BG sub-tasks were the most frequently used type carried out in conjunction with other sub-tasks in the 301 courses. The classification of tasks according to their interactional patterns showed that these sub-tasks were present in all types of lessons, from culture Mondays to writing workshops. Big group sub-tasks were a chance for the teacher to engage students in knowledge building. On culture days, this knowledge was largely related to cultural topics, such as globalization and women in the workplace.

*Culture lessons: Building knowledge through oral language.* “There’s not much that just writing will do, I really think you need to be speaking it well and then after you get the speaking you can write” (Andy, Interview 1). As Andy’s quote succinctly suggests, speaking and writing in a foreign language go hand in hand. Given the extensive writing practice carried out on grammar and writing days, it was fortunate that a large amount of classroom time on culture days was dedicated to talking in the large group. Here, little technology was used except for the use of PPT-lectures and video clips. Students described the lack of technology as both a blessing and a curse. While some voiced the value of being able to speak for aiding in their writing development, others talked about the challenge of depending solely on one type of sub-task or task grouping (e.g., BG-PW-BG) for an entire class period. Kerry, in particular, said that her greatest challenge when it came to culture days was spending the entire period on one topic alone. Several students relayed that this lack of task/topic diversity was compounded by the fact that on the days when native-speaker video input was used, many students were unable to grasp the gist of the videos. This confusion, in turn, prevented many NNS from contributing to subsequent pair- or group-discussion.

Intuitively, good teachers know that students must have opportunities to put into practice what they have learned. In order to bridge the types of tasks that students have grown

accustomed to in the lower levels of language study with the types of content learning that goes on in the upper levels, tasks that get students practicing the structures they have learned about conceptually at the lower-levels hold enormous value. In this way, the model of ‘task as a social practice’ with an action and reflection component has strong implications for research in computer-mediated communication and task-based language teaching.

Much educational research has attested to this, going back as early as Dewey (1916), who stressed the importance of finding balance between theoretical knowledge and everyday practice. Although BG culture sub-tasks in the 301 courses were frequently open-ended, offering students’ numerous options for contributing to group discussion, they were often challenging when students had not understood or been able to apply their knowledge of BG input. In this way, BG sub-tasks that are accompanied not only by students talking about a topic, but also doing some sort of hands-on problem-posing task associated with this topic, might have helped students to apply the knowledge that they were learning. Constructing pedagogical tasks to mirror real-life target language use tasks could extend this further (Nunan, 2001).

While the principles of task-based approaches to language learning stress the practical, “doing” side of learning, it should be noted that these types of tasks or sub-tasks would likely benefit from accompanying opportunities to discuss the underlying or overarching principles behind the language of the task. The BG culture sub-tasks as they were used in the 301 courses may have swung to the opposite extreme, where learning occurred mostly at the content level without discussing how language construes content. Nevertheless, BG-sub tasks were also likely to be reflective of what students will be asked to do as they move up into 400-level literature courses, with language being used as the medium to convey a message rather than an object of inquiry in itself. In this way, it would be beneficial for third-year bridge course teachers to

discuss with students the importance of being able to engage in theoretical types of class discussions while still actively offering students (especially NNS) additional resources to scaffold this process. Advanced literature teachers must also be aware of this effort and be able to talk to students about the underlying linguistic principles that authors have used to construct various literary genres.

A separate issue surrounded the fact that Spanish 301 at this particular university included both NNS and HS students. As mentioned, the use of video clips on culture days impacted these two groups of students differently. Watching videos during BG culture sub-tasks was a relatively common practice. Whereas the majority of NNS had difficulty understanding and engaging in tasks that required them to watch cultural videos, several HS voiced really enjoying the videos and being able to relate them to their personal lives. Despite the fact that cultural videos provided windows into the lives and dialects of Spanish speakers, the contrasting perceptions of NNS and HS students is reason to think carefully about how film can best be incorporated into culture lessons. Non-native learners, for example, may need additional scaffolding from the teacher in order to fully take advantage of such tasks. With NNS often having more meta-linguistic knowledge about language forms and HS having implicit knowledge of how language is used, perhaps pairing NNS and HS together in order to support one another's strengths and weaknesses is a viable option. This would be a logistical change that a teacher could implement simply by changing his or her classroom procedures.

***Grammar lessons: Enhancing knowledge about language.*** “It’s difficult to get grammar [instruction] outside of class. I can read and write outside of class but grammar is what I need most, it’s what I’m paying for” (Jack, Interview 1). On grammar days, students built their knowledge of the language system in and of itself. Using preordained language features, BG

grammar sub-tasks involved the use of PPT-guided lectures and an occasional video clip. Many studies in language learning have pointed to the importance of teachers taking time in class to talk about the functions and uses of language. This is common at lower-levels of FL study, where students are exposed to the principles behind language forms.

Slater (2004), for example, found that whereas primary education is often rooted in action, teaching and learning in higher education is often rooted in reflection discourse, or theory. This dichotomy could be likened to what happens in the lower- and upper-level foreign language courses; while the former focuses on language itself, the latter tends to ignore forms, focusing rather on content (although not surprisingly, assessment in language education often involves resorting back to errors of form, as Low (2010) observes). According to research (e.g., Mohan & Lee, 2006), there needs to be a connection between form and content in order for teaching and learning to be complete. Grammar days were a perfect example of this, as they frequently included tasks that allowed for the discussion of language principles as well as their applications.

BG grammar sub-tasks exposed students to grammar principles, enhancing their metalinguistic knowledge. Students were eager to understand grammar concepts, as Cerise and others mentioned when talking about how the big group explanation of grammar was beneficial in combination with the ability to immediately engage in practical exercises using the online grammar workbook with Netsupport. Other students reiterated this, emphasizing the importance of getting explicit grammar instruction in class rounded out by online practice. The teacher, having carefully set up grammar days to include a mixture of both talking about and “doing” grammar, shared students’ opinions. This was beneficial to all learners, both NNS who were

likely accustomed to talking about forms in their lower division classes as well as HS, who may not have had much metalinguistic knowledge at all.

Several words of caution about the grammar lessons are in order. The first surrounds the possibility that some NNS, Mike for example, were so well prepared by this type of grammar task from his high school Spanish learning experiences that he found the review of forms to be tedious. The second caveat is the potential for some grammar tasks to use examples of language that are either decontextualized and/or contrived, in which case the input becomes impoverished and possibly detrimental for learning (Derewianka, 2001). In order to address these two issues, certain types of tasks could be included in the third-year bridge course, such as those that draw on students' own writing as models (e.g., BG-PW writing task grouping involving student-composed thesis statements) or those that deconstruct expert writers' texts as good prototypes. In both instances, learners can benefit from additional practice with model texts.

In Mike's case, where learning the grammar rules was simple review, learners can be presented with real model texts that show them more advanced examples of how language is used. Using model texts as the basis from which learners can imitate oral and written genres is the major tenet of the research on writing conducted by the Sydney School (e.g., Christie, 2012; Martin, 2009) and continues to grow in popularity among US scholars (e.g., Byrnes, 2009; Colombi, 2009; Schleppegrell, 2006).

***Writing workshops: Making meaning through written language.*** “For the writing days, we should look at examples, we need models. Sometimes the writing workshops will be reading and analyzing the style and imitating the style” (Teacher, Interview 5). The BG writing sub-tasks frequently pertained to what makes good writing. Model texts were used and concepts were connected by deconstructing student texts. This was in line with the recommendations of authors

who have adopted a genre/register based pedagogical approach to academic writing (Colombi, 2009; Martin, 2009; Schleppegrell, 2006, Veel, 2006).

Although the teacher did not explicitly design blended Spanish 301 with genre-based pedagogy in mind, her quote above shows that she indeed valued the use of textual models for writing instruction. As mentioned previously, this principle has been advocated by SFL and bilingual researchers alike, who herald the importance of looking at textual genres and using the language features therein to deconstruct good writing (Christie & Martin, 2007; Feez & Joyce, 1998; Freeman & Freeman, 2006; Veel, 2006). The BG sub-tasks during the writing workshops, such as the one in which students shared their thesis statements, provided ample opportunities to engage in text deconstruction and joint-construction. For students whose thesis statements were the objects of class scrutiny, these tasks became opportunities to construct sub-genres with input from their peers and teacher. Similarly, for the students who analyzed their classmates' writing as projected onto the screen at the front of the classroom using Netsupport technology, these tasks became opportunities to deconstruct as a group, offering feedback and suggestions about the positive aspects of students' writing.

Without real text models to emulate, tasks may be only hypothetical ideas about how language is used. Decontextualized linguistic examples, invented to represent how language may be used, fail to help students know how language is actually used or when to put certain features to practice. The BG writing sub-tasks avoided textual decontextualization by using a mixture of BG discussion and teacher-led student discourse analysis. This method supports the research emphasizing the importance of top-down processing models for focusing on meaning within text (Freeman & Freeman, 2006). For third-year FL teachers seeking effective tasks for helping students to make a smooth transition from lower-division to upper-level courses, BG sub-tasks

during the writing workshops helped accomplish this feat. This point cannot be underestimated; especially in light of the ways that technology was used to help accomplish this goal. As the teacher's comment at the beginning of this section suggests, writing tasks that give students models and incorporate technology in a way that paves the way toward upper-level coursework are invaluable for the third-year bridge course.

**5.2.2 Pair work.** At the heart of communicative pedagogy, including TBLT, lies the importance of pair work. Much research in these areas has focused on how to develop communicative tasks that get students to use language to negotiate form and meaning (Abrams, 2006; Liu, 2003; Lomicka, Lord, & Manzer, 2003; Nunan, 2001; Pica, et al., 1993). Often such tasks put students together in pairs or small groups to engage in a problem-solving procedure in which they must use the language to achieve a non-linguistic outcome. In the third-year Spanish courses, PW sub-tasks took a variety of forms: f2f paired with BG sub-tasks in the culture lessons and technology-mediated tasks in the grammar and writing lessons. Each type of PW sub-task seemed to have a unique way of getting students to work together.

***Culture lessons: Getting the guts to speak.*** “For me it’s beneficial putting your ideas and speaking them out loud, especially starting out talking with a partner. I feel like it’s more time to think about it” (Cerise, Interview 2). While not all PW sub-tasks could be classified as having a non-linguistic outcome, they fulfilled a variety of purposes in the blended Spanish 301 courses. On culture days, for example, the focus was content. Generally, students orally discussed cultural topics related to readings and film without any particular emphasis on how language was used in those texts. The PW sub-tasks on culture days were aligned with communicative task-based and content-based principles of language teaching (e.g., Beckett & Miller, 2006; Nunan, 2004). As many students mentioned, talking in pairs helped them reformulate and generate new ideas and



opinions on cultural topics. Many times, these ideas shaped and carried over to their essays by giving them topics and issues to research on Hispanic culture in the US and abroad.

Three of the five principles put forth by Skehan (1998) pertaining to TBLT embody the PW sub-tasks carried out on culture days. These included: (a) a focus on meaning, (b) opportunities for learners to create their own meanings, and (c) a relationship between the pedagogical and the real-world activity. Here, the real-world activity asked students to focus on a particular issue, asked them to apply their own knowledge schemata in order to discuss that issue, and often pertained to shaping their own ideas and opinions related to Hispanic issues, which they would later use as the basis to write their compositions.

These blended Spanish 301 courses had the unique benefit that they included both f2f and technology-enhanced tasks. The PW sub-tasks on culture days were classified as the former of these two options because students rarely needed technology to mediate the task. As mentioned, some students emphasized the importance of not using technology during culture days as it often led to decreased interaction among peers. Kerry, for example, stated that there was just something about having a screen in front of her that inhibited good conversation. This supports Ellis's (2010) claim that more understanding is necessary before drawing conclusions about how technology-based and f2f tasks work in the BL classroom. Technology-mediated or technology-enhanced PW sub-tasks, such as those carried out on grammar and writing days, showed marked differences from the f2f PW sub-tasks on culture days, such as students' willingness or ability to communicate with their partners.

***Grammar lessons: Peer scaffolding to solidify knowledge about language.*** "If you make the same mistakes as your partner, it's not gonna get noticed, but if you switch it up [the partner], we'd probably have at least enough background between all of us that we can correct more

mistakes” (Andy, Interview 2). During grammar days, much of the emphasis was on the language system. While the focus was still on content, it was content in that it related to the grammatical principles of language. The PW grammar sub-tasks in blended Spanish 301 were dissimilar to those used in courses that are completely online in that they gave students opportunities for negotiating peer suggestions f2f. The PW sub-task in which students had to work to create a dialogue using the subjunctive mood, for example, was a chance for students with more developed knowledge about language to scaffold students with less development.

Although being able to trust one’s peers has been an issue that has come up in the literature on feedback in BL learning (e.g., Webb Boyd, 2008), the fact that students were able to engage f2f in order to give and receive peer feedback was an advantage of PW grammar tasks. The same outcome may be accomplished online, as Kittle and Hicks (2009) suggested, by conducting synchronous online discussions using video conferencing technology. In any case, the presence of the teacher moving around giving feedback freely to either reinforce or contradict peer feedback was a critical aspect of the bridge course, as students could learn to see how valuable and trustworthy the feedback given by their peers had been.

***Writing workshops: Unifying language knowledge and use.*** The PW sub-tasks during writing days, in which students were able to edit their fellow classmates work in Google Docs and then follow up with a PW discussion, mirrored one of the suggested activities made by Kittle and Hicks (2009) regarding effective use of technology for writing collaboration. These authors suggested online word processing tools for commenting on peer drafts and revising others’ work to clarify meaning. The negotiation of meaning during these PW sub-tasks was important during post-revision discussions, in which students were able to clarify their doubts about their partners’ suggestions.

While culture PW focused on content and grammar PW focused on language, writing PW tasks were opportunities for both types of knowledge to come together. Unfortunately, only twice during the semester did students have the chance to get into pairs to give each other feedback on their essays. Feedback came in the form of written comments and oral discussions of language and content. Essential to the 300-level bridge courses was this type of PW feedback in that it promoted active reflection about what students were learning during the BG lectures and in their readings at home. This claim is supported by Schulz (2000), who found that students receiving computer assisted feedback tended to make more detailed revisions to their papers, versus those that received oral feedback made more global changes. By being able to both comment in writing using Google Docs and discuss those comments in pairs, PW writing sub-tasks gave students the best of both worlds.

**5.2.3 Work-along sub-tasks.** “I can see it on my screen and I’ve already thought through what my response would be. It made a lot more sense after we really just went through everything like that” (Kerry, Interview 2). Talking about the WA sub-tasks during grammar lessons, Kerry’s quote above shows how these sub-tasks were often beneficial opportunities for text deconstruction. Heralded by several students, WA sub-tasks kept the pace of the lesson and provided ample opportunities to resolve tricky grammar concepts. According to the idea of a task as a social practice (e.g., Mohan & Lee, 2006) with both a theory and a practice aspect, WA sub-tasks fulfilled the same objectives as the BG-PW-BG grouping but were more streamlined. Work-along sub-tasks were opportunities for students to engage in action and reflection almost simultaneously. They occurred frequently on grammar days, in which the teacher would concurrently provide input to students about a particular language structure and prompt them to “do” the grammar structure by engaging in an assignment from the online workbook. Rather than

distinct stages of a series of sub-tasks, the WA sub-tasks proffered a knowing-doing relationship, which was seamlessly integrated throughout. The teacher worked on the online assignment, discussing its theory, while the students followed along volunteering their answers.

Work-along sub-tasks also seemed to promote what Matsuda et al. (2003) referred to as computer assisted classroom discussion, heralded for having the potential to effectively facilitate the exploration of ideas in preparation for formal writing. By enabling the teacher and students to discuss how language was used in specific scenarios as well as view examples of particular uses, many students preferred WA sub-tasks to BG-PW-BG groupings. The timing of WA sub-tasks was more suitable as it prevented excessive bouncing back and forth between big group and pair work, which sometimes sapped valuable class time and energy. The technology-mediated nature of the WA sub-tasks would also make them feasible for online flipped 300-level courses, which could be carried out using synchronous video-conferencing technology. Here, a teacher's discussion of grammar could coincide with students' practice using language in authentic examples.

**5.2.4 One-on-one sub-tasks.** "It's good for them to see the teacher there saying that's incorrect, I think it sticks with them more. I buzz around the room and I tell them. Now they are correcting their own" (Teacher, Interview 9). According to the teacher, the 1on1 sub-tasks were the most advantageous change implemented to the new Spanish 301 format, as they enabled students to get f2f oral and written feedback in real time. The ambience of the Friday workshops was often peacefully quiet, with only the sound of keyboards ticking away and the murmur of the teacher softly working with individual students. The 1on1 writing sub-tasks could be likened to those task types that occur in design or architecture studio classes, in which students work on their art while the expert teacher circles offering feedback and guidance. Studio classes are

uncommon in language learning classrooms, where the objective is often to engage and expose students to as much oral language input as possible. However, such tasks are worth further exploration especially in third-year writing courses, as they seemed to provide learners with valuable opportunities for asking specific questions about their topics of interest and for exploring how language was used to express ideas.

Following Dewey's (1916) definition of education as an initiation of the learner into the activities or social practices of society, one might view the 1on1 sub-tasks as analogous to the master writing teacher apprenticing the novice students into her craft. Many students described these moments as productive, quiet spaces that enabled them to think in Spanish and receive specialized, personalized feedback about their writing. One of the unique prospects of the 1on1 sub-tasks as integral parts of the 300-level curriculum was that they enabled a bridge to be formed between what students had learned about language, both during grammar days and in their previous courses, and what they will be expected to do with language in their upper-level content courses. These tasks fit nicely into the Spanish 301 curriculum, filling out the genre writing cycle with sub-tasks and groupings that work at the 300-level. This idea is pictured in Figure 5.1, adapted from Martin (2009, p. 56).

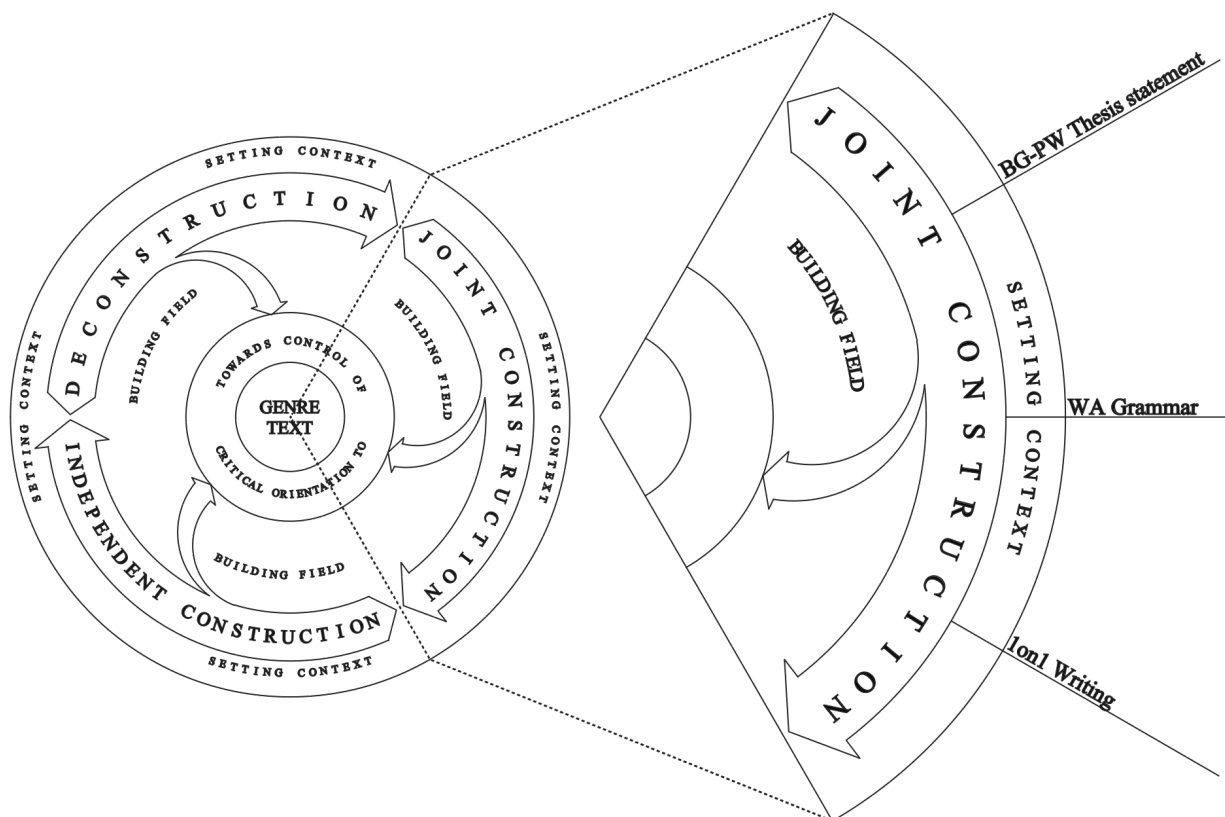


Figure 5.1. Continuum of sub-tasks/task groupings as related to the genre writing cycle.

One-on-one sub-tasks could be likened to the joint-construction stage (Stage 2) of the genre writing cycle, albeit toward to the more independent construction end of the spectrum. Figure 5.1 shows how three different sub-tasks carried out over the semester in blended Spanish 301 might fall on one such continuum. Big-group/pair work sub-tasks, such as one in which students work with peers and their teacher to explore the characteristics of a “good” thesis statement might fall toward the more “scaffolded” end of the genre continuum (i.e., in the Joint Construction phase, but toward the Deconstruction phase). This sub-task enables students to both deconstruct and jointly construct their statements with the input and ideas of the teacher and fellow classmates.

Next, WA grammar sub-tasks, such as those that engage students in a pre-writing task, enable students to discuss and apply principles of language that they might later apply to their essays. This sub-task could be placed toward the middle of the Joint Construction phase.

Of all the tasks, the 1on1 writing sub-task seemed to be the most beneficial for helping to progress toward the ways that language is learned and taught in the upper-division FL courses. Here, students could actively work toward the final stage of the cycle: Independent Construction. As the most student-centered and autonomous types of tasks, the 1on1 sub-tasks might be placed near the end of the Joint Construction phase, or even in the beginning phase of the Independent Construction, given that they offer students the flexibility of receiving differential amounts of teacher feedback depending on their personal needs.

According to Halliday (1980) and others, the genre writing cycle has immediate applications for curriculum development, as it encourages teachers to scaffold their students' development through language and about language. Although all of the tasks carried out in the blended Spanish 301 courses did not necessarily fit into a genre-based pedagogy, at least three types could be seen as contributing to the joint construction phase of the cycle with different levels of teacher support. Beneficial were sub-tasks that fell at different points of the three stages of the writing cycle and were used in a purposeful manner to help apprentice Spanish 301 students into the target language. One could argue that these sub-tasks helped prepare learners for more advanced courses, both in a FL as well as their other university classes that require them to use their writing skills to construct more sophisticated genres.

Overall, students insisted that the 1on1 sub-tasks in particular were extremely beneficial for helping them construct their essays. Kerry, for example, noted a marked difference in the way that she approached 1on1 sub-tasks at the beginning versus the end of the semester. Whereas in

the beginning she was in her head translating what she wanted to say from English to Spanish, later on in the semester she became accustomed to thinking in Spanish and directly transferring her thoughts onto the page. Kerry clearly attributed her increased ability to think in Spanish to her increased writing practice via the 1on1 writing sub-tasks, which she praised for helping her language development. From assertions such as these, it is clear that the 1on1 sub-tasks may have helped students develop not only their metalinguistic use of the language but also their direct thought processes as they used Spanish to mediate their thoughts. Of course, this can be corroborated by future research that examines the types of 1on1 feedback provided by the teacher during 1on1 tasks and the incorporation of this feedback into students' essay drafts over time.

### **5.3 How Language Is Developed in Spanish 301 Courses During Learning Tasks**

In the final section, I will draw on Halliday and Martin's (1993) notion of language development as passing through distinct phases, where control begins using more congruent, less metaphoric of language and proceeds to less congruent, more metaphoric ways. I will revisit how the tasks in blended Spanish 301 contributed to students' Spanish language development on various levels, viewing what this means in relation to the literature, which until now has largely focused on the linguistic development of English. The discussion will begin by examining the linguistic features present in BG/PW and 1on1 writing sub-tasks followed by the WA grammar sub-tasks in order to trace how language was produced and practiced during various task types. These tasks produced different types of language for different purposes and thus, will be separated into (a) the former type (BG, PW and 1on1 sub-tasks), which focused on using language to enhance knowledge of culture and writing content and (b) the latter type (WA sub-tasks), which used multiple semiotic systems to build students' knowledge about language. The



linguistic features as they were highlighted in different sub-tasks in the 301 bridge courses is shown in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3

*Linguistic Features Highlighted in Different Sub-Task Types in Spanish 301*

<b>BG-PW Sub-Tasks</b>	<b>1on1 Sub-Tasks</b>	<b>WA Sub-Tasks</b>
Functional recasts (teacher), modality, technical language, key knowledge structures	Functional recasts (student), modality, MOOD (imperative)	Multisemiosis (code switching)

**5.3.1 Big group, pair work, and 1on1 sub-tasks: Enhancing knowledge about content.** Big group and PW sub-tasks on culture, grammar, and writing days were special opportunities for the teacher to orally discuss issues with the students in Spanish and for students to learn content, using the Spanish language to mediate their thought processes. Colombi (2009) among others has heralded these types of tasks for attending to content while periodically emphasizing how the lexicogrammatical features of the text aid in the construal of that content.

***Big group/pair work sub-tasks.*** “Talking about it opened my mind...it’s definitely broadening my idea of my paper and what other pinpoints I could incorporate into it” (Cerise, Interview 1). While the culture, grammar, and writing lessons all focused on different content, the BG sub-tasks carried the bulk of the responsibility for transmitting information and developing students’ language. This could be seen in the various forms of language present during oral exchanges. As other studies have found (e.g., Luo, 2005; Mohan & Beckett, 2003), functional recasts are important ways that a teacher can highlight form-meaning relationships. Functional recasts were a source of linguistic innovation during BG-PW culture and writing sub-tasks, although they were not confined to these tasks alone.

As oral collaboration during culture days formed the majority of the classroom activity, functional recasting, the teacher's paraphrasing of students' contributions, became the primary vehicle for their language development. The recasts were sources of this development as exemplified in several ways. They contained instances of modality, technical language, nominalization, and key knowledge structures. I will now examine these one by one, showing how the findings from this study both connect to and build upon other research in this area.

*Modality.* Modality has been the topic of focus in many studies that use the APPRAISAL network (Martin & White, 2005). As a feature of the engagement sub-system, Martin and White describe modality as a resource of intersubjective positioning, a way for speakers to adopt a particular stance toward the value positions of a text. In the BG culture task, the teacher recasted a student's text using modality features, specifically modal processes and modal adjuncts, to help students more effectively align their stances in politically correct and appropriate ways. These findings build on Hood (2004), who used APPRAISAL to help students better understand the evaluative stance adopted in published research papers. This is the first study that the author knows of which looks at the oral language in third-year blended Spanish courses. By using modality and other interpersonal features to align one's self appropriately with one's opinions and attitudes of cultural practices and peoples, functional recasts incorporating modality features allowed the teacher to help students understand how to appropriately use language to position themselves as knowledgeable actors, conscious of social and humanistic issues.

*Technical language.* The second feature present via functional recasts in BG-PW tasks was the tendency to use technical language, including nominalization, and grammatical metaphor. Schleppegrell (2006), among others, cites the importance of technical and abstract language to the literacy practices in schooling contexts. Language users draw upon abstract and

technical language to condense information into compact clausal complexes, which students must learn to unpack and repack in order to derive and express meaning.

In the example taken from the BG-PW culture discussions, in which the teacher recast students' contributions using more specialized terminology (e.g., *acceso a consumir bienes artísticos*), we were able to see how the teacher helped one student move toward more technical meanings. Exposing learners to more sophisticated ways of meaning by offering them alternative technical terminology through functional recasts, the teacher was able to build up students' linguistic knowledge as it related to the topic of money, society, and culture. This finding adds to research on grammatical metaphor in various sub-fields, including that which addresses the features of causal discourse (e.g., Halliday & Martin, 1993), first language development (Painter, 1999, 2003) heritage language learning (Colombi, 2002), and FL acquisition (Ryshina-Pankova, 2010).

Similar to the BG-PW culture grouping, BG-PW writing groupings demonstrated a marked use of technicality and embedded clauses. An example taken was from a BG writing discussion in which the teacher elicited a definition of a thesis statement. Here, the teacher used functional recasts with technical language to paraphrase and build up students' responses (e.g., *es una idea que cuando se tome en cuenta puede unificar todo el contenido*), moving student from less formal to more academic language. Her use of embedded clauses worked to this end by increasing the lexical density of the utterance.

While Byrnes (2009) and Ryshina-Pankova (2010) have both shown the importance of technicality and grammatical metaphor (nominalization) in the German language classroom, the present study specifically builds on Gibbons (1999), who addressed such features to show how English and Spanish use both similar and different strategies. Confirming Gibbons, who

concluded that the mastery of grammatical metaphor is an important indicator of textual competency in Spanish as well as in English, the examples here have shown that technical language and nominalization were important components of BG culture tasks, suggesting that such tasks are valuable for third-year bridge classes, which seek to develop language while helping students tackle styles of academic writing that may perhaps not yet be familiar with. As such, this study adds to a growing area of research that seeks to prepare future FL teachers and students using content-based and genre approaches to language pedagogy.

*Knowledge structures.* The knowledge structures (KSs) of classification and evaluation were key features contained within the functional recasting during BG and PW sub-tasks on all days of the week. In particular, there were examples of classification language, which participants used on grammar days to negotiate the underlying rules of the subjunctive mood. Classification plays a fundamental role in experiential learning, helping learners to expand their repertoires of knowledge by subsuming meanings into categories and classes. Using pre-existing knowledge schemata (Piaget, 1926), described as a way of helping to organize and interpret information, new information that learners are faced with is brought into their heads and classified according to their existing schemata. In one example, two students used classification to categorize and create rules that aligned the use of the subjunctive mood with adverbial phrases with the future tense, and the use of the indicative mood with adverbials in the present or past tense. Together, students used the KS of classification to iron out the rules surrounding the use of this complex grammar point, supporting one another's contributions and accessing the teacher when they were in need of clarification.

The KSs of classification and evaluation came up again during the BG sub-tasks in the writing workshops as the teacher helped students understand the qualities of a good thesis

statement, including (a) clarity, (b) focus, and (c) connection of ideas. The teacher used categories or classes to evaluate students' theses, showing them how to include key information, such as what, where, when, and how. Evaluating students' theses, the teacher drew on key KSs to give students information about what their essays should include. 'Being' and 'having' processes were important during this task in order to show how the information in an essay should be organized. The teacher's use of relational processes was more academic than students' use of material processes. This emphasizes the importance of the language of classification for enabling learners to talk about what they are learning about language.

The present study builds on a number of studies that have emphasized the importance of key KSs (e.g., Early, et al., 1986, Slater & Mohan, 2010) by showing that the KSs of classification and evaluation, in particular, are important for building knowledge during BG and PW sub-tasks in blended third-year FL classrooms. These KSs were found to help strengthen the bridge from lower-level language learning to upper-level content learning, as they were likely basic and common enough to exploit the bridge between what students learned in their earlier courses (the form of classification) to how they can construct new understandings or content using these language forms.

***1on1 sub-tasks.*** "I think I've gotten better about thinking in Spanish while I'm writing...I was really in my head in the beginning translating what I wanted to say in English into Spanish, as we've written this essay it's a lot easier because it's more just saying it in Spanish and not worrying about how I would say the same thing in English" (Kerry, Interview 3). Kerry's quote illustrates how 1on1 sub-tasks encouraged students to do complex cognitive work in the target language. Moving away from translating the language into the mother tongue and toward using the target language as a vehicle for thought is an important step that language learners pass

through on the way toward more advanced literacy. By drawing on Spanish as a tool to mediate these processes, Kerry's quote lends credence to the fact that 1on1 sub-tasks aided in students' linguistic development over the course of the semester.

As a logical continuation from culture lessons, 1on1 writing sub-tasks allowed students to practice incorporating the contents and ideas from BG sub-tasks toward specific, self-developed compositions, which required them to integrate various skills. When asked what types of feedback she gave students during Friday writing workshops, the teacher emphasized her focus on the *ideas* in their writing. She would pass by their individual computers and read what they were writing. If she failed to understand the idea, she would ask the students what they wanted to say. She would then proceed to scaffold them by offering them suggestions related to the strategies they should take to mean more effectively, or by directly telling them how to rephrase what they wanted to mean.

The ideas of scaffolding and the ZPD are well established in educational research. As discussed in chapter two, Feez and Joyce (1998) showed how the ZPD aligns well with genre-based writing pedagogy by providing example units in which students were first shown a model genre to deconstruct and then subsequently proceeded to construct their own genres, at first with the teacher's assistance and finally on their own. The teacher's explanation of how she provided feedback to students during 1on1 writing sub-tasks throws light on one type of classroom practice that clearly fits into the genre writing cycle as described by numerous authors (Byrnes, 2002; Colombi, et al., 2007; Martin, 2009; Veel, 2006). By providing an example of how several types of sub-tasks fit into this framework, this study builds on this conversation by offering developers of third-year FL bridge courses examples of how technology can be soundly integrated into tasks at this level.

The 1on1 sub-tasks offered students opportunities for highly personalized feedback that was directly related to their essays. Rather than zeroing in on the grammatical errors in form, the teacher capitalized on these moments to focus on meaning. In other words, she focused on what students wanted to say more than what they did wrong. In previous years, the teacher admitted to focusing on the errors in students' grammatical forms. This year's course, in contrast, provided opportunities to negotiate both meaning and form. One-on-one sub-tasks were highly advantageous in this effort and contributed to the blended writing literature by offering examples of how technology-mediated writing tasks can be teacher-guided opportunities for meaning making in the FL.

*Student functional recasts.* The second main finding regarding the language features of 1on1 sub-tasks was that not only did the teacher use functional recasts to re-express content, but that students used them as well. During these tasks, the teacher talked students through issues and doubts that they had with their essays. Using modalized processes and the MOOD system the teacher worked with students, showing them how to effectively present the information in their writing. Students, in turn, were able to process the teacher's feedback and often asked follow-up questions, using functional recasts to help check their comprehension of the teacher's advice.

The scaffolding that went on between the teacher and her students during 1on1 sub-tasks was a way to permit students to work toward the Independent Construction stage of the genre writing cycle. Students, who were highly invested in producing a polished piece of writing, carefully listened to the teacher's suggestions and used functional recasts to confirm their understanding. Until now the limited work conducted on functional recasts has focused on how the teacher is able to paraphrase language for the student in order to build up language and content knowledge (Luo, 2005; Mohan & Beckett, 2003). The present study contributes to the

field by showing that students are also using functional recasts to confirm their understanding, paraphrasing what they understood of the teacher's suggestions during 1on1 writing sub-tasks.

**5.3.2 Work-along grammar sub-tasks: Building up knowledge of language.** “You get the explanation in Spanish and then you have to figure it out and put it into practice. If someone's gonna explain the grammar rules to me in English, then I can do them” (Cerise, Interview 2). The final type of language development that will be discussed is that which occurred during WA grammar sub-tasks. In a sense, these tasks presented a unique type of knowledge building in that rather than focusing on the content of culture or the content of writing, they focused on the content of language. Many students in the class reiterated the importance of receiving explicit knowledge about challenging grammatical concepts, such as the Spanish subjunctive mood. Not only were these sub-tasks instances for them to gain conceptual knowledge about how the Spanish language system worked, they were also opportunities for them to apply that knowledge immediately as they followed along with the teacher in the online grammar text. Some students explained that they preferred learning grammar during WA sub-tasks to the BG-PW-BG grouping due to the fact that WA sub-tasks were shorter, more concise, and allowed the teacher to fit more into a class period.

Several important features were present during WA grammar sub-tasks, but in this study, the focus was on one important characteristic, namely the tendency of the teacher to use the L1 for a significant portion of the time. In the end-of-semester course evaluations one student remarked that only during grammar explanations did the teacher speak in the L1, only when she was explaining important and complex grammatical concepts. In the example provided in Chapter 4, the teacher talked about an exceptional case where a personal ‘a’ could be confounded with a prepositional phrase when using certain verbs with direct object pronouns. Using English



as an alternative semiotic system, the teacher was able to explain the rationale for choosing a direct object pronoun instead of an indirect pronoun. Switching back and forth between two meaning-making systems (Spanish and English) the teacher made sure that students were able to understand this concept.

Several important studies have emphasized the importance of using the L1 in the FL classroom. Among them, Brooks and Donato (1994) found that L1 use among students played an important role, such as undergoing metatalk in order to sustain and initiate subsequent discourse, talking about the task, and speaking to externalize task objectives. While Brooks and Donato drew on Vygotskian theory to help explain why use of the L1 can be instrumental in certain cases, the present study views the use of the L1 in the classroom through the lens of an alternative meaning-making system that students were more familiar with and thus, one in which they were more capable of processing complex concepts.

Similar to symbols used to represent the knowledge of math or key visuals to teach concepts of classification, multisemiosis is an important part of the language that students are expected to use to construct schooled knowledge (Schleppegrell, 2006). O'Halloran (2000), for example, showed how math understandings in secondary school classrooms were complicated by the disjunction between the teacher's oral explanations and the textbook's written ones. Similarly, in our example, had the teacher attempted to explain the reasons why the personal 'a' was used instead of the prepositional 'a', students likely would have had difficulty applying the rule to future examples. By shifting from Spanish into English at strategic moments during WA tasks, the teacher was able to scaffold students' knowledge of difficult grammar concepts in order to ensure their understanding.

## 5.4 Conclusion

The following section makes several conclusions about the claims presented here and presents a model for a third-year FL curriculum. Table 5.4 displays a summary of the key findings uncovered by this study, which are elaborated on in the following section. This is followed by an examination of the limitations of the study, the implications for research and for practice, and several directions for future research.

Table 5.4

### *Summary of Key Findings of the Dissertation*

<b>RQ1:</b> What role did technology—and students' and teachers' attitudes about technology—play in teaching and learning in third-year FL courses?	
<b>1.1</b> Technology was harnessed to help fulfill established curricular objectives.	
	<b>1.1.1</b> Two types of technology (Netsupport and Google Docs) provided opportunities for course personalization.
	<b>1.1.2</b> Third-year language-and-content bridge courses were uniquely able to harness technology (Netsupport and Google Docs) in ways that encouraged intimacy with the teacher while at the same time promoting learner independence.
	<b>1.1.3</b> Two types of technology (Netsupport and Google Docs) lightened students and teachers' workloads.
	<b>1.1.4</b> Teachers harnessed Netsupport technology and Google Docs to facilitate the sharing of student work
	<b>1.1.5</b> Two types of technology (Netsupport and Google Docs) provided increased opportunities for feedback
<b>1.2</b> Third-year bridge courses provided ways for students to corroborate the feedback they received from their peers.	
<b>1.3</b> Third-year bridge courses furnished chances for both oral and written peer feedback in conjunction with one another.	
<b>RQ2:</b> What tasks were being used in third-year FL courses and how did students and teachers perceive of these as learning tools?	
<b>2.1</b> Third-year bridge courses included tasks that represented complete social practices (knowing and doing).	
<b>2.2</b> Third-year bridge courses harnessed grammar and writing tasks that gave students contextualized, authentic models.	
<b>2.3</b> As third-year bridge courses included students of disparate types and levels of language ability (e.g., NNS vs. HS), certain types of input needed to be supplemented by other resources in order to scaffold all students toward advanced listening comprehension.	
<b>2.4</b> Third-year bridge courses made use of WA sub-tasks to provide seamless technology-	

mediated theory and practice.	
<b>2.5</b> Three types of sub-tasks/task groupings used in a third-year bridge course were found to fit clearly along the different points of the genre writing continuum while also meeting other curricular objectives.	
<b>2.6</b> The use of 1on1 writing sub-tasks in third-year bridge courses helped students develop their ability to think in Spanish.	
<b>2.7</b> Third-year bridge courses integrated BG, PW, and 1on1 sub-tasks to allow students to enhance their knowledge about content.	
<b>RQ3:</b> How was academic language developed during BL tasks in third-year Spanish courses?	
<b>3.1</b> Functional recasts from both teacher and student feedback offered evidence that the language was being modeled towards a more academic register, not only by the teacher but by other students	
	<b>3.1.1</b> Modality was an important feature of language that students needed to learn in the third-year bridge courses
	<b>3.1.2</b> Technical language (grammatical metaphor, nominalization) was a feature of language that was important for students to learn in the third-year bridge courses.
	<b>3.1.3</b> Key knowledge structures of classification and evaluation were important for third-year language learning.
	<b>3.1.4</b> Student and teacher functional recasts played an integral role during 1on1 tasks in the third-year bridge courses.
<b>3.2</b> Use of the L1 as an alternative meaning-making system played an important role during grammar WA sub-tasks in the third-year bridge courses.	
<b>4.1</b> Methodological finding: Grounded ethnography enabled participants' opinions or concerns to be tracked over the course of the semester, with potential changes noted over time.	

**5.4.1 Summary of findings.** Several conclusions will now be made about the role of technology in third year blended Spanish writing and grammar courses, the tasks used in these courses as well as participants' ideas about these as learning tools, and the development of academic language as it was enacted during such tasks.

*The role of technology in blended Spanish writing and grammar courses.* Technology played a special role in the blended Spanish 301 courses. As the first time that certain tools were incorporated into this course, the teacher and her students were particularly reflective and forthcoming about technology's affordances and limitations for Spanish language learning at the

300-level. Different from many blended courses, Spanish 301 had the benefit of integrating two types of technology (Netsupport and Google Docs) to foment connections and communication between the teacher and her students. The teacher was present as students used Google Docs and she harnessed it in ways that brought her personally closer to their experience. This was also evident in the way she used Netsupport to share students' online grammar practice with the rest of the class as well as in the ways in which she used f2f oral and written feedback in Google Docs while students were working on their compositions.

Different from other online blended courses, which have noted a lack of human connection, Spanish 301 used Netsupport technology and Google Docs in a way that increased intimacy<sup>45</sup>, a much needed characteristic of a bridge course that is otherwise pulling students away from the familiar language lesson into foreign content classes. Given the importance of accompanying students as they make the transition from lower-level language to upper-level content courses, the facilitative role of technology in these courses for helping to bridge the divide cannot be underestimated.

A second conclusion that can be drawn about the role of Netsupport technology and Google Docs as they were used in Spanish 301 includes their ability to lighten teacher and students' burdens. Since one of the teacher's main priorities was to alleviate some of the stress and heavy workload that is involved in teaching the third-year FL composition course such as the heavy grading regimen, these technologies were used to provide real-time feedback to students allowing the teacher to minimize the amount of papers that she was taking home to grade. Lightening the grading burden is particularly important in a third-year bridge course, given the additional energy needed to make explicit to students relationships between meaning and form.

---

<sup>45</sup> Here, I define intimacy as increased time and emotional investment, where students and the teacher were engaged toward a common goal.

The teacher described this investment in students' work as exhausting yet extremely gratifying. As most NNS students come from lower-division courses that emphasize grammar patterns, Netsupport technology in conjunction with Google Docs, or technology that works in similar ways, can facilitate students' access to expert teacher support. One example of this was the ways that students were able to get their questions answered immediately as they were writing, instead of having to wait days or even weeks for the teacher to provide written feedback on their work. Students also noted several positive aspects of using online word processing technology, including its convenience, accessibility, and ease. Many of them began using Google Docs outside of class in their other classes, heralding the usability and practicality of being able to share documents and synchronously edit them online.

Third, participants saw the role of Netsupport technology and Google Docs as a motivating force. This is different from other studies, such as Krych-Applebaum (2007), which have shown that technology can sometimes dissuade learners from engaging with a course. Technology's role as a motivator was something both students and the teacher admitted on several occasions during interviews.

First, students remarked that sharing one's work using Netsupport and the online workbook pushed them to do their best work. Rather than being content with one's work at the individual level, students were now aware of writing for a real audience. This was apparent with the students' comments about the satisfaction that came with having the rest of the class publicly viewing and appreciating their writing. Having computers in front of students during the grammar and writing lessons was a means of keeping them engaged, but what is more, it allowed them to engage in the type of hands-on practical learning that is essential for a complete social

practice. As students were immediately able to put into practice principles of language and content, the breach between ‘knowing’ and ‘doing’ seemed to wane.

In light of the ways that a bridge course needs to unite students’ knowledge of grammar principles with their applications in real texts, this was an important result. By helping students to connect their reflections about language to their active applications of linguistic principles, Netsupport technology in conjunction with Google Docs served a crucial end. The teacher noted a marked difference between the way students approached their compositions this semester as compared to previous years, emphasizing that students in the blended courses seemed to be taking their assignments more seriously. They all appeared to really be taking pride in their work, keenly aware that the teacher was invested in their writing experience. If certain types of technology can help to spark students’ interest in language and culture at the 300-level, students will enter the upper-division courses with the enthusiasm and drive needed to be successful in advanced language study.

Feedback was another crucial part of technology’s role in Spanish 301. As much of the research already shows, oral and written feedback hold an important place in blended writing settings. Students feel that they are paying for a class and should, therefore, receive explicit help for improving their language skills. At the 300-level, the teacher’s role as a facilitator of feedback is unique. As students are forming the foundation for their understanding language principles, which will carry over into their upper-level classes, access to feedback at this point in the language sequence is critical for increasing students’ metalinguistic knowledge.

Carrying out feedback in a way that draws students’ attention to their particular challenges in a language means that students are able to make the necessary changes to their interlanguage repertoires. Oral and written feedback, as it was carried out synchronously during

writing days, accomplished this goal, giving students the opportunity to immediately ask personalized questions about their writing. As the teacher stated, these sessions were often tailored to students' individual needs, focusing on how to express meanings adequately in the target language rather than, for example, how to correctly conjugate a verb. Given the varied levels and types of learners in the third-year bridge course (e.g., NNS versus HS), this was particularly important. Students' needs and strengths differed widely. Written feedback in the way that the new Spanish 301 course was developed took a less pronounced role, as it was generally reserved for summative assessment or occasionally using the comment function in Google Docs. Nevertheless, students valued written feedback and being able to return to comments for later reflection.

The role of technology as an antagonist was also observed, especially in the sense that students worried about certain tools, such as the spell-and-grammar-check option in Google Docs, precluding them from learning important lessons in Spanish. While this automated correction might play a supportive role when writing in the L1, some students worried that it was doing the work for them, preventing them from applying their knowledge of language effectively. At the 300-level, teachers should discuss the technological tools that students are using and encourage them to take a critical stance toward these tools' affordances and drawbacks. As students will likely continue to use such tools for writing at the 400-level, the teacher can help define and model appropriate technology practices, such as turning off automated spell-and-grammar checkers and effectively using technology-based search and translation tools.

Other concerns about technology included its role in speeding up students' education (perhaps too fast), for not supplying them with adequate time to reflect on their learning

processes, and for giving them an excuse to be mentally languid during cultural videos. These were just a few of the concerns voiced by students during interviews. Although this type of apprehensiveness was infrequent among students and tended to dissipate as the semester went on, the importance of this point cannot be overemphasized, especially in light of the ways that technology is currently being thrust into our daily lives (e.g., smart phones, social networking, online marketing).

As Taylor's (2009) principles for sound implementation of instructional technology emphasize: *humans must be first*. Suffice it to say that the human relationship in third-year bridge courses needs to be put first, in the way that technology must imperceptibly fall into the background as human classroom relationships are cultivated. In sum, third-year language-and-content bridge courses must be uniquely able to harness technology in ways that encourage intimacy with the teacher while at the same time promoting learner independence.

***The tasks carried out in blended Spanish writing and grammar courses, and participants' views of these as learning tools.*** As we have seen, four major sub-task types as they occurred in different patterns during culture, grammar, and writing lessons, were carried out in the blended Spanish 301 courses. These included BG, PW, WA, and 1on1 sub-tasks. During culture lessons, BG and PW sub-tasks formed the bulk of the activity. These days were reserved for talking about cultural and social issues in Hispanic countries, such as the role of the woman in the workplace, both as a large group and in pairs.

The BG-PW-BG task grouping commonly occurred on these days. First the teacher would introduce a topic, giving input in the form of mini-lectures or video clips. Next, students would get into small groups to discuss specific questions about this input. Finally, the teacher would bring students back together to draw out their opinions and conversations, adding content



to the discussion and providing feedback. This task grouping provided important opportunities for building up students' knowledge of content and the way that content is expressed via language. These moments were particularly laden with examples of teacher functional recasts, which highlighted form-meaning relationships. Technology was not a major player during these conversations and students liked it that way. The manner in which the course was structured, with culture days having minimal technology, seemed to facilitate oral discussion and strengthen interaction among the students and their teacher.

On days where video clips were used, a disjunction was seen between the opinions of HS and NNS. While HS expressed enjoying these tasks and being able to relate them to their own lives, NNS said that oftentimes the speech in the video tasks was too fast to glean information or subsequently participate in discussion. Clearly, one of the goals of the third-year bridge course is to prepare students for listening to authentic spoken texts in the L2; however, with disparate types of students and levels of language ability, certain types of input (i.e., BG sub-tasks involving class discussions in the target language, cultural videos with native speakers) may need to be supplemented by other resources in order to scaffold all students toward advanced listening comprehension. Another option, which is gaining more popularity among foreign language departments in the US, is to separate HS from NNS learners entirely, providing a separate path of study for bilingual students who have been exposed to oral Spanish outside of school.

Although the tasks carried out during grammar lessons included BG and PW patterns, they also included WA sub-tasks, in which the students worked along with their teacher, who integrated key language principles and provided them with timely feedback. While many of the tasks carried out during grammar lessons could be viewed as complete social practices, with dual action and reflection components, some students stated that they preferred the WA sub-tasks for

their expedited pace, which allowed extra time for doing. Whereas the BG-PW task grouping seemed to some students to take an unnecessarily long time, the WA sub-task integrated “knowing” and “doing” seamlessly. This was a sequencing issue; where the BG-PW-BW grouping seemed to drag on, WA sub-tasks were dynamic, allotting students additional time for doing grammar in their online workbooks.

The technology-mediated nature of tasks occurring on grammar and writing days must also be highlighted. Some students expressed feeling strongly connected with their teacher during these days. The teacher controlled Netsupport, with the capacity to summon students’ screens to the attention of the rest of the class. However, students also noted a possible lack of connection with their fellow classmates during the days in the language lab. The way the computer lab was set up, with rows of students working with their individual computers, may have discouraged group activities. Some students mentioned the mere fact of having a computer screen in front of them dissuaded them from interacting with their peers. Of course this relates back to the role of technology, in that the tasks that were carried out in the language laboratory may have been less appropriate for getting students to interact communicatively.

Having grown accustomed to communicative tasks in the lower-division courses, many students remarked on their dissatisfaction with the decreased amount of speaking time that the 301 courses allotted. Recognizing that these courses were designed to help enhance writing and grammar skills, students were resigned to spending less amounts of time on conversation and speaking practice. Nevertheless, for upper-level courses (and real-world contexts), students’ speaking skills should not be waylaid.

In order to provide continuity between the lower and upper division courses, communicative tasks can and should be integrated at the 300-level. Example tasks that keep

students focused on writing but do so while also strengthening their speaking skills can be exploited by increasing the amount of PW sub-tasks that have students work together to solve a problem. Pair-work sub-tasks that use expert model texts are doubly valuable to students, who can use their speaking abilities to discuss issues surrounding what makes a successful genre.

Writing lessons witnessed many of the same task types as on other days but they also included a unique interactional pattern that entailed participants working one-on-one. The 1on1 sub-tasks, when used in combination with BG sub-tasks, were effective ways of scaffolding students toward independent construction of written genres. During 1on1 sub-tasks, students had the opportunity to get personalized feedback from the teacher about how to improve their writing. During these moments, the teacher would circulate, reading students' work and offering suggestions about how best to convey meanings and concepts.

From the teacher's point of view, 1on1 sub-tasks enabled her to get closer to students' writing processes. As the first time that she had incorporated this type of work into her third-year writing and grammar courses, she attributed the improvement of students' work specifically to this type of sub-task. Explaining that students had taken more pride in their writing this semester, the teacher rationalized that this may have been due to the intimate connection that was formed between her and the students surrounding their essays. Never before, for example, had she been able to remember and recount students' essay topics, which she did for the researcher after the course had finished. She reasoned that this level of intimacy with students' work must have been related to her profound involvement with each and every student on his or her essay.

From many students' points of view, the 1on1 writing sub-tasks were silent, productive moments for them to think in Spanish. By decreasing the time that they would have to spend outside of class on writing by themselves, these tasks likely motivated students to take full

advantage of their in-class time. Having the teacher there to scaffold and offer support was another advantage of carrying out the course in this way.

The only qualms that students brought up about writing workshops is that they were too short and in some cases did not allow for deep concentration to take place. Likened to design or architecture studios, which often last the better part of an afternoon, these workshops could have been longer to accommodate the apprenticeship of beginner writers into the craft. Writing studios can be key components of blended 300-level bridge courses, used to train students to work on writing specific genres. The increased feedback provided at this point in their language study will undoubtedly serve them immensely as they continue on into upper-level courses, which require increasingly autonomous writing practices.

*A curricular model for third-year bridge courses.* So what should a third-year bridge course include? The results of the in-depth analysis of tasks in Spanish 301 courses has allowed for a curricular model to be developed. As Figure 5.2 depicts, this model includes the essential tasks that are needed to strengthen and support the bridge between lower- and upper-level courses, the latter of which mainly focus on literature and culture.

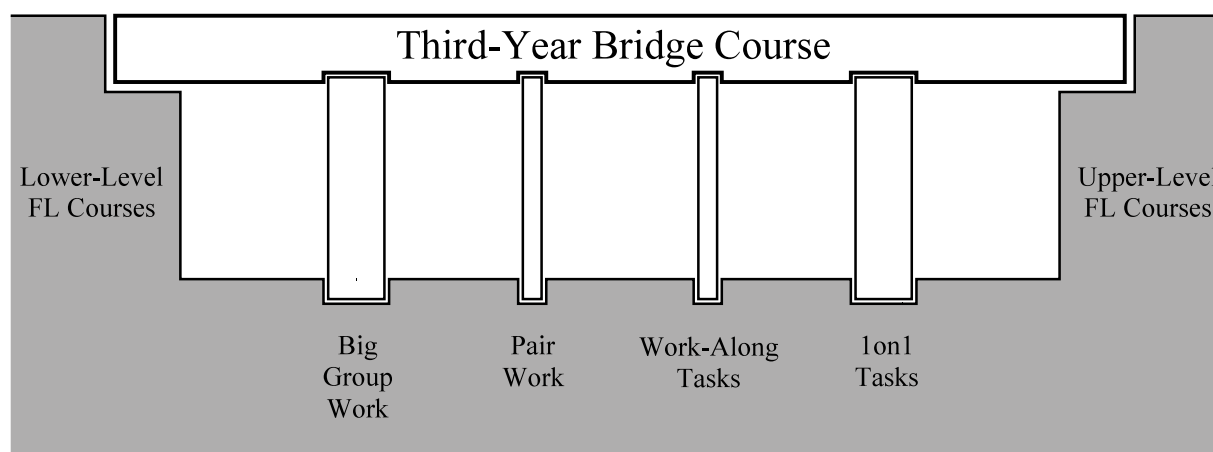


Figure 5.2. A model of the third-year FL bridge course.

Whereas the four task types depicted by the columns in Figure 5.2 all support the third-year bridge course, some are shown as being thicker than others, namely the BG and 1on1 sub-tasks. These reflect overall tendencies in the FL program. Work-along sub-tasks, for example, should be used to provide continuity from the lower-level to the upper-level sequence. In moderation, they focus on the functional features of language and should be tailored to fit students' preexisting level of metalinguistic knowledge, perhaps as measured by a diagnostic exam at the beginning of the term.

As the major pillars of the third-year curriculum, BG and 1on1 sub-tasks (in conjunction with PW sub-tasks) provide students access to more sophisticated ways of making meaning with language. As shown in Chapter 4, while PW sub-tasks provided students opportunities for brainstorming and planning with their peers, BG and 1on1 sub-tasks exposed them to exactly the types of advanced linguistic features (e.g., modality, grammatical metaphor, key knowledge structures, etc.) that they will need in their 400-level courses, and did so in a way in which their relationship to meaning was made explicit. As such, BG and 1on1 sub-tasks allot students expert input via functional recasts, helping strengthen the form-meaning relationships that serve as the basis for meaning-making in the upper-levels of language study (Byrnes, 2009; Colombi, 2009; Martin, 2009; Mohan & Beckett, 2003; Huang & Mohan, 2009; Ryshina-Pankova, 2010). If implemented correctly, the four task types shown in Figure 5.2 can provide students with ample opportunities for developing academic language. The ways in which this language can be developed via language learning tasks in the third-year grammar-and-composition courses is the focus of the following section.

***Academic language development in third-year Spanish writing and grammar courses.***

The third overarching question of the study is directly related to the previous question in that

classroom tasks and language were interconnected and inseparable. The language that students and the teacher produced and practiced during language learning tasks enacted those tasks so that one could not have occurred without the other. While the focus in answering the previous overarching question was on the tasks themselves, this section will address the language development of students by means of these tasks.

The first conclusion that was drawn with regards to language development was the importance of functional recasting during BG and PW discussions (Luo, 2005; Mohan & Beckett, 2003; Mohan, Leung & Slater, 2010). Functional recasts are opportunities for the teacher to build students' knowledge of content and the way that content is expressed via language. This is especially important in the third-year courses, which bridge communicative ways of learning grammar patterns in the lower language sequence with content-based approaches to literature and culture at the upper levels. Functional recasts play an important role in both culture and writing BG/PW sub-tasks. While functional recasts during culture tasks help develop students' oral language about cultural knowledge, writing tasks help students develop their knowledge to scaffold their writing practices. In this study, several discourse features were highlighted during the teacher's functional recasts of her students' utterances, including the use of modality, technical and abstract language (nominalization and grammatical metaphor), and ability to express key knowledge structures. The frequency of these recasts and their focus on such linguistic elements provide evidence that an experienced language teacher uses these naturally as part of teaching at this level.

The importance of modality during functional recasts came up in several cases, where the teacher was able to use modalized processes and adjuncts to clearly align students' contributions with an appropriate intersubjective stance, all an aspect of academic discourse construction.

When discussing sensitive cultural issues, such as gender roles in the workplace, one's choice of words becomes essential for helping create and establish relationships between speakers. This can be seen in the teacher's scaffolding of students by paraphrasing their monoglossic references to heteroglossic ones.

Using functional recasts to model the important discourse feature of modality helps students realize how their linguistic choices positioned them with respect to larger societal ideas. Modality is just one of the resources of the APPRAISAL network that speakers use to align themselves with the ideologies of cultural customs and peoples (Derewianka, 2001; Hood, 2010; Martin & White, 2005). While the teacher clearly used increased modality in her recasts during BG-PW sub-tasks, third-year bridge courses might benefit from also having the teacher explicitly highlight modality's role in language in order to foster students' awareness of modality's importance. Such a discussion would in essence increase students' metalinguistic awareness (Cummins, 1978; Nagy & Anderson, 1995) and provide a bridge between language and content, reinforcing the theory/practice connection that third-year bridge courses need.

The second important feature brought to light by the discourse analysis of functional recasts was that of technical and abstract language, including nominalization and grammatical metaphor. As features of discourse that allow language users to pack information densely into clauses, these conform an important part of what learners need to know in order to develop their formal and academic registers (Colombi, 2009; Schleppegrell, 2006; Ryshina-Pankova, 2010).

Transitioning to upper-level content courses, students will soon be expected to practice and produce increasingly abstract language. By paraphrasing students' contributions into more sophisticated utterances, a teacher of these courses emphasizes and reinforces the use of both technical and abstract language in academic discourse. Embedded clauses also worked to this

end by increasing lexical density. Related to technicality and abstraction was nominalization, a technical term for the conversion of a verbal process into a participant (noun).

Recasts using nominalization and grammatical metaphor are ways that a teacher has of making her language less congruent or more metaphorical (abstract). Abstract, higher thought processes, as one of the features of language that is noted at higher levels of language proficiency (cf. Halliday, 1998; Martin, 1993) needs to be illuminated, once again increasing metalinguistic awareness. Tasks that not only emphasize the use of abstraction and nominalization in third-year bridge courses, but also that draw attention to nominalization as a resource, will help students to use abstract language in more advanced textual genres, specifically those required by upper-level FL courses.

Key knowledge structures were also present during the teacher's recasts, specifically those of classification and evaluation. Examples were taken during PW grammar sub-tasks, when students used classification to sort out complex grammatical principles, as well as during writing tasks, where the teacher helped students organize their ideas for their thesis statement into subsequent paragraphs. Evaluation was another important discourse feature as it allowed students to understand if something they had said was correct or incorrect.

Using evaluation in conjunction with classification allows students to work toward higher understanding by subsuming important concepts into categories or classes. Given the nature of the third-year bridge course, there is benefit to drawing students' attention explicitly to important KSs as this helps students see how language and meaning intertwine. Research has shown that students are able to mobilize this knowledge effectively, increasing their understanding of how language works (Beckett & Miller, 2006; Beckett & Slater, 2005; Huang & Mohan, 2009). This



will be extremely useful to them as they pass into upper-level courses that expose them to advanced text types.

The last conclusion that will be drawn about students' Spanish development relates to the incidence of English used as an alternative multisemiotic system during WA grammar sub-tasks. It is beyond the scope of this paper to discuss whether or not it is necessary that students learn traditional grammar concepts as part of their formal training in a FL. Suffice it to say that the Spanish 301 courses studied did make use of such tasks and they differed from tasks on culture or writing days.

During WA grammar sub-tasks, language was used to construct knowledge about language. Class discussion surrounded topics that one would not likely encounter during his or her stay in a target language country<sup>46</sup>. In this sense, although the tasks on grammar days could not be considered 'authentic', the use of the L1 did provide the teacher the opportunity to help students understand complex grammatical concepts by providing them with a tool (the L1) to mediate their thought processes. Without the use of English, it is dubious whether most students would have really understood such rules as why the personal 'a' is used with the direct object pronoun instead of the indirect pronoun in certain cases. Thus, the findings of this study recommend cautious use of the mother tongue in bridging the gap between lower-level language courses and upper-level content courses.

These conclusions have summarized the major claims made in the present dissertation and provided answers to the overarching questions of the study. The following sections will present the limitations, offer implications for research and for practice, and suggest venues for future research.

---

<sup>46</sup> Never in my almost 10 years of living in Chile did I have a conversation with a non-linguist Chilean about the subjunctive mood, for example.

**5.4.2 Limitations.** As in all empirical inquiry, the present study has limitations. First, I must acknowledge the short duration of the observation schedule, which was constricted by the typical 15-week academic semester in which the study was carried out. This was compounded by the fact that any comparisons that were made between the ways in which Spanish 301 was carried out in previous years was informed only by the researcher and the teacher of the course's own experience imparting Spanish 301 courses in previous years, and not documented through observations. A related limitation was the fact that the researcher was not able to follow the Spanish 301 students into their fourth-year classes and see if they were in any way better prepared than those who had not been in the BL classes.

A second limitation of this study was an oversight on the researcher's part of the importance of regular capturing of student-teacher interactions during 1on1 writing feedback. As the teacher did not wear an audio recorder on her person, all language examples that were captured to this end occurred fortuitously. Given the importance of understanding the types of f2f feedback that were provided during 1on1 tasks, it was unfortunate that the teacher's explanation of what she did during these feedback sessions could not be corroborated with more extensive task discourse.

### **5.4.3 Implications**

Many implications from the various arguments and observations have already been made throughout this chapter. Here, several implications of this dissertation will now be drawn, specifically regarding those that relate to future research on foreign and BL learning, as well as those that have practical implications in the language classroom. Table 5.5 summarizes these implications that can specifically inform further research and pedagogy.

Table 5.5

*Summary of Implications of the Dissertation*

<b>Implications for Researchers</b>	
	1. Researchers should use grounded ethnography to explore participants' opinions or concerns to be tracked over the course of the semester, with potential changes noted over time.
	2. Grounded ethnography is particularly well suited to research in the language classroom, alleviating the burden of the teacher-researcher role, as adopted by action researchers
	3. It is important to understand the potentially opposite reactions of HS/NNS learners' to some tasks, such as video clips that include native speaker discourse.
	4. Analysis of tasks by their interactional patterns can shed light on whether or not students are being exposed to a complete social practice.
	5. More research on how technology-mediated or technology-enhanced PW tasks may differ from f2f PW tasks is needed.
	6. In the US, more educational research needs to use the SFL models.
	7. SFL discourse analysis is well suited to research in CALL.
<b>Implications for Teachers/Course Developers</b>	
	1. Tasks that have an appropriate mixture of "knowing" and "doing" are extremely beneficial for teachers and blended course developers.
	2. At the 300-level, teachers should discuss the technological tools that students are using and encourage them to take a critical stance toward these tools' affordances and drawbacks.
	3. In order to provide continuity between the lower and upper division courses, communicative tasks can and should be integrated at the 300-level (even in grammar and writing courses).
	4. Writing studios can be key components of blended 300-level bridge courses, used to train students to work on writing specific genres.
	5. Work-along tasks should be used to provide continuity from the lower level to the upper-level sequence.
	6. Teachers and course developers can use the model of curricular development of the third-year bridge course when designing their curricula.
	7. The mother tongue should be used with caution to bridge the gap between lower-level language courses and upper-level content courses.
	8. Teachers may need to explicitly teach concepts such as modality, technical language, and knowledge structures to raise metalinguistic awareness of what academic discourse does.

***Implications for research.*** In the US, there is much work that still needs to be done using SFL models for research in linguistic and educational fields. While much of the work on such models has been hashed out on other continents, namely in Australia, Canada, and the UK, there

is a great potential for developing these models in the unique US educational context. One such implication pertains to research carried out using the Knowledge Framework and genre-based writing instruction for developing content-based language programs. With the growing importance of the Spanish language in the US, research on bilingual education that harnesses these frameworks is of vital importance. This study offers a new functional model of task that aims to offer teachers and course designers concrete ways of bridging the language-content gap by building upon the genre-writing cycle (Colombi, 2009; Veel, 2006; Martin, 2009). Future researchers can examine this model in their unique contexts to see how it holds up.

In another vein, a methodological implication of this study relates to the discourse analytic frameworks most appropriate for use with research on BL learning. While many of the studies to date have used frameworks founded in psychological, mathematical, or sociological fields, a linguistic framework that has been borne out of the human being's capacity to use language, is the most appropriate for understanding the unique affordances and limitations for classrooms in which language—and content through language—is taught. To this end, discourse analytic strategies such as those carried out in the present study provide a basis for understanding and helping to explain the ways that technology impacts our use of language in technology-mediated registers.

A final implication for research surrounds the significance of grounded ethnographic research carried out as collaboration with foreign language teachers. As was shown, close collaborative partnerships can contribute to both research as well as teaching practices in educational arenas. Researchers can join forces with instructors to carry out ethnographies that can gainfully inform researchers and instructors alike. As in any partnership, a mutual effort to understand and respect each other's role is of critical importance. In order to facilitate these

alliances, steps must be taken to ensure the profitability of both parties. Time, energy, flexibility, and compassion are key ingredients to ensuring the success of such collaborations. Different from action research, which typically conflates the roles of researcher and instructor, grounded ethnographies of FL classrooms can provide many of the same benefits as action research, such as active participation, increased reflexivity, and the potential to improve strategies, practices, and environments of the FL classroom. Without the overwhelming responsibility of having to collect data and teach simultaneously, researchers can devote additional effort to making sure that such partnerships are advantageous for all involved.

***Implications for practice.*** There are several direct implications of the present study for practice. The first pertains to the benefits of teacher-researcher alliances, in particular for teachers and course developers, as mentioned in the previous section. Not only can such collaborations benefit the researcher by providing extremely rich sources of data, but they also may serve to strengthen the courses under study by providing curriculum developers with ways of accomplishing their course objectives.

By increasing reflexivity, in-depth interviews with the teacher of the present study provided a safe context for elaborating on the expected goals and practices of the Spanish 301 courses. By providing logistical assistance, technical expertise, and in some cases simply an extra set of hands, researchers can be indispensable resources. Teachers seeking to add more technology to help their language learners transition from lower-level to upper-level courses can undoubtedly profit from such camaraderie. As more and more courses in the lower-division are being taught in technology-enhanced formats (Lord, 2014), a great deal of students come to third-year courses primed for the possible ways that technology can be incorporated to help develop their academic and technology-based literacies. Thus, teacher-researcher cooperation

can benefit both parties, strengthening the courses and providing learners with high valuable classroom experiences.

A second implication for practice surrounds one of the important issues and objectives of FL education today, which entails bridging the methodological divide between the way that lower-level and upper-level FL courses are taught. Although communicative and task-based approaches to FL education have emphasized the role of meaning in the creation of fluency-based language tasks, there is still much work to be done on incorporating genre approaches into FL curricula. The SFL model of language has informed the present study and is of vital consequence to a new generation of FL curriculum reform, one that puts the importance of whole texts at its core. Carried out at all levels of language study, from the lower-division courses, throughout the third-year bridge courses, and on into the upper-level language courses that already likely incorporate whole texts, such models continue to be relevant as students are offered opportunities to deconstruct genres and analyze critical ways in which language is used to impart meaning. This is a weighty task, but the present dissertation has provided a starting point by pointing to the types of tasks that are useful for a third-year bridge course.

Some of these tasks include (a) those that provide ample opportunities for functional recasting (e.g., BG- and PW- sub-tasks about culture and literature), which also include scaffolding for learners of different levels and types, (b) WA sub-tasks that expeditiously discuss the principles behind language as well as practical hands-on opportunities to manipulate language forms (i.e., build up metalinguistic understandings and offer practice in applying them), and (c) meaningful 1on1 sub-tasks, such as those that ask learners to construct their own oral and written genres and that provide tailored feedback about their particular language-and-content issues. If incorporated correctly, these tasks as they are facilitated by technology (especially BG

and 1on1 sub-tasks) can directly increase students' preparedness to pass into upper-level language study.

A final implication for practice surrounds the applicability of technology in the blended writing classroom. Needed are ways of using technology that bring students and teachers together instead of leaving them with a feeling of isolation. The ways that technology-based tasks were used in the Spanish 301 courses provided clear evidence that technology need not be synonymous with student isolation. Given the value of autonomy in western society today, the equally important values of community building and interdependence must be accentuated. *Keep humans first*. If anything can be learned from Hispanic culture and tradition, it is the importance of community and solidarity to the individual. Technology-based tasks that capitalize on this moral code are worth their weight in gold, not only for developing language but also for fostering students' desire to acquire alternative worldviews and value systems besides their own.

**5.4.4 Future directions.** As mentioned, more empirical evidence is needed regarding exactly how Spanish 301 in this research was different from what it was in previous years. As such, one direction for future research would be to adopt an iterative research cycle, in which teacher-researcher collaborations involving grounded-ethnographic methodologies provide the basis for cyclical assessment and reflection about the changes that are most opportune involving new technology-based tasks in third-year FL classrooms. Such projects could be also accompanied by the gradual incorporation of technology-based tasks that slowly decrease the need for the teacher's f2f presence in the course. Nowadays, the ever-more-common conversion of traditional courses to blended and online formats merits long-term longitudinal research, which documents this process using ethnographic methods similar to those adopted in this study. A grounded

ethnography of taking a blended third-year FL course completely online would be highly revealing.

A second venue for future research is related to teacher-student discourse during 1on1 feedback sessions. Given the importance of these sessions to the iterative writing process, future research must seek to understand student-teacher scaffolding at the discourse level and how this contributes to students' language development over time. Although there has been some work done in this vein (see Gibbons, 2003b; Hammond, 2001; van Lier, 1996, 2004), more needs to be done specifically in relation to third-year FL bridge courses. One such study might focus on the suggestions that the teacher provides about how students could make meaning in the target language. In turn, this would enable the building of a database of common form-meaning breakdowns between English and Spanish. This could then be used as the basis of explicit teaching for future third-year FL courses.

One final suggestion for future inquiry pertains to the use of traditional grammar concepts in FL courses. Although it was beyond the scope of the present study to evaluate whether or not such knowledge is necessary for students to improve their language ability, future research might attempt an experiment: Eliminate traditional grammar teaching and replace it with a content-based, form/meaning model of register/genre. This would be an important innovation, especially in courses in the lower-division, since the majority of these currently emphasize traditional grammar concepts to the preclusion of specific texts and text types. Discovering the types of genres that are appropriate for instruction at the elementary and intermediate levels holds much promise for helping scaffold learners toward independent creation of texts in contexts that will be worthwhile for their holistic development.



Since a major hurdle for learners is a breach between the lower-level focus-on-grammatical-forms courses and the upper-level focus-on-cultural content, research on theory-informed task implementation at the third year can help us understand how learners can succeed. Instructors who are aware of theory-informed task implementation and who are willing to use engage in teacher-researcher collaborations, which foster technology use for helping to implement language- and content-learning in the third year will be doing their students the greatest of services. Specific contributions of this study have included a discussion of (a) the types of technology that are most appropriate, (b) the value of certain task types, (c) the value of certain types of feedback, and (d) the importance of certain linguistic features for third-year FL learning. Moreover, this dissertation has put forth a curricular model that hopes to better articulate the types of instruction that go on at lower and upper levels. It is my goal that this guidance will help teachers help their students to become adept language users at the 300-level and beyond.

## REFERENCES

- Abrams, Z. (2006). From Theory to Practice: Intercultural CMC in the L2 Classroom. In L. Ducate & N. Arnold (Eds.) *Calling on CALL: From Theory and Research to New Directions in Foreign Language Teaching* (pp. 181—209). San Marco, TX: CALICO Monograph.
- Alford, R. R. (1998). *The Craft of Inquiry: Theory, Methods, Evidence*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Allen, I. E., & Seaman, J. (2008). Staying the course: Online education in the United States. Boston: Sloan Consortium.  
[http://sloanconsortium.org/publications/survey/staying\\_course](http://sloanconsortium.org/publications/survey/staying_course)
- American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (2006). *Standards for foreign language learning in the 21st century*. Yonkers, NY: ACTFL.
- Anfara, V. A., Brown, K. M. & Mangione, T. L. (2002). Qualitative analysis on stage: Making the research process more public. *Educational Researcher*, 31(1), 28-38.
- Anderson-Inman, L., Knox-Quinn, C. & Tromba, P. (1996). Synchronous writing environments: Real-time interaction in cyberspace. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 40(2), 134—138.
- Atkinson, D. (2002). Toward a sociocognitive approach to second language acquisition. *Modern Language Journal*, 86(4), 525—545.
- Atkinson, D. (2003). Language socialization and dys-socialization in a south Indian college. In R. Bayley & S. R. Schechter (Eds.), *Language socialization in bilingual and multilingual societies* (pp. 147—162). Philadelphia, PA: Multilingual Matters.
- Atkinson, D. & Ramanathan, V. (1995). Cultures of writing: An ethnographic comparison of L1 and L2 university writing/language programs. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29, 539—568.
- Bañados, E. (2006). A blended-learning pedagogical model for teaching and learning EFL successfully through an online interactive multimedia environment. *CALICO Journal*, 23(3), 533—550.
- Battersby, D. (1981). The use of ethnography and grounded theory in educational research. *McGill Journal of Education*, 16(1), 91—98.
- Beckett, G. H. & Miller, P. C. (2006). *Project-based second and foreign language education: past present and future*. Greenwich, CN: Information Age Publishing.
- Beckett, G. & Slater, T. (2005). The project framework: A tool for language, content, and skills integration. *ELT Journal*, 59(2), 108—116.

- Belz, J. (2003). Linguistic perspectives on the development of intercultural competence in telecollaboration. *Language Learning & Technology*, 7(2), 68—99.
- Benson, M. J. (1989). The academic listening task: A case study. *TESOL Quarterly*, 23, 421—445.
- Bhaktin, M. (1981). *The dialogic imagination: Four essays*. London: University of Texas Press.
- Blake, R., Wilson, N. L., Cetto, M. & Pardo-Ballester, C. (2008). Measuring oral proficiency in distance, face-to-face and blended classrooms. *Language learning and technology*, 12(3), 114—127.
- Blumer, H. (1940). The problem of concept in social psychology. *American Journal of Psychology*, 45, 707—719.
- Bogdan, R. C. & Biklen, S. K. (2006). *Qualitative research in education: An introduction to theory and methods*. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Broin, D. O. & Raftery, D. (2011). Using Google Docs to support project-based learning. *All Ireland Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, 3(1).  
<http://ojs.aishe.org/index.php/aishe-j/article/view/35>. Accessed April 6, 2013.
- Brooks, F. B. & Donato, R. (1994). Vygotskian approaches to understanding foreign language learners' communicative tasks. *Hispania*, 77(2), 262-274.
- Brown, (2006). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching* (5th Ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson.
- Bruce, I. (2008). Academic writing and genre: A systematic analysis. New York, NY: Continuum.
- Brunsell, E. & Horejsi, M. (2011). “Flipping” your classroom. *Science Teacher*, 78(2), 10.
- Burnett, J. (1998). Language alternation in a computer-equipped foreign language classroom: The intersection of beliefs, language, and technology. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 55, 97—123.
- Burston, J. (2003). Providing IT works. *CALICO Journal*, 20(2), 219—226.
- Byrnes, H. (1988). How do you get from here to there? Articulating the foreign language major program. *ADFL Bulletin*, 20(1), 35—38.
- Byrnes, H. (1990). Foreign language departments and the cultural component of an international studies program. *ADFL Bulletin*, 22(1), 10—15.
- Byrnes, H. (1996). The future of German in American education: A summary report. *Die Unterrichtspraxis / Teaching German*, 29(2), 253—261.
- Byrnes, H. (1998). Learning foreign and second languages: Perspectives in research and scholarship. New York, NY: Modern Language Association.

- Byrnes, H. (2002). The role of task and task-based assessment in a content oriented collegiate foreign language curriculum. *Language Testing*, 19(4), 419—437.
- Byrnes, H. (2009). Systemic-functional reflections on instructed foreign language acquisition as meaning-making: An introduction. *Linguistics and Education*, 20(1), 1—9.
- Canagaraja, A. S. (1993). Critical ethnography of a Sri Lankan classroom: Ambiguities in student opposition to reproduction through ESOL. *TESOL Quarterly*, 27, 601—626.
- Candlin, C. N. & Murphy, D. F. (1987). Towards task-based language learning. In C. N. Candlin & D. F. Murphy (Eds.) *Language learning tasks* (pp. 5—22). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall International.
- Carbaugh, D. (2005). *Cultures in conversation*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Casanave, C. P. (2010). Case studies. In B. Paltridge & A. Phakiti (Eds.) *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics* (pp. 66—79). London: Continuum.
- Chacón, C. T. (2012). Task-based language teaching through film-oriented activities in a teacher education program in Venezuela. In A. Shehadeh & C. A. Coombe (Eds.). *Task-based language teaching in foreign language contexts: Research and implementation*, (pp. 267—286). Philadelphia, PA: John Benjamins.
- Chapelle, C. A. (2001). Computer applications in second language acquisition: Foundations for teaching, testing, and research. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Chapelle, C. A. & Duff, P. A. (2003). Some guidelines for conducting quantitative and qualitative research in TESOL. *TESOL Quarterly*, 37(1), 157—178.
- Chapelle, C. A., Enright, M. E., & Jamieson, J. (2008). *Building a validity argument for the Test of English as a Foreign Language*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Charmaz, K. (2006). *Constructing Grounded Theory: A Practical Guide Through Qualitative Analysis*. London: Sage.
- Chenoweth, N. A., Ushida, E. & Murday, K. (2006). Students learning in hybrid French and Spanish courses: An overview of language online. *CALICO Journal*, 24(1), 115—145.
- Cho, S. P. (2008). Korean immigrants' social practice of heritage language acquisition and maintenance through technology. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of British Columbia.
- Christie, F. (2002). The development of abstraction in adolescence in subject English. In M. J. Schleppegrell & M. C. Colombi (Eds.), *Developing advanced literacy in first and second languages* (pp. 45—66). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Christie, F. (2012). *Language education throughout the school years: A functional perspective*. Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell.

- Christie, F. & Martin, J. R. (Eds.). (2007). *Language, knowledge and pedagogy: Functional linguistic and sociological perspectives*. London: Continuum.
- Coleman, H. (1987). Little tasks make large returns. In Candlin & Murphy (Eds.), *Language learning tasks* (pp. 121—146). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall International.
- Collentine, K. (2009). Learner use of holistic language units in multimodal task-based synchronous computer-mediated communication. *Language Learning & Technology*, 13(2), 68—87.
- Colombi, M. C. (2002). Academic language development in Latino students' writing in Spanish. In M. J. Schleppegrell & M. C. Colombi (Eds.) *Developing advanced literacy in first and second languages* (pp. 1—19). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Colombi, M. C. (2009). A systemic functional approach to teaching Spanish for heritage speakers in the United States. *Linguistics and Education*, 20(1), 39—49.
- Colombi, M. C., Pellettieri, J., & Rodriguez, M. (2007). *Palabra abierta*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Coughlan, P. & Duff, P. (1994). Same task, different activities: Analysis of a SLA task from an activity theory perspective. In J. Lantolf & G. Appel (Eds.), *Vygotskian approaches to second language research*, (pp. 173—194). Westport, CT: Ablex Publishing Corporation.
- Coxhead, A. (2000). A new academic word list. *TESOL Quarterly*, 34(2), 213—238.
- Creswell, J. (2002). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill Prentice Hall.
- Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions* (2nd Ed). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Creswell, J., & Miller, D. (2000). Determining validity in qualitative inquiry. *Theory Into Practice*, 39(3), 124—130.
- Crosson, A. C., Matsumura, L. C., Correnti, R. & Arlotta-Guerrero, A. (2012). The quality of writing tasks and students' use of academic language in Spanish. *The Elementary School Journal*, 112(3), 469—496.
- Crowhurst, M. (1990). Teaching and learning the writing of persuasive/argumentative discourse. *Canadian Journal of Education*, 15(4), 348—359.
- Cummins, J. (1978). Bilingualism and the development of metalinguistic awareness. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 9(2), 131—149.
- Cummins, J. (2013). BICS and CALP: Empirical support, theoretical status, and policy implications of a controversial distinction. In M.R. Hawkins (Ed.), *Framing languages*

- and literacies: Socially situated views and perspectives* (pp. 10-23). New York, NY: Routledge.
- da Silva, A. D. (2004). Emergent Spanish writing of a second grader in a whole-language classroom. In B. Pérez (Ed.), *Sociocultural contexts of language and literacy* (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.) (pp. 247—274). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Davies, K. A. (1995). Qualitative theory and methods in applied linguistics research. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29, 427—453.
- De Veaux, R. D., Velleman, P. F., & Bock, D. E. (2012). *Stats data and models*. Boston, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Denzin, N. K. & Lincoln, Y. S. (1998). *The landscape of qualitative research: Theories and issues*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Derewianka, B. (2001). Pedagogical grammars: Their role in English language teaching. In A. Burns, & C. Coffin (Eds.), *Analyzing English in a global context: A reader* (pp. 240-269). London, UK: Routledge.
- Dewey, J. (1916). *Democracy and education*. New York: Macmillan.
- Early, M. (1990). Enabling first and second language learners in the classroom. *Language Arts*, 67, 567—574.
- Early, M., Mohan, B. A. & Hooper, H. R. (1988). The Vancouver school board language and content project. In J. M. Esling (Ed.), *Multicultural education and policy: ESL in the 90s* (pp. 107—125). Toronto: O.I.S.E.
- Early, M., Thew, C. & Wakefield, P. (1986). Integrating language and content instruction K-12: An E.S.L. resource book, vol. 1. Victoria, B. C. Ministry of Education, Modern Language Services Branch.
- Echavez-Solano, N. (2003). A comparison of student outcomes and attitudes in technology-enhanced vs. traditional second semester Spanish language courses. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Minnesota.
- Eggins, S. (1994). *An introduction to systemic functional linguistics*. New York, NY: Continuum.
- Eggins, S. & Slade, D. (1997). *Analysing casual conversation*. New York, NY: Continuum.
- Elwood, S. A. & Martin, D. G. (2000). ‘Placing’ Interviews: Location and Scales of Power in Qualitative Research. *Professional Geographer*, 52(4), 649—657.
- Ellis, R. (2010) Forward. In M. Thomas & H. Reinders (Eds.), *Task-based language learning and teaching with technology* (pp. xvi—xviii). London: Continuum.

- Feez, S. & Joyce, H. (1998). *Text-based syllabus design*. Sydney: National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research.
- Fisher, W. R. (1989). Human communication as narration: Toward a philosophy of reason, value, and action. Columbia, SC: University of South Carolina Press.
- Flowerdew, J. & Miller, L. (1995). On the notion of culture in L2 lectures. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29, 345—373.
- Freeman, Y. S. & Freeman, D. E. (2006). Teaching reading and writing in Spanish and English in bilingual and dual language classrooms (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- García, O. (2002). Writing backwards across languages: The inexperienced English/Spanish biliteracy of uncertified bilingual teachers. In M. J. Schlepppegrell & M. C. Colombi (Eds.), *Developing advanced literacy in first and second languages* (pp. 245—260). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Gass, S. (1995). Learning and teaching: The necessary interaction. In F. R. Eckman, D. Highland, P. W. Lee, J. Miliham & R. R. Weber (Eds.) *Second language acquisition theory and pedagogy* (pp. 3—20). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Geertz, C. (1973). *The interpretation of cultures*. New York: Basic Books.
- Glaser, B. (1992). *Basics of grounded theory analysis*. Mill Valley, CA: Sociology Press.
- Glaser, B. & Strauss, A. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory*. Chicago, IL: Aldine Publishing Company.
- Gleason, J. (2012). The language of tasks and technology in blended FL courses. Unpublished pilot study submitted for the preliminary examination in applied linguistics and technology. Ames, IA: Iowa State University.
- Gibbons, J. (1999). Register aspects of literacy in Spanish. *Written Language and Literacy*, 2(1), 63—88.
- Gibbons, P. (2003a). Mediating language learning: Teacher interactions with ESL students in a content-based classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 37(2), 247—273.
- Gibbons, P. (2003b, March 25). Scaffolding academic language across the curriculum. Presentation at the American Association of Applied Linguistics (AAAL), Arlington, VA.
- Goffman, (1974). *Frame analysis: An essay on the organization of experience*. London: Harper and Row.
- González-Lloret, M. (2003). Designing task-based CALL to promote interaction: En busca de esmeraldas. *Language Learning & Technology*, 7(1), 86—104.

- Gouge, C. (2009). Conversation at a crucial moment: Hybrid courses and the future of writing programs. *College English*, 71(4), 338—362.
- Graham, C. R. & Dziuban, C. (2008). Blended learning environments. In M. Spector (Ed.) *Handbook of research on educational communications and technology* (pp. 269—276). New York, NY: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Grgurović, M. (2010). Technology-enhanced blended language learning in an ESL class: A description of a model and an application of the Diffusion of Innovations theory. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Iowa State University.
- Guardado, M. & Shi, L. (2007). ESL students' experiences of online peer feedback. *Computers and Composition*, 24, 443—461.
- Gubrium, J. (1988). *Analyzing Field Reality. Qualitative Research Methods*, v. 8. Newbury Park: Sage.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1979). Modes of meaning and modes of expression: Types of grammatical structure, and their determination by different semantic functions. In D. J. Allerton, E. Carney & D. Holdcroft (Eds), *Function and Context in Linguistic Analysis: Essays Offers to William Haas* (pp. 57—79). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1980). Three aspects of children's language development: Learning language, learning through language, learning about language. In Y. Goodman, M. H. Haussler, & D. Strickland (Eds.), *Oral and written language development research* (pp. 7—19). Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1985). *An introduction to functional grammar* (1<sup>st</sup> Ed.). London: Edward Arnold.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1993). Towards a language-based theory of learning. *Linguistics and Education*, 5(2), 93—116.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1994). *An introduction to functional grammar* (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.). London: Edward Arnold.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1998). Things and relations: Regrammaticising experience as technical knowledge. In J. R. Martin & R. Veel (Eds.) *Reading Science: Critical and functional perspectives on discourses of science*, (pp. 185—235). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Halliday, M. A. K. & Martin, J. R. (1993). *Writing science*. London: Falmer Press.
- Halliday, M. A. K. & Matthiessen, C. I. M. (2004). *An introduction to systemic functional grammar* (4th Ed.). London: Edward Arnold.
- Hammond, J. (2001). *Scaffolding: Teaching and learning in language and literacy education*. Newtown, Australia: Primary English Teaching Association.



- Hampel, R. (2006). Rethinking task design for the digital age: A framework for language teaching and learning in a synchronous online environment. *ReCALL*, 18(1), 105—121.
- Harklau, L. (2005). Ethnography and ethnographic research on second language teaching and learning. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 179—194). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Harré, R. (1993). *Social being* (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.). Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Harris-Schenz, B. (1993). Between a rock and a hard place: The position of the language program coordinator. *ADFL Bulletin*, 24(2), 45—50.
- Hinkleman, D. & Gruba, P. (2012). Power within blended language learning programs in Japan. *Language Learning & Technology*, 16(2), 46—64.
- Hood, J. C. (1983). *Becoming a two-job family*. New York: Praeger.
- Hood, S. (2004). Appraising research: Taking a stance in academic writing. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Sydney: University of Technology.
- Huang, J. & Mohan, B. (2009). A functional approach to integrated assessment of teacher support and student discourse development in an elementary Chinese program. *Linguistics and Education*, 20(1), 22—38.
- Hymes, D. (1964). *Language in Culture and Society*. New York, NY: Harper and Row.
- Instituto Cervantes (2010). El español en cifras. Madrid: Instituto Cervantes. Accessed at: [http://cvc.cervantes.ed/lengua/anuario/anuario\\_06-07/pdf/cifras/pdf](http://cvc.cervantes.ed/lengua/anuario/anuario_06-07/pdf/cifras/pdf). Accessed September 18, 2013.
- Jin, L. (2012). Sociocultural theory-guided college-level Mandarin Chinese hybrid course design. *The IALLT Journal*, 42(1), 30—50.
- Jones, A. (2010). Michael Halliday: An appreciation. *International House Journal of Education and Development*, 28. <http://ihjournal.com/michael-halliday-an-appreciation>
- Katriel, T. (1990). ‘Griping’ as a verbal ritual in some Israeli discourse. In D. Carbaugh (Ed.), *Cultural Communication and Intercultural Contact* (pp. 99—114). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Kern, R. (2002). Recognizing the language-literature split through literacy. *ADFL Bulletin*, 33(3), 20—24.
- Kittle, P. & Hicks, T. (2009). Transforming the group paper with collaborative online writing. *Pedagogy: Critical Approaches to Teaching Literature, Language, Composition, and Culture*, 9(3), 529—538.

- Kraemer, A. N. (2008). Using hybrid instruction to bridge the language-literature gap. Unpublished doctoral dissertation: Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI.
- Kramersch, C. (1985). Literary texts in the classroom: A discourse. *The Modern Language Journal*, 69(4), 356—366.
- Kramersch, C. (1998). Constructing second language acquisition research in foreign language departments. In H. Byrnes (Ed.) *Learning foreign and second languages: Perspectives in research and scholarship* (pp. 23—38). New York, NY: Modern Language Association.
- Krych-Appelbaum, M. & Musial, J. (2007). Students' perception of value of interactive oral communication as part of writing course papers. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, 34(3), 131—136.
- Lantolf, J. & Appel, G. (1994). *Vygotskian approaches to second language research*. Westport, CT: Ablex Publishing Corporation.
- Lantolf, J. P. & Thorne, S. L. (2006). *Sociocultural theory and the genesis of second language development*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Larson, D. K. & Sung, C.-H. (2009). Comparing student performance: Online versus blended versus face to face. *Journal of asynchronous learning networks*, 13(1), 75—87.
- Laster, S., Otte, G., Picciano, A. G., & Sorg, S. (2005, April 18). Redefining blended learning. Presentation at the 2005 Sloan-C Workshop on Blended Learning, Chicago, IL.
- Le Compte, M. D. & Goetz, J. P. (1982). Problems of validity and reliability in ethnographic research. *Review of Educational Research*, 52(1), 31—60.
- Lee, L. (2002). Enhancing communication skills through synchronous electronic interaction and task-based instruction. *Foreign Language Annals*, 35(1), 16—24.
- Lee, L. (2010). Exploring wiki-mediated collaborative writing: A case study in an elementary Spanish course. *CALICO Journal*, 27(2), 260—276.
- Levy, M. (1997). *Computer-assisted language learning: Context and conceptualization*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Liang, X. (1998). *Dilemmas of cooperative learning: Chinese students in a Canadian high school*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation: The University of British Columbia.
- Liang X. & Mohan B. (2003). Dilemmas of cooperative learning and academic proficiency in two languages. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 2(1), 35—51.
- Lincoln, Y. S. (1995). Emerging criteria for quality in qualitative and interpretive research. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 1(3), 275—289.

- Liu, G.-Z. (2003). An instructional design theory for teaching freshman English in a hybrid web-based instruction course in Taiwan. Unpublished doctoral dissertation: Indiana University.
- Lomicka, L., Lord, G., & Manzer, M. (2003). Merging foreign language theory and practice in designing technology-based tasks. In C. M. Cherry (Ed.), *Dimension* (pp. 37—52). Valdosta, GA: SCOLT Publications.
- Long, M. H. (1985). A role for instruction in second language acquisition: Task based language learning. In K. Hyltenstam & M. Pienneman (Eds.) *Modeling and assessing second language acquisition* (pp. 77—99). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Long, M. H. (1991). Focus on form: A design feature in language teaching methodology. In K. de Bot, R. B. Ginsberg, & C. Kramsch, (Eds.), *Foreign language research in cross-cultural perspective* (pp. 39—52). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Lord, G. (2014). *Language program direction: Theory and practice*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.
- Losey, K. M. (1997). Listen to the silences: Mexican American interaction in the composition classroom and community. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Low, M. (2010). Teachers and texts: Judging what English language learners know from what they say. In A. Paran & L. Sercu (Eds.), *Testing the untestable in language education* (pp. 241—255). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Luo, L. Y. (2005). A systemic functional perspective on native and non-native English-speaking students' online discussion in a mixed-mode graduate seminar. Unpublished doctoral dissertation: The University of British Columbia.
- Mansor, A. Z. (2011). Google Docs as a collaborative tool for academicians. *Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 59, 411—419.
- Mansor, A. Z. (2012). Top five creative ideas using web 2.0. *Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 59, 429—437.
- Marquez, G. G. (1967). *Cien años de soledad*. Mondadori, S.A.: Random House.
- Martin, J. R. (1993). Technology, bureaucracy and schooling: Discursive resources and control. *Cultural Dynamics*, 6, 84—130.
- Martin, J. (2009). Genre and language learning: A semiotic perspective. *Linguistics and Education*, 20(1), 10—21.
- Martin, J.R. (2013). Systemic functional linguistics. In M.R. Hawkins (Ed.), *Framing languages and literacies: Socially situated views and perspectives* (pp. 24-50). New York, NY: Routledge.

- Martin, J. R. & Rose, D. (2003). *Working with discourse: Meaning beyond the clause*. London: Continuum.
- Martin, J. R. & White, P. R. R. (2005). *The language of evaluation: Appraisal in English*. New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Martin, J. R., Zappavigna, M. & Dwyer, P. (2007). Negotiating narrative: Story structure and identity in youth justice conferencing. *Linguistics and the Human Sciences*, 3(2), 221—253.
- Mason, J. (1996). *Qualitative Researching*. London: Sage.
- Matsuda, P. K., Canagarajah, A. S., Harklau, L. Hyland, K. & Warschauer, M. (2003). Changing currents in second language writing research: A colloquium. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 12, 151—179.
- Maxim, H. H. (2005). Enhancing graduate student teacher development through curricular reform. *ADFL Bulletin*, 36(3), 15—21.
- McKay, S. L. & Wong, S.-L. C. (Eds.) (2000). *New immigrants in the United States*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Mehlenbacher, B., Miller, C. R., Covington, D. & Larsen, J. S. (1999). Active and interactive online: A comparison of web-based and conventional writing classes. *IEEE Transactions on Professional Communication*, 43(2), 166—184.
- Mertens, D. M. (1998). *Research methods in education and psychology: Integrating diversity with quantitative & qualitative approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Mills, M., Bonner, A. & Francis, K. (2006). The development of constructivist grounded theory. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 5(1), 25—35.
- Mishra, P. & Koehler, M. J. (2006). Technological pedagogical content knowledge: A framework for teacher knowledge. *Teachers College Record*, 108(6), 1017—1054.
- Mohan, B. (1986). *Language and content*. Reading, MA: Addison Wesley.
- Mohan, B. (2007). Knowledge structures in social practices. In J. Cummins & C. Davidson (Eds.) *The international handbook of English language teaching* (pp. 303—316). New York, NY: Springer.
- Mohan, B. A. (2011). Social practice and register. In E. Hinkel (Ed.) *Handbook of research in second language learning and teaching*, v. 2 (pp. 57—75). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Mohan, B. (2012, November 14). Evaluating student writing and speaking: Can linguistics help? Quentin Johnson Lecture in Linguistics: Iowa State University, Ames, IA.

- Mohan, B. & Beckett, G. H. (2003). A functional approach to research on content-based language learning: Recasts in causal explanations. *The Modern Language Journal*, 87(3), 421—432.
- Mohan, B. & Lee, G. I. (2006). Linking interpretive research and functional linguistics: From learning projects to teaching projects. In G. H. Beckett & P. C. Miller (Eds.) *Project-based second and foreign language education* (pp. 263—280). Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing.
- Mohan, B., Leung, C. & Slater, T. (2010). Assessing language and content: A functional perspective. In A. Paran & L. Sercu (Eds.), *Testing the Untestable in Language Education* (pp. 217—240). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Mohan, B., & Slater, T. (2005). A functional perspective on the critical ‘theory/practice’ relation in teaching language and science. *Linguistics and Education*, 16, 151—172.
- Mohan, B. & Slater, T. (2006). Examining the theory/practice relation in a high school science register: A functional linguistic perspective. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 5, 302—316.
- Montero-Fleta, B. & Pérez-Sabater, C. (2012). Knowledge construction and knowledge sharing: A wiki-based approach. *Social and Behavioral Sciences* 28, 622—627.
- Morita, N. (2000). Discourse socialization through oral classroom activities in s TESL graduate program. *TESOL Quarterly*, 34, 279—310.
- Murday, K., Ushida, E., & Chenoweth, N. A. (2008). Learners and teachers perspectives on language online. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 21(2), 125—142.
- Murray, L. G. (1999). Autonomy and language learning in a simulated environment. *System*, 27, 295—308.
- Myazoe, T. & Anderson, T. (2010). Learning outcomes and perceptions of online writing: Simultaneous implementation of a forum, blog, and wiki in an EFL blended learning setting. *System*, 38, 185—199.
- Nagy, W. E. & Anderson, R. C. (1995). Metalinguistic awareness and literacy acquisition in different languages. *Technical Report*, 618. Center for the Study of Reading: University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign.
- Nelson, G. L. & Carson, J. G. (1996). ESL students’ perceptions to the effectiveness in peer response groups. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 7, 113—131.
- Neumeier, P. (2005). A closer look at blended learning: Parameters for designing a blended learning environment for language teaching and learning. *ReCALL* 17(2), 163—178.

- Nunan, D. (1996). Hidden voices: Insiders' perspectives on classroom interaction. In K. M. Bailey & D. Nunan (Eds.), *Voices from the language classroom: Qualitative research in second language education* (pp. 41—56). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Nunan, D. (2001). Aspects of task-based syllabus design. *Karen's linguistic issues: Free resources for teachers and students of English*.  
<http://www3.telus.net/linguisticsissues/syllabusdesign.html>. Accessed May 5, 2013.
- Nunan, D. (2004). *Task-based language teaching*. London: Continuum.
- O'Halloran, K. L. (2000). Classroom discourse in mathematics: A multisemiotic analysis. *Linguistics and Education*, 10(3), 359—388.
- Painter, C. (1993). *Learning through language in early childhood*. London: Continuum.
- Painter, C. (2003). The use of metaphorical meaning in early language development. In A. M. Simon Vandenberg, M. Taverniers, & L. Ravelli (Eds.), *Grammatical metaphor: Views from systemic functional linguistics* (pp. 151—167). Amsterdam/Philadelphia, PA: Benjamins.
- Park, M. (2012). Implementing computer-assisted task-based language teaching in the Korean secondary EFL context. In A. Shehadeh & C. A. Coombe (Eds.), *Task-based language teaching in foreign language contexts: Research and implementation*, (pp. 241—266). Philadelphia, PA: John Benjamins.
- Pavlov, I. P. (1927). *Conditioned reflexes: An investigation of the physiological activity of the cerebral cortex*. London: Oxford University Press.
- Pearson, D. P. & Gallagher, M. C. (1983). The instruction of reading comprehension. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 8(3), 317—44.
- Philipsen, G. (1975). Speaking “like a man” in Teamsterville: Culture patterns of role enactment in an urban neighborhood. *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 61, 13—22.
- Piaget, J. (1926). *The language and thought of the child*. London: Routledge & Kegan.
- Pica, T. (1994). Questions from the language classroom: Research perspectives. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28, 49—79.
- Pica, T., Kanagy, R., & Falodun, J. (1993). Choosing and using communication tasks for second language instruction. In G. Crookes & S. Gass (Eds.), *Tasks and language learning: Integrating theory & practice* (pp. 9—34). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Picciano, A. G. (2009). Blending with a purpose: The multimodal model. *Journal of asynchronous learning networks*, 13(1), 7—18.
- Ranmanathan, V. (1999). “English is here to stay”: A critical look at institutional and educational practices in India. *TESOL Quarterly*, 33, 211—231.

- Rieger, J. H. (2007). Key informant. In G. Ritzer & Y. Lincoln (Eds.) *Blackwell Encyclopedia of Sociology* (pp. 2457—2458). London: Blackwell.
- Richardson, L. (2000). Evaluating ethnography. *Qualitative inquiry*, 6(2), 253—255.
- Richardson Bruna, K. (2002). Manufacturing dissent: The new economy of power relations in multicultural teacher education. Unpublished doctoral dissertation: University of California, Davis.
- Roux-Rodríguez, R. (2003). Computer-mediated peer-response and its impact on revision in the college Spanish classroom. Unpublished doctoral dissertation: University of South Florida.
- Ryshina-Pankova, M. (2010). Toward mastering the discourses of reasoning: Use of grammatical metaphor at advanced levels of foreign language acquisition. *Modern Language Journal* 94(2), 181—197.
- Schleppegrell, M. J. (2006). The challenges of academic language in school subjects. In I. Lindberg & K. Sandwall (Eds.) *Språket och kunskapen: att lära på sitt andraspråk i skola och högskola* (pp. 47—69). Göteborg, Sweden: Göteborgs universitet institutet för svenska som andraspråk.
- Schleppegrell, M. J., Achugar, M., & Oteíza, T. (2004). The grammar of history: Enhancing content-based instruction through a functional focus on language. *TESOL Quarterly*, 38(1), 67—93.
- Schleppegrell, M. J. & Colombi, M. C. (2002). Theory and practice in the development of academic literacy. In M. J. Schleppegrell & M. C. Colombi (Eds.), *Developing advanced literacy in first and second languages* (pp. 1—19). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Schultz, J. (2000). Computers and collaborative writing in the foreign language curriculum. In M. Warschauer & R. Kern (Eds.), *Network-based language teaching: Concepts and practice* (pp. 121—150). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Schultz, J. M. (2002). The Gordian Knot: Language, literature and critical thinking. In V. M. Scott & H. Tucker (Eds.), *SLA and the literature classroom: Fostering dialogues* (pp. 3—34). Boston, MA: Heinle and Heinle.
- Schultz, J. M. (2005). The role of special focus sections in the articulation of language and literature courses. In C. M. Barrette & K. Paesani (Eds.), *Language program articulation: Developing a theoretical foundation* (pp. 560—577). Boston, MA: Heinle Cengage.
- Scida, E. E., & Saury, E. R. (2006). Hybrid courses and their impact on student and classroom performance: A case study at the University of Virginia. *CALICO Journal*, 23(3), 517—531.
- Sharwood Smith, M. (1991, February-March). Plenary given at the Second Language Research Forum (SLRF), University of California, Los Angeles.

- Shehadeh, A. & Coombe, C. A. (Eds.) (2012). Task-based language teaching in foreign language contexts: Research and implementation. Philadelphia, PA: John Benjamins.
- Sherzer, J. (1983). *Kuna ways of speaking: An ethnographic perspective*. Austin: The University of Texas Press.
- Silverman, D. (1993). Interpreting qualitative data. Methods for analysing talk, text and interaction. London: Sage Publications.
- Skehan, P. (1998). *A cognitive approach to language learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Skinner, B. F. (1938). *The behavior of organisms*. Ann Arbor, MI: Copley Publishing Group.
- Slater, T. J. A. (2004). *The discourse of causal explanations in school science*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation: University of British Columbia.
- Slater, T. & Gleason, J. (2011). Integrating language and content: The knowledge framework. Saint Louis, MO: University of Saint Louis.
- Slater, T. & Mohan, B. (2010). Toward a systematic and sustained formative assessment of causal explanations in oral interactions. In A. Paran & L. Sercu. (Eds.) *Testing the Untestable in Language Education* (pp. 259—272). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Smith, J. K. (1993). After the demise of empiricism: The problem of judging social and educational inquiry. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Spielman, G. & Radnofsky, M. L. (2001). Learning language under tension: New directions from a qualitative study. *Modern Language Journal*, 85, 259—278.
- Spradley, J. P. (1979). *The ethnographic interview*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Spradley, J. (1980) *Participant Observation*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, Winston.
- Sprague, J. (2005). Feminist methodologies for critical researchers: Bridging differences. Walnut Creek, CA: Alta Mira Press.
- Stewart, A. (1998). *The ethnographer's method*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Stiegler, B. N. & Jiménez, C. J. (2007). *Hacia niveles avanzados*. Boston, MA: Thomson Heinle.
- Stracke, E. (2007). A road to understanding: A qualitative study into why learners drop out of a blended language learning environment. *ReCALL*, 19(1), 57—78.
- Strauss, A. and Corbin, J. (1990). Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Sun, Y.-C. (2009). Voice blog: An exploratory study of language learning. *Language Learning & Technology*, 13(2), 88—103.



- Swaffar, J. & Arens, K. (2005). *Remapping the foreign language curriculum: A multi-literacies approach*. New York, NY: Modern Language Association.
- Swaffar, J., Arens, K. & Byrnes, H. (1991). *Reading for meaning: An integrated approach to language learning*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Swales, J. (1990). *Genre analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In S. M. Gass & C. G. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition* (pp. 235—253). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Talmy, S. (2010). Qualitative Interviews in Applied Linguistics: From Research Instrument to Social Practice. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 30, 128—148.
- Tang, G. M. (1997). Teaching content knowledge and ESL in multicultural classrooms. In M. A. Snow & D. M. Brinton (Eds.) *The content-based classroom* (pp. 69—77). White Plains, NY: Longman.
- Taylor, T. (2009). Ten commandments for computers and composition. *Ward and Carpenter*, 228—242.
- Thomas, M. & Reinders, H. (2010). Task-based language learning and teaching with technology. London: Continuum.
- Thomson, S. B. Qualitative research validity. *JOAGG*, 6(1), 77—82.
- Thorne, S. L. & Black, R. W. (2007). Language and literacy development in computer-mediated contexts and communities. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 27, 133—160.
- US Census Bureau (2010). *Primary language spoken at home by people aged five or older*. Washington DC: Government Printing Office.
- US Department of Education (2010). Evaluation of evidence-based practices in online learning: A meta-analysis and review of online learning studies. Washington DC: Office of Planning, Evaluation, and Policy Development.
- Ushida, E. (2005). The role of students' attitudes and motivation in second language learning in online language courses. *CALICO Journal*, 21(1), 49—78.
- van Lier, L. (1996). *Interaction in the language curriculum: Awareness, autonomy, and authenticity*. London: Longman.
- van Lier, L. (2004). *The ecology and semiotics of language learning*. Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic.
- Veel, R. (1997). Learning how to mean—scientifically speaking: Apprenticeship into scientific discourse in the secondary school. In F. Christie and J. R. Martin (Eds.) *Genre and*

- institutions: Social processes in the workplace and school* (pp. 161—195). London: Continuum.
- Veel, R. (2006). The Write it Right project. In R. Whitaker, M. O'Donnell & A. McCabe (Eds.) *Language and Literacy: Functional Approaches* (pp. 67—92). London: Continuum.
- Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in society*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Warschauer, M. (1998). Online learning in sociocultural context. *Anthropology and Education Quarterly*, 21, 68—88.
- Warschauer, M. (2000). On-line learning in second language classrooms: An ethnographic study. In M. Warschauer & R. Kern (Eds.), *Network-based language teaching: Concepts and practice* (pp. 41—58). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Warschauer, M. & Healey, D. (1998). Computers and language learning: An overview. *Language Teaching*, 31, 57—71.
- Webb Boyd, P. (2008). Analyzing students' perceptions of their learning in online and hybrid first-year composition courses. *Computers and Composition*, 25(2), 224—243.
- Weiss, R. S. (1994). *Learning from Strangers: The Art and Method of Qualitative Interview Studies*. New York: The Free Press.
- Wikipedia (2012). Google Docs. Retrieved from: [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Google\\_Docs](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Google_Docs). Accessed May, 2013.
- Willis, J. (1996). A flexible framework for task-based learning. In J. Willis & D. Willis (Eds.) *Challenge and change in language teaching* (pp. 52—62). Oxford: Heinemann MacMillan.
- Winter, G. (2000). A comparative discussion of the notion of validity in qualitative and quantitative research. *The Qualitative Report*, 4(3&4). Retrieved from: <http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR4-3/winter.html>.
- Wold, K. A. (2011). Blending theories for instructional design: Creating and implementing the structure, environment, experience, and people (SEEP) model. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 24(4), 371—382.
- Wolsey, T. D. (2008). Efficacy of instructor feedback on written work in an online program. *International Journal on E-Learning*, 7(2), 311—329.
- Yang, C. C. R. (2010). Using Google Docs to facilitate collaborative writing in an English language classroom practice. *TESL-EJ*, 14(3). Retrieved from: <http://www.tesl-ej.org/wordpress/issues/volume14/ej55/ej55m1/>. Accessed May 30, 2013.

- Zapata, G. C. (2002). *Teaching assistants' perceptions and use of instructional technology in L2 Spanish classrooms*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation: The Pennsylvania State University.
- Zeungler, J. & Miller, E. R. (2006). Cognitive and sociocultural perspectives: Two parallel SLA worlds? *TESOL Quarterly*, 40(1), 35—58.
- Zhang, Y. (2009). Integrating CALL writing activities into a college level elementary Chinese class. Unpublished doctoral dissertation: Rutgers University, New Brunswick, NJ.

## APPENDICES

## Appendix A: Informed Consent Documents

## Contract Between the Researcher and the Teacher

October 13, 2012  
Ames, IA USA

## Contract [REDACTED]-Gleason

I, Jesse Gleason, agree to uphold the following contract regarding the data collection in two of Dr. [REDACTED] Spanish 301 courses in the World Languages Department at Iowa State University during the Spring semester of 2013. I will use the collected data from [REDACTED] courses to fulfill the dissertation requirement for the Ph. D. in Applied Linguistics and Technology at Iowa State University.

- 1) At all points, [REDACTED] reserves the right to end her participation in this compilation of data if she senses that it negatively interferes with her students' learning.
- 2) Only the students that accept to participate will do so. [REDACTED] will not force them to participate. They can also cancel their participation if they do not feel comfortable about it at any point.
- 3) Communication between the researcher, Jesse Gleason, and the instructor [REDACTED] is key. Jesse Gleason vows to inform [REDACTED] of every step of data to be collected prior to its collection. She will also inform [REDACTED] of the time and format of the collection of data. [REDACTED] reserves the right to approve every step that has to deal with her students.
- 4) The researcher, Jesse Gleason, will tell [REDACTED] in advance if she plans to make an administrative request, or to have a dialogue with other faculty and administrators involving [REDACTED] classes. If at any point [REDACTED] considers that she has not been appropriately informed, she reserves the right to cancel her participation in this project.

Signed: JM Gleason

Date: Oct. 13, 2012

## Student Informed Consent Document

### INFORMED CONSENT DOCUMENT

Title of Study: The Language of Tasks and Technology in Blended Spanish Classrooms

Investigator: Jesse Gleason (jgleas@iastate.edu)

This is a research study. Please take your time in deciding if you would like to participate. Please feel free to ask questions at any time.

#### INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to look at how language students interact in the foreign language classroom. I am particularly interested in the role of technology in these practices and in understanding student and teacher attitudes about language learning in blended courses. You are being invited to participate in this study because you are enrolled in Spanish 301 at ISU. You should not participate if you are under 18 years of age and/or not affiliated with the Spanish program.

#### DESCRIPTION OF PROCEDURES

If you agree to participate, you will be asked to allow me to observe your Spanish classes throughout the spring semester 2013 as well as audio-record your interactions during various language-learning tasks. I will visit and audio-record all class meetings but it is your decision if you would like the recorder placed near you at any given time. Throughout the semester, some students will also be invited to be interviewed about their ideas and attitudes toward language learning. In addition, you will have the option of granting me access to your in-class and online assignments and test results.

You have the right to decline the invitation and/or participate in the study to varying degrees as indicated below. Please put a check (✓) in the box to indicate the degree of participation that you agree to.

- ☐ Full participation. This includes all online and face-to-face interactions, copied assignments and tests, audio-taping, and interviews.
- ☐ Stage 1 participation. This includes online and face-to-face interactions only.
- ☐ Stage 2 participation. This includes online and face-to-face interactions, and interviews.
- ☐ Stage 3 participation. This includes online and face-to-face interactions, interviews, and copies of assignments but no copies of tests.
- ☐ No participation.

#### RISKS

Your participation in this study is not likely to cause you any risk or discomfort.

#### BENEFITS

If you decide to participate in this study there may be no direct benefits to you beyond having the opportunity to include another fluent Spanish speaker in your context. However, your input about the role of technology and tasks in Spanish courses at the university level can benefit future instructors, curriculum designers, and students by providing for a deeper understanding of these aspects, as well as how to improve such courses.

#### COSTS AND COMPENSATION

You will not have any costs from participating in this study nor will you be compensated.

#### PARTICIPANT RIGHTS

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary and you may refuse to participate or leave the study at any time. If you decide to not participate in the study or leave the study early, it will not result in any penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. If you decide to be interviewed, you can skip any questions that you do not wish to answer. At no time will your grade in the course be associated with your participation or lack of in this study.

#### CONFIDENTIALITY

Records identifying participants will be kept confidential to the extent permitted by applicable laws and regulations and will not be made publicly available. However, federal government regulatory agencies, auditing departments of Iowa State University, and the Institutional Review Board (a committee that reviews and approves human subject research studies) may inspect and/or copy your records for quality assurance and data analysis. These records may contain private information.

To ensure confidentiality to the extent permitted by law, the following measures will be taken: Any risks pertaining to accidental disclosure of your identity will be minimized by removing all identifying information from my field notes, as well as from the transcripts created from any audio-recordings of observations and interviews. If you do an online task in class, I will make a transcript of your written language and then destroy the original recording of the class. I will randomly assign each person an anonymous identification number and no information about what you say or write will be shared or discussed whatsoever with anyone besides the supervising faculty member of this study. The audio-recordings of classes and interviews will be destroyed after transcripts have been made. If the results are published, you will have the option of choosing your own pseudonym so that your identity will remain confidential.

#### QUESTIONS OR PROBLEMS

You are encouraged to ask questions at any time during this study.

For further information about the study please contact Dr. Tammy Slater at 515-294-5203 or by email: [tslater@iastate.edu](mailto:tslater@iastate.edu).

If you have any questions about the rights of research subjects or research-related injury, please contact the IRB Administrator, (515) 294-4566, [IRB@iastate.edu](mailto:IRB@iastate.edu), or Director, (515) 294-3115, Office for Responsible Research, Iowa State University, Ames, Iowa 50011.

\*\*\*\*\*

#### PARTICIPANT SIGNATURE

Your signature indicates that you voluntarily agree to participate in this study, that the study has been explained to you, that you have been given the time to read the document, and that any questions you have asked have been satisfactorily answered. You will receive a copy of the written informed consent prior to your participation in the study.

Participant's Name (printed)

(Participant's Signature)

(Date)

## Appendix B: Task Classification by Interactional Pattern and Topic

**Key:**

- BG=Big group
- PW=Pair work
- 1on1= one-on-one
- WA=work along

### Culture days.

Class	Day	# Tasks	Task #		Task Type	Task Format	Task topics
5	Culture	4	1		BG	Teacher input	Expository essay
			2	a	BG	Videos	Latinos in US
				b	1on1	Writing ideas	Latinos in US
			3		PW	Brainstorming	Latinos in US
			4		BG	Teacher input/IRF	Latinos in US
8	Culture	2	1	a	BG	Teacher input	Cultural heritage
				b	BG	Videos	Cultural heritage
			2	a	PW	Sharing ideas	Cultural heritage
				b	BG	Sharing ideas	Cultural heritage
11	Culture	2	1	a	BG	Vocabulary	Cultural diversity
				b	PW	Vocabulary	Cultural diversity
			2	a	PW	Discussion	Cultural diversity
				b	BG	Discussion	Cultural diversity
14	Culture	6	1	a	PW	Homework check	Lang of the world
				b	BG	Homework check	Lang of the world
			2	a	BG	T input	Lang of the world
				b	BG	Discussion	Hypothetical scene
			3	a	PW	Discussion	Hypothetical scene
				b	BG	Discussion	Hypothetical scene
			4	a	BG	T input	Reconquista
				b	PW	Discussion	Reconquista
			5	a	PW	Discussion	Mod & Trad Spain
				b	BG	Sharing ideas	Mod & Trad Spain
19	Culture	4	1	a	BG	Videos	Immig in Madrid
				b	PW	Discussion	Immig in Madrid
			2	a	BG	Sharing ideas	Immig in Madrid
				b	PW	Discussion	Immig in Madrid
			3	a	BG	Sharing ideas	Immig in Madrid
				b	PW	Discussion	Immig in Madrid
			4	a	BG	Sharing ideas	Immig in Madrid
				b	PW	Discussion	Immig in Madrid

				b	BG	Teacher input/IRF	Literature
22	Culture	3	1	a	PW	Homework check	Hisp Lit
				b	BG	Homework check	Hisp Lit
			2	a	BG	Teacher input/IRF	Hisp Lit
			3	a	BG	Listening task	Hisp Lit
				b	BG	Discussion	Hisp Lit
25	Culture	3	1	a	BG	T input	Globalization
				b	PW	Homework check	Globalization
				c	BG	Homework check	Globalization
			2	a	PW	Homework check	Globalization
				b	BG	Homework check	Globalization
			3	a	BG	Teacher input	Globalization
				b	PW	Sharing ideas	Globalization
28	Culture	5	1	a	PW	Sharing ideas	Women & work
				b	BG	Discussion	Women & work
			2		BG	Teacher input/IRF	Women & work
			3	a	PW	Sharing ideas	Women & work
				b	BG	Discussion	Women & work
			4		BG	Teacher input/IRF	Women & work
			5	a	PW	Sharing ideas	Women & work
				b	BG	Discussion	Women & work
31	Culture	7	1	a	lonl	Videos	Women & work
				b	PW	Discussion	Women & work
				c	BG	Teacher input/IRF	Women & work
			2	a	PW	Discussion	Women & work
				b	BG	Teacher input/IRF	Women & work
			3		BG	Teacher input/IRF	Women & work
			4	a	PW	Discussion	Women & work
				b	BG	Teacher input/IRF	Women & work
			5		Bg	Teacher input/IRF	Women & work
			6		PW	Discussion	Women & work
					BG	Teacher input/IRF	Women & work
			7		BG	Teacher input/IRF	Women & work
32	Review	6	1	a	PW	Discussion	Women & work
				b	BG	Teacher input/IRF	Women & work
			2		BG	Teacher input/IRF	Women & work
			3	a	PW	Discussion	Women & work
				b	BG	Teacher input/IRF	Women & work
			4		BG	Teacher input/IRF	Women & work
			5		BG	Teacher input/IRF	Women & work
			6	a	BG	T input	Subj in time seq



				b	WA	Quia work	Subj in time seq
--	--	--	--	---	----	-----------	------------------

**Grammar days.**

Class	Day	# of tasks	Task #		Task type	Task Format	Task topics
3	Grammar	2	1		BG	Teacher input/IRF	Subj/Ser y estar
			2		WA	Quia work	Ser, Estar, Haber
6	Grammar	4	1		BG	Teacher input	Preterite/Imperfect
			2	a	lonl	Writing sentences	Preterite/Imperfect
				b	BG	Teacher feedback	Preterite/Imperfect
			3		BG	Teacher input	Preterite/Imperfect
			4		WA	Quia work	Preterite/Imperfect
9	Grammar	3	1		BG	Teacher input/IRF	Vocabulary
			2		BG	Teacher input/IRF	Subjunctive
			3		lonl	Quia work	Subjunctive
12	Grammar	2	1		BG	T input	Subj in time seq
			2	a	lonl	Writing sentences	Subj in time seq
				b	BG	Teacher feedback	Subj in time seq
15	Grammar	4	1		BG	T input	Subj: Adj clauses
			2		PW	Brainstorming	Subj: Adj clauses
			3	a	PW	Quia work	Subj: Adj clauses
				b	BG	Teacher feedback	Subj: Adj clauses
			4	a	BG	Videos	Subj: Adj clauses
				b	BG	Teacher input/IRF	Subj: Adj clauses
17	Exam review	2	1		BG	T input	Exam 1 Review
			2		BG	Teacher input/IRF	Exam 1 Review
18	Exam review	6	1		BG	Teacher input/IRF	Exam 1 Review
			2		WA	Quia work	Exam 1 Review
			3		WA	Quia work	Exam 1 Review
			4	a	lonl	Listening task	Exam 1 Review
				b	BG	Sharing ideas	Exam 1 Review
			5		WA	Quia work	Exam 1 Review
			6		WA	Quia work	Exam 1 Review
20	Grammar	3	1	a	PW	Info gap	Past subjunctive
				b	BG	Teacher feedback	Past subjunctive
			2	a	BG	Verb conjugation	Past subjunctive
				b	BG	Choral repetition	Past subjunctive
			3		PW	Quia work	Past subjunctive
23	Grammar	3	1	a	PW	Homework check	Hispanic Lit
				b	BG	Homework check	Hispanic Lit

			2		BG	T input	Si clauses
			3	a	WA	Quia work	Si clauses
				b	BG	Teacher feedback	Si clauses
26	Grammar	4	1		BG	T input	Infinitives
			2		WA	Quia work	Infinitives
			3		BG	T input	Participle/Gerund
			4		WA	Quia work	Participle/Gerund
29	Grammar	3	1	a	WA	Quia work	Complex subj
				b	BG	Teacher feedback	Complex subj
			2	a	WA	Quia work	Complex subj
				b	BG	Teacher feedback	Complex subj
			3	a	PW	Info gap	Complex subj
				b	BG	Teacher feedback	Complex subj

### Writing days.

Class	Day	# of tasks	Task #		Task type	Task Format	Task topics
2	Writing	3	1		PW	Homework check	Vocab/Description
			2	a	BG	T input	Describe/Compare
				b	BG	Videos	Describe/Compare
			3		lonl	Writing to compare	Describe/Compare
4	Writing	3	1		BG	Teacher input	Object pronouns
			2	a	PW	Quia work	Personal pronouns
				b	BG	Quia work	Personal pronouns
			3		WA	Quia work	Personal pronouns
7	Writing	1	1	a	BG	Teacher input	Summaries
				b	lonl	lonl	Summaries
10	Writing	1	1	a	BG	Writing rough draft	Essay 1: Latinos
				b	lonl	Writing rough draft	Essay 1: Latinos
13	Writing	3	1		BG	T input	Essay 1: Peer rev
			2		lonl	Student feedback	Essay 1: Peer rev
			3		PW	Sharing ideas	Essay 1: Peer rev
16	Writing	5	1		BG	T input	Essay 1: Final
			2		lonl	Student revision	Essay 1: Final
			3		BG	Teacher feedback	Essay 1: Final
			4		lonl	Teacher feedback	Essay 1: Final
			5		lonl	Student revision	Essay 1: Final
21	Writing	3	1		BG	T input	Argumentation
			2	a	PW	Homework check	Argumentation
				b	BG	Teacher input/IRF	Argumentation

			3	a	lonl	Brainstorming	Argumentation
				b	BG	Sharing ideas	Argumentation
24	Writing	1	1	a	BG	T input	Essay 2: Draft
				b	lonl	Student revision	Essay 2: Draft
27	Writing	2	1		WA	Quia work	Participle/Gerund
			2	a	BG	T input	Essay 2: Peer rev
				b	lonl	Student feedback	Essay 2: Peer rev
30	Writing	2	1		BG	T input	Essay 2: Final
			2		lonl	Teacher feedback	Essay 2: Final
34	Final project	1	1	a	BG	T input	Finding sources
				b	lonl	Student revision	Finding sources
35	Final project	1	1	a	BG	T input	Finding sources
				b	lonl	Student revision	Finding sources
36	Final project	1	1	a	BG	T input	Taking notes
				b	lonl	Student revision	Taking notes
37	Final project	1	1	a	BG	T input	Annotated bib
				b	lonl	Student revision	Annotated bib
38	Final project	3	1		BG	Teacher input/IRF	Thesis statement
			2	a	PW	Sharing ideas	Thesis statement
				b	BG	Teacher feedback	Thesis statement
				c	PW	Sharing ideas	Thesis statement
				d	BG	Teacher feedback	Thesis statement
				e	PW	Sharing ideas	Thesis statement
				f	BG	Teacher feedback	Thesis statement
				g	PW	Sharing ideas	Thesis statement
				h	BG	Teacher feedback	Thesis statement
				i	BG	Teacher feedback	Thesis statement
				j	PW	Sharing ideas	Thesis statement
				k	BG	Teacher feedback	Thesis statement
			3		lonl	Student revision	Thesis statement
39	Final project	5	1		BG	T input	Sentence outline
			2	a	BG	Teacher feedback	Sentence outline
				b	BG	Teacher feedback	Sentence outline
			3		lonl	Student revision	Sentence outline
			4		BG	Teacher feedback	Sentence outline
			5		lonl	Student revision	Sentence outline
40	Final project	2	1		BG	T input	Rough draft
			2		lonl	Student revision	Rough draft

## Appendix C: Task Transcripts

### Culture BG task transcript.

Teacher reads question from Hacia: ‘¿Cómo afecta la situación económica de una persona a su manera de entender y expresar su cultura? ¿Pueden pensar en ejemplos de cómo la cultura puede ser diferente para personas de diferentes grupos socioeconómicos?’

Teacher: Les voy a pedir chicos que mientras Uds. piensen en su respuesta, se imaginen por ejemplo como una trabajadora doméstica **hablaría** de su cultura, si Uds. fueran a México, por ejemplo, o a Perú y le preguntaban a una empleada doméstica qué sabe de su cultura, ¿Qué tipo de respuesta, qué tipo de información creen Uds. que esta persona les **daría**? o piensen en una mujer con educación profesional ¿Qué tipo de respuesta recibirían Uds. de esta persona? ¿Sí? ¿Pueden imaginarse ese tipo de respuestas? Platiquen en pares sobre qué tipo de respuesta les daría cada una de estas personas

T: muy bien, entonces la pregunta es: ‘¿Cómo afecta la posición socioeconómica de una persona su manera de entender y expresar su cultura?’ Vamos a empezar por esa respuesta, ¿Cómo crees que afecta como expresas y como entiendes tu cultura dependiendo de la clase social a la cual perteneces? ... ¿Sí?

Student: La profesional probablemente tiene más tiempo y más dinero para expresar su cultura

Teacher: Okay, muy bien, disponibilidad de tiempo libre, dinero, ¿qué tiene... cuál es la relación entre el dinero y expresar tu propia cultura? Tú o cualquier persona

Student: Puedes **comprar** más *cosas* como, I don't know, *artesanías* o *cosas* así que no, I don't know

T: [writing on the board] okay, muy bien, puedes **tener** un poco **más acceso a consumir bienes artísticos**

T: [writing on board] Okay, y puedes conocer más partes de tu propio país, quizás, sí, ¿qué más?

Isla: **yo creo** que la empleada doméstica sabe más de tradición de como cocinar y preparar comidas porque tuvo más comidas en casa en vez de salir a restaurantes o

T: Muy bien, entonces, tú **esperarías** que el tipo de información que te daría la empleada, *tal vez estaría basado* en lo que aprendió de su familia, ¿verdad? de su lugar de origen

### Grammar BG-PW task transcript.

#### Big group input/IRF.

##### Example 1.

Teacher: ¿por qué en la primera hay un verbo en indicativo?

Student: Primero era un *derecho* [hecho] ellos son de China y vienen de China

T: Bien

Student: El segundo fue una pregunta **por si hay alguien de China**

T: Correcto, tenemos un hecho y aquí tenemos una pregunta, **no sabemos que si hay gente con esas características en tu escuela**

##### Example 2.

Teacher: Ayúdame a completar estas frases chiquillos ‘ven a visitarnos *tan pronto como* (poder/tú)’

S: puedas

T: muy bien, ¿Por qué **subjuntivo**?

S: Porque no ha ocurrido

T: Está en el futuro ¿verdad?

#### Pair work Quia.

Student A: **en el presente** tenemos que usar **subjuntivo**

Student B: no sé, ¿estás seguro? no sé

A: ah  
 B: no es tan mal si estamos equivocados, pero  
 A: sí, yo pienso  
 B→T: tenemos una pregunta  
 T: ¿sí?  
 B: esta, si en cuanto lleguen van a tener hambre ¿está bien dicho?  
 T: está bien...  
 A: sí, solo usamos **indicativo** con ‘en cuanto’ cuando algo ha pasado  
 B: sucedió  
 A: sí, **en el pasado**

### **Grammar WA task transcript.**

#### ***Work along.***

Teacher: okay ‘veo mi vecina por esta ventana’ ¿cuál es el objeto directo?

Student: vecina

T: a mi vecina ¿sí? **now I do have an ‘a’ personal, but still the object within this sentence, the object that receives directly the action is ‘a mi vecina’ ¿sí? I’m not giving her anything, she’s not being impacted on a second level of a previous action of me giving her something or doing something for her, right? directly I’m looking at her,** how do I rewrite that, is that possible? no ¿por qué? [students are typing along with teacher, T gives more input about not being able to substitute information about place, mode, or time with a pronoun] entonces la veo por la ventana, muy bien

#### **Writing BG-PW Task Transcript**

#### ***Big group input/IRF.***

Teacher: Okay, ¿listos? ¿Qué es una tesis entonces?

Student A: El enfoque del ensayo

T: Muy bien, el enfoque del ensayo dice Ryan, ¿qué más?

Student B: conecta todo el contenido

T: Muy bien, entonces es una idea **que cuando se tome en cuenta, puede unificar** todo el contenido

#### ***Pair work sharing ideas.***

Teacher: [Reading] “La educación para las indígenas es muy limitada por muchos factores, particularmente la discriminación y el racismo hacia ellos y su situación económica” En pares, dime pros y contras de esta tesis [2 min] **¿Hay información enfocada y específica en esta tesis?** a ver, que es lo que sabemos, de qué se va a tratar este ensayo?

Student A: educación de niños

T: la educación de niños, ¿en dónde? ¿cuándo? ¿cómo?

Student B: no se sabe

T: ¿sí? necesitamos todo eso, **no está mal** pero dime más, ¿sí? qué, cómo, dónde, cuándo ¿sí? ¿por qué? por muchos factores, particularmente la discriminación y el racismo hacia ellos y su situación económica, bueno así **vas a tener un párrafo al menos de discriminación, de racismo otro y de su situación económica**

#### **Writing 1on1 transcripts.**

#### ***Teacher interview excerpt.***

Researcher: y ¿qué tipo de comentarios o retroalimentación les daba en la sala cuando tú caminabas por ahí?

Teacher: mira, era simple, pasaba y veía con ojo de águila el primer párrafo de todos... **la idea**, tenía yo que entender **su idea**, entonces yo veía que no entendía **la idea** y les decía '¿qué quieres **decir** con esto? esto no se entiende,' 'quiero **decir** esto o lo otro' y entonces yo a veces les decía 'estás **pensando** en inglés, debes **pensar** en español' cuando era muy difícil lo que trataban de expresar, yo se lo decía en español y ellos lo **parafraseaban** como lo entendían... cada persona era diferente... cada persona tenía un reto diferente... cuando les corregía a veces les decía '¿pero qué quieres **decir**?' no les decía '**está mal**,' les decía '**no se entiende**'

*Ion1: revision.*

Teacher: tú **puedes tomar** los resultados de ese estudio, las explicaciones de por qué hay más incidencia de sicopatía entre los hispanos y **puedes integrar** tu contribución va a ser ver los resultados de ese estudio con este ejemplo específico ¿sí? **dime** si es verdad o no

Student: [recasting what teacher said, what she understood of the teacher's suggestion] **entonces va a decir si lo [que] pienso es la verdad**

T: **sí** basado en este ejemplo, o **puedes dar** varios ejemplos porque tú tienes varios ejemplos, **tal vez** tú ves que este hombre tiene algunos de las características de las cuales se explican en ese estudio, **a lo mejor** Francisco tiene ciertas características y luego alguien de otro tiene otras características