

ABSTRACT

Title of Dissertation: “I’M A DUAL LANGUAGE TEACHER”:
EXAMINING TEACHERS’ IDENTITIES IN
DUAL LANGUAGE BILINGUAL
EDUCATION

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Dual language bilingual education (DLBE) seeks to promote the goals of bilingualism and biliteracy, academic achievement, and sociocultural competence, upon a foundation of critical consciousness (Howard et al., 2018; Palmer et al., 2019). Due to the unique blending of content and language instruction (Cammarata & Tedick, 2012) in these programs, DLBE teachers need specialized skills and knowledge to effectively meet the goals of the program. However, research has found that teachers in DLBE programs lack DLBE-specific training (Amanti, 2019; Cammarata & Tedick, 2012; Freeman et al., 2005; Freire & Valdez, 2017; Lachance, 2017a; Lachance, 2017b) and instead have backgrounds of mainstream or content teaching (de Jong & Barko-Alva, 2015) which would not otherwise prepare them to teach language learners. For DLBE programs to meet their goals to be equitable for MLs, qualified teachers are needed.

This dissertation study examines how teachers DLBE conceptualize their identity as language teachers within their DLBE programs, the factors that contribute to a language teacher identity, and the subsequent effect that their identity has on instruction. This qualitative, multiple case study (Yin, 2018) examines the teacher identities and pedagogies of eight DLBE teachers in two different schools and districts. Drawing on language teacher identity and professional learning frameworks, I developed a framework to guide my investigation of DLBE teacher identity (Bunch, 2013; Cammarata & Tedick, 2012; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Martin & Strom, 2016; Yazan, 2018).

Data collection included interviews with focus teachers and observations of classroom and collaborative planning meetings, triangulated with interviews with two school administrators. Findings reveal that DLBE teachers' professional identity acknowledges the distinct focus on language in DLBE contexts and displays nuanced levels of understanding of DLBE goals, especially about the roles of language and sociocultural competence in teaching. Findings also reveal the complex intersection of factors that contribute to the formation of a DLBE teacher identity, including teacher backgrounds, contextual influences of the program, and teacher beliefs. I discuss implications for research and teacher education in understanding and developing professional identity among current and future DLBE teachers.

“I’M A DUAL LANGUAGE TEACHER”: EXAMINING TEACHERS’
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by

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Table of Contents

Acknowledgements.....	iii
Table of Contents	v
List of Tables	viii
List of Figures	ix
List of Abbreviations	x
Chapter 1: Introduction	1
1.1 Purpose of the Study	1
1.1.1 Research Questions	3
1.2 Overview of Research, Practice, and Policies in DLBE	5
1.3 Definition of Key Terms	9
1.3.1 Dual language bilingual education.....	9
1.3.2 Language allocation policy	12
1.3.3 Bilingual Teacher	12
1.3.4 Dual Language Bilingual Education Teacher	13
1.3.5 DLBE Student.....	13
1.4 Search Process and Delimitations	13
Chapter 2: Review of the Literature.....	16
2.1 Review of DLBE Teachers in DLBE Programs	17
2.1.1 DLBE Teacher Preparation.....	17
2.1.2 DLBE Teachers' Practices	27
2.1.3 Team Teaching in DLBE Programs.....	32
2.2 Teacher Identity in DLBE Programs	36
2.2.1 DLBE Teachers vs. Mainstream Teachers.....	37
2.2.2 DLBE Teacher Identity	43
2.2.3 DLBE Teacher Knowledge.....	50
2.2.4 Passion/Investment	55
2.2.5 DLBE Teacher Views, Beliefs, and Ideologies	59
2.2.6 Critical Consciousness	62
2.3 Methodologies in Studies of DLBE Teachers	66
2.3.1 Case Study	67
2.3.2 Qualitative Studies.....	73
2.3.3 Ethnography and Critical Ethnography	77
2.3.4 Phenomenology.....	79
2.3.5 Grounded Theory	81
2.3.6 Mixed Methods	82
2.3.7 Summary and Implications	85
2.4 Conceptual Framework for Language Teacher Identity	86
2.4.1 Language Teacher Identity	89
2.4.2 Linguistically Responsive Teacher Identity.....	92
2.4.3 Pedagogical Language Knowledge.....	93
2.4.4 Conceptual Framework.....	95
3.1 Methodological Rationale	100
3.2 Research Design.....	104

3.2.1 Context	104
3.2.2. Participants.....	108
3.3 Data Collection	113
3.3.1 Interviews.....	115
3.3.2 Observations	117
3.3.3 Documents	118
3.4 Data Analysis	118
3.5 Positionality	123
3.6 Standards of Quality in Research.....	126
Chapter 4: Findings.....	129
4.1 RQ1: How do DLBE Teachers understand their professional identity as content and/or language teachers?	130
4.1.1 Awareness of and Focus on Language in DLBE	130
4.1.2 Understanding the Role of Language in Teaching	135
4.1.3 Sociocultural Competence: knowing vs. doing	142
4.2 RQ2: What factors contribute to the formation of language teacher identity in DLBE teachers?	147
4.2.1 Teacher Biographies	148
4.2.2 Contextual Influences	155
4.2.3 Teacher Beliefs	160
4.3 RQ3 How do teachers' understandings of their professional identity (RQ1) and factors mentioned in RQ2 shape their instructional practices?	166
4.3.1 Translanguaging/Use of Bilingualism	166
4.3.2 Language Scaffolding	170
4.3.3 Aligned Instruction Across Languages	176
4.3.4 Making Connections Across Languages.....	186
Chapter 5: Discussion	193
5.1 Discussion.....	193
DLBE Teacher Identity: Language and More	193
5.1.2 The Complex Strands that Contribute to DLBE Language Teacher Identity	199
5.1.3 Teacher Practice	203
5.2 Implications.....	205
5.2.1 Implications for Research	205
5.2.2. Implications for Teacher Education.....	206
5.3 Conclusion and Significance.....	207
Appendices.....	215
Appendix A.....	215
Appendix B	217
Appendix C	218
Appendix D.....	219
Bibliography	220

This Table of Contents is automatically generated by MS Word, linked to the Heading formats used within the Chapter text.

List of Tables

Chapter 1

Table 1.1 Search terms.

Chapter 2

Table 2.1 Studies by methodology.

Chapter 3

Table 3.1 Participants in the study.

Table 3.2 Summary of data collection and methods.

Table 3.3 Procedures for within and cross-case analysis of data.

List of Figures

Chapter 2

Figure 2.1 The Continuum of DLBE Teacher Identity

Figure 2.2 Language Teacher Identity Framework (Yazan, 2018)

Figure 2.3 Conceptual Framework for DLBE Teacher Identity

Figure 5.1 Revised Conceptual Framework for DLBE Teacher Identity

List of Abbreviations

DLBE	Dual Language Bilingual Education
ESOL	English for Speakers of Other Languages
LOTE	Language Other Than English
ML	Multilingual Learner
NDLETPS	National Dual Language Education Teacher Preparation Standards
PCK	Pedagogical Content Knowledge
PLK	Pedagogical Language Knowledge
PST	Pre-service Teacher
TWI	Two-way Immersion

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Purpose of the Study

Language education has taken many forms in the United States for multilingual learners, learners of a World Language, and for simultaneous bilinguals. Increasingly, educational programs are turning to dual language bilingual education (DLBE), an umbrella term employed to refer to a variety of programs that involve instruction delivered in two languages (Howard et al., 2018). Nationally, school districts are increasing the number of DLBE programs as they have been identified as successful in the academic achievement of multilingual learners (MLs) (Genesee et al., 2006; Thomas & Collier 2002; 2012). This increase in programs is particularly notable in geographic regions that have experienced a recent influx in Latinx and Spanish-speaking communities, such as the South and Midwest (Cervantes-Soon, 2014; Ennis et al., 2011).

The purpose of DLBE education is to be a seemingly equitable and socially just solution to language education in which ML learner students are able to maintain and sustain their home (also known as native or dominant) language and add a second language (Howard et al., 2018; Lambert & Tucker, 1972) while simultaneously learning content. DLBE teachers need specialized skills and knowledge to integrate content and language instruction and effectively meet the goals of the program (Cammarata & Tedick, 2012). However, research has found that teachers in DLBE programs lack DLBE-specific training (Amanti, 2019; Cammarata & Tedick, 2012; Freeman et al., 2005; Freire & Valdez, 2017; Lachance, 2017a, Lachance, 2017b) and

instead have backgrounds of mainstream or content teaching (de Jong & Barko-Alva, 2015; de Jong & Howard, 2009). In order for DLBE programs to meet their goals and be equitable for MLs, research is needed to better understand how to prepare qualified DLBE teachers.

The purpose of this dissertation is to continue the tradition of research on DLBE by calling attention to a subgroup within this teacher population that warrants attention: *the teachers in DLBE programs with a language allocation policy of one language, one teacher*, also known as a two-teacher model (Freire & Valdez, 2017). School districts, especially those in regions that are experiencing a rise in MLs and implementing DLBE as a response, may opt for this two-teacher model as a way to mitigate the bilingual teacher shortage and utilize the (English-speaking) teachers that already teach within the selected school, facilitating an easier transition (Choi et al., 2022). Research on this DLBE teacher population is limited and warrants further examination in how teachers within the two-teacher model understand their professional identities as language teachers, which factors contribute to a language teacher identity, and how teacher understandings and the contributing factors shape teacher practice in DLBE.

This study is significant because it examines the teachers in a DLBE model that is growing in popularity but is currently understudied, the two-teacher model. While studies exist that feature teachers in this model (Babino & Stewart, 2018; Lachance, 2017; Freire & Valdez, 2017), this study sheds light on the diverse teachers within this model and specifically examines them through the lenses of language (English language teachers and Spanish language teachers) and other contextual

factors such as the program type and district history and policy. By focusing on diverse participants within this model, this study examines how DLBE teachers understand and form their identities as language teachers and considers how factors such as language of instruction and context may influence teachers' professional identities in different ways. This study will better inform research on teacher preparation and professional development in DLBE.

This study is also significant because it will contribute to our understandings about DLBE teacher identity. Although there is a significant amount of research on mainstream teacher identity and language teacher identity, DLBE programs represent a unique context where teachers are both content and language teachers. This study explores how DLBE teachers understand their professional identities in this unique context and seeks to build onto our theoretical understanding of DLBE teacher identity.

1.1.1 Research Questions

This study seeks to illuminate our understanding of teachers and teacher identity in DLBE programs with a language allocation policy of one language, one teacher, and to illuminate gaps that future research can address. By focusing on this context, my research will have implications for the larger field of teacher education in the way that DLBE programs make language and content visible, which is a topic with which mainstream teachers are also grappling (Bunch, 2013; Lucas & Grinberg, 2008). This dissertation specifically examines the following questions:

1. How do DLBE teachers understand their professional identity as content teachers and/or language teachers?
2. What factors contribute to the formation of language teacher identity in DLBE teachers?
 - a. How do personal history, contextual influences, teacher emotions, teacher cognition, and the act of teaching language learners play a role in the formation of the DLBE teachers' professional identity?
 - b. How does teacher participation in Communities of Practice (CoP) affect the development of language teacher identity?
3. How do teachers' understandings of their professional identity (RQ1) and factors mentioned in RQ2 shape their instructional practices?

In this first chapter, I provide a brief overview of the research about teachers in DLBE, their practices, and the policies that guide DLBE programs. I then define several key terms and describe the methods and criteria I used to find the sources for the literature review. In the second chapter, I review the studies about teachers in DLBE programs, specifically through the lens of how they, if at all, examine teacher identity in the DLBE context. I outline how language teacher identity has been conceptualized and how I will be conceptualizing language teacher identity for this study. In chapter three I describe my research methodologies and data analysis for this study. In chapter four I discuss my findings. In chapter 5, I conclude with a discussion of the findings, implications for research and practice, and scholarly significance.

1.2 Overview of Research, Practice, and Policies in DLBE

In a DLBE program, students receive instruction in two languages: English and a language other than English (LOTE), also referred to as the target or program language. DLBE programs are guided by three goals, or Pillars: bilingualism and biliteracy, academic achievement, and sociocultural competence (Cervantes-Soon et al., 2017; Christian, 2011; 2016; Howard et al., 2003; 2018; Li et al., 2016; Lindholm-Leary; 2001; Palmer et al., 2019). Student composition of the classes in DLBE can vary depending on the model; from majority English-dominant speakers learning another language, majority speakers of the LOTE learning in their home or heritage language, or even speakers of other languages learning a second, third or fourth language. When programs have a mix of students from a variety of linguistic and cultural backgrounds, the rationale is that it makes language learning equitable—all students, regardless of their home language or socioeconomic status, are learning another language—and aims to establish students to be linguistic resources for one another (Howard et al., 2018).

Due to the unique blending of content and language instruction (Cammarata & Tedick, 2012), DLBE teachers need specialized skills and knowledge to effectively meet the goals of the program. Cammarata and Tedick (2012) assert that DLBE teachers must have pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1987) about both content and the language in which they are teaching. Howard et al. (2018) note that in addition to knowledge about subject matter, curriculum, technology, instruction, and assessment, “effective dual language education programs require additional teaching and staff characteristics” (p. 90); specifically, the DLBE teacher should possess the

necessary content knowledge, instructional skills, and certification or credentials in *language education* to effectively deliver content in a second language. However, many teachers in DLBE report a lack of preparation related to teaching or enacting the three Pillars of DLBE education prior to their entry into a DLBE education program (Amanti, 2019; Cammarata & Tedick, 2012; Freeman et al., 2005; Freire & Valdez, 2017).

DLBE programs have various language allocation policies. Since the language of the instruction can be divided by content area or time of day (Howard et al., 2018), DLBE program leaders can choose to staff positions bilingually or monolingually. For example, in some programs, a bilingual teacher will have the same class and teach each subject by language, such as mathematics in Spanish and science in English. Other DLBE programs will similarly divide language by subject, but designate teaching positions as Spanish or English, avoiding the difficulty in hiring fully bilingual staff and facilitating teacher hiring in areas with a bilingual teacher shortage, as well as allaying the fears that monolingual, English teachers may have of losing their jobs as DLBE programs expand across the country (Chestnut & Dimitrieska, 2018; Freire & Delavan, 2021). In order to fill the Spanish-speaking positions, many teachers are hired from Spanish-speaking countries (Boyle et al., 2015; Cervantes-Soon, 2014; Dorner et al., 2021). However, these teachers may not be prepared to work with students “from different class, race, and ethnic backgrounds, with little understanding about the United States’ complex race relations and challenges” (Cervantes-Soon, et al., 2017, p. 412) or may have been hired due to their linguistic proficiency rather than their ability or preparation to teach

language acquisition (Gironzetti & Belpoliti, 2018; Ramos, 2009). For English language teaching positions, DLBE programs hire monolingual English teachers; bilingualism is an asset but not a requirement (Cervantes-Soon et al., 2017). This leads to a school environment where students are expected to be bilingual but may not have adults who model bilingualism. Additionally, neither of these groups of teachers may have a background in language acquisition (de Jong & Barko-Alva, 2015) or teaching multilingual learners (Bunch, 2013; Daniel & Pray, 2017; de Jong & Harper, 2005; de Jong & Harper, 2008; de Jong, et al., 2015; Hilliker & Laletina, 2018; Meineke & DeVasto; 2020) which is at the core of high quality DLBE programs (Cammarata & Tedick, 2012; Howard et al., 2018).

Thus, in DLBE programs with a one language, one teacher policy, there exists a disconnect between the goals of a DLBE program (bilingualism, biliteracy, academic achievement, sociocultural competence) and the educators responsible for bringing those goals to fruition. From what research tells us, teachers in DLBE programs lack DLBE-specific preparation (Amanti, 2019; Lachance, 2017b) or come from a mainstream education background (de Jong & Barko-Alva, 2015), yet are teaching in a program that simultaneously teaches content and language (Cammarata & Tedick, 2012). In fact, in some districts, DLBE programs, specifically DLBE programs, are accepted and promoted as effective “English Learner Program Models” (Office of the State Superintendent of Education), even though their teachers may lack bilingual or ESOL certification (de Jong & Howard, 2009).

In sum, the teachers who teach in a sanctioned language program often lack preparation as language teachers, yet they are expected to teach language as part of

the goals of the program. This apparent disconnect leads to questions about the professional identity of teachers in DLBE programs and how their identity as—or not as—language teachers could potentially impact their instruction of culturally and linguistically diverse students. Therefore, research should examine how teachers identify/conceptualize their identity within their DLBE programs and the subsequent effect that their identity has on instruction. Research on language teacher identity is vast (Beauchamp; 2019; Duff & Uchida, 1997; Johnston, 1997; Kayi-Aydar, 2019; Norton, 2017; Varghese, 2017; Varghese et al., 2005; Varghese & Snyder, 2018), with some scholars calling for a specialization of language teacher identity research within the fields of immersion or second language teaching (Morgan, 2004). However, few empirical studies exist on teacher identity within DLBE programs (Cammarata & Tedick, 2012; Chestnut, 2015; Tedick & Zilmer, 2018; Varghese & Snyder, 2018), especially those with a language policy of one teacher/one language.

How scholars research identity within the field of DLBE education falls into two distinct theoretical paradigms. On the one side exists literature focused on *immersion* pedagogy, which stems from research done in French-English immersion schools that began in Canada (Lambert & Tucker, 1972). The focus resides on professional teacher identity as related to second language acquisition and the balance of content and language instruction (Cammarata & Tedick, 2012; Fortune et al., 2008; Fortune & Tedick, 2008; Pappa et al., 2021; Tedick & Zilmer, 2018). Conversely, another research tradition takes a critical stance on dual language as *bilingual education* and focuses on the complex variables in teacher identity such as language, race, culture, ethnicity, and ideologies (Cervantes; 2014; Cervantes et al., 2017;

Dorner & Cervantes-Soon, 2020; Freire et al., 2021; Henderson, 2020; Palmer et al., 2019); however much of the latter research focuses on bilingual teacher identity (Ek & Domínguez Chávez, 2015; Varghese & Snyder, 2018).

This study seeks to build on the current literature by purposefully examining a variety of teachers within DLBE programs with a policy of one language/one teacher (which will be outlined later in the participants section of Chapter 3). While scholars have noticed that DLBE teachers experience a shift in identity (Cammarata & Tedick, 2012; Lee & Tucker, 2018; Tedick & Zilmer, 2018), research has yet to examine the complexity of DLBE teachers and how different factors may influence the formation of a language teacher identity in DLBE teachers or its relation to teacher practices. The purpose of this dissertation is to continue the tradition of research on DLBE by examining teacher identities and practice in DLBE programs with a language policy of one teacher, one language.

1.3 Definition of Key Terms

1.3.1 Dual language bilingual education

Dual language is the umbrella term for a variety of programs that involve instruction delivered in two languages. The *Guiding Principles for Dual Language Education* defines *dual language* as “any program that provides literacy and content instruction to all students through two languages and that promotes bilingualism and biliteracy, grade-level academic achievement, and sociocultural competence—a term encompassing identity development, cross-cultural competence, and multicultural appreciation—for all students” (Howard et al., 2018, p. 3). As explained in the

previous section, research has been divided into two “camps” around dual language education: immersion and dual language bilingual education (DLBE). While the former focuses on immersion pedagogy and language acquisition, the latter focuses on dual language education as anchored in equity for bilingual learners, and therefore places an emphasis on *bilingual education*.

There are four types of DLBE programs, typically defined by student composition: one-way immersion, heritage language immersion, developmental (sometimes called maintenance) bilingual, and two-way immersion (Howard et al., 2018). One-way immersion programs, sometimes called foreign language immersion programs, typically have a homogenous group of students (e.g., English-speaking) who are learning a Language Other than English (LOTE), also referred to as the target or program language. In heritage language immersion programs, students from minoritized communities—such as indigenous communities in the United States—engage in language education that is designed to affirm, preserve, and value their linguistic and cultural heritage (Fortune & Tedick, 2008). Developmental, or maintenance bilingual programs are similar to heritage language programs; they are designed for a homogenous group of students with a home language other than English (e.g., Spanish), in which they receive language instruction in their first language as well as instruction in English. Two-way immersion (TWI) is the fourth type of program under the DLBE umbrella. Classes are heterogeneously composed of English-dominant speakers and “at least 30% of the students being” speakers of the program language (p. 3). The rationale behind structuring a program in this way is that it is equitable—all students, regardless of their home language or socioeconomic

status, are learning another language—and aims to establish students to be linguistic resources for one another (Howard et al., 2018). Research has also referred to TWI as dual language immersion (DLI) and two-way bilingual education (TWBE). In this paper, I will use two-way immersion to refer to these types of programs and the term dual language bilingual education (DLBE) to refer collectively to the four types of programs.

These four types of DLBE programs are meant to promote *additive bilingualism* (Lambert & Tucker, 1972), in which students can maintain, sustain, and grow their native language while also learning another language. The programs typically follow one of two models: 90/10 or 50/50 (Gomez et al., 2005). In a 90/10 model, students receive the majority of their instruction in the program language from a young age—for example, in kindergarten, 90% of the content is taught in Spanish and 10% in English (Potowski, 2004). As the students move up each year, the ratio changes to allow more instruction in English, so that by 5th grade students are receiving 50% of their content in English and 50% in the program language. In a 50/50 model, students hypothetically receive equal amounts of content instruction in each language through all grades. Depending on the location of the school, some programs have the autonomy to choose their own model, while others must follow state or district policy on DLBE programs; in Utah, for example, nearly all DLBE schools follow a 50/50 model (Freire & Delavan, 2021; Freire et al., 2021). In all these types of DLBE programs, language and content instruction occur simultaneously—the students learn the language as they are learning the content.

Therefore, teachers who teach in any one of these programs must have the knowledge and skills in order to teach both language and content.

1.3.2 Language allocation policy

The language separation policy refers to how DLBE programs choose to allocate the language of instruction. DLBE programs have various types of language allocation policies. Since the language of the instruction can be divided by content area or time of day (Howard et al., 2018), DLBE programs can choose to staff positions bilingually or monolingually. For example, in some programs, a bilingual teacher will have the same class and teach each subject by language, such as mathematics in Spanish and science in English. These programs have been called a *one-teacher model* (Freire, 2020). Other DLBE programs will similarly divide language by subject, but designate teaching positions as Spanish or English, known as a *two-teacher model* (Freire, 2020). In two-teacher models, the languages can be divided between teacher and time, i.e. a teacher will teach one class all subjects in English while their partner teacher teaches the other class all subjects in Spanish, and they switch classes by day or week. Teachers can also be departmentalized and thereby teach by both language and subject, e.g., one teacher teaches language arts and science in English, another teacher teaches language arts and math in Spanish.

1.3.3 Bilingual Teacher

In this paper, the term *bilingual teacher* will refer to a teacher who speaks more than one language (e.g., Spanish and English). Additionally, *bilingual teacher certification* or *bilingual teacher preparation* refers to programs in universities or

alternative certificate programs that provide teachers with coursework for them to be certified to teach in any bilingual setting and does not necessarily preclude a DLBE program.

1.3.4 Dual Language Bilingual Education Teacher

In this paper, the term *dual language bilingual education (DLBE) teacher* specifically refers to teachers teaching within a dual language bilingual education program. When possible, I will distinguish teachers within DLBE programs by their language of instruction by using the terms *English language teacher* or *Spanish language teacher*. When a DLBE teacher is bilingual but teaches in a program with a policy of one, language, one teacher, I will refer to them as *bilingual English teacher*, or *bilingual Spanish teacher*. This does not mean that they teach bilingually but is only a reflection of their linguistic background/proficiency.

1.3.5 DLBE Student

DLBE students refer to any students, regardless of home language, in a DLBE program. When referring to students who are learning English in addition to their home language(s), I will use the term multilingual learner (ML). When referring to students whose home language is English who are learning the partner language, I will refer to them as an L2 learner.

1.4 Search Process and Delimitations

I searched articles for this literature review in the following databases in EBSCO: ERIC, Chicano Database, and Academic Ultimate Search. I also searched in Google Scholar via the snowball method and Google Scholar's "Cited By" feature to

identify additional sources. In addition to the above databases, I reviewed the bibliographies of select articles to further identify studies that would contribute to my research questions. I used the Boolean/Phrase search mode to search terms for this review. Based on the research questions, I used the initial search terms to find articles related to dual language teachers, teacher identity, and dual language programs. I expanded the search terms with relevant synonyms, see Table 1.

Table 1.1 Search Terms

Terms Searched Using (AND) Between Each Category		
Dual Language Teacher	Dual Language Program	Teacher Identity
Immersion Teacher OR Two-Way Immersion Teacher OR Dual Language Bilingual Education Teacher OR Dual Immersion Teacher	Dual Immersion Program OR Two-Way Immersion Program OR Dual Language Bilingual Education Program	Language Teacher Identity

To select the final articles, I filtered my search and added the following criteria: 1) the paper must be published in a peer-reviewed journal or be a relevant dissertation because these represent the most rigorous scholarship, 2) the paper must be an empirical study, and 3) the paper must be written in English or Spanish, which are the two languages in which I am fluent. My search yielded over a hundred articles. After deleting the duplicates, I then read the abstracts to determine whether the articles referred to or included aspects of DLBE teacher identity, language teacher identity, DLBE teachers, or DLBE immersion programs. I included articles that featured pre-service or in-service teachers in DLBE immersion programs,

specifically focusing on DLBE programs with a two-teacher model. I attempted to include articles with both English language and Spanish language teachers in DLBE; however, the teachers' language background was not always reported, and some papers included DLBE programs with a different program language, such as Chinese or Korean. Regarding pre-service teachers, I included articles that focused on pre-service teachers in bilingual certification programs and pre-service teachers in general teacher preparation programs who had placements (student teaching or professional) in DLBE programs.

Chapter 2: Review of the Literature

In this chapter, I bring together several bodies of literature to examine DLBE teachers and teacher identity in DLBE programs with a two-teacher model. In the first section, I discuss the literature on DLBE teacher preparation, DLBE teachers in two-teacher models, and team teaching in DLBE programs. I include these bodies of literature for two reasons: first, because DLBE research in two-teacher models is lacking, and this is somewhat of a presentation of “everything we know so far within this specific context.” The second reason is to illustrate the connection between the preparation that DLBE teachers have received and the practices of DLBE teachers in their classrooms. I will also address the nascent literature on team teaching in two-teacher models (another sorely understudied aspect of DLBE research). In the second section, I will review the existing studies on teacher identity in DLBE programs, including studies that address various components within teacher identity, such as knowledge, beliefs, and critical consciousness. I will then explain and critique the various methodologies used to examine DLBE teachers in programs with a two-teacher model. Finally, I will present conceptualizations of language teacher identity (Yazan, 2018), linguistically responsive teacher identity (Martin & Strom, 2016), pedagogical language knowledge (Bunch, 2013), and outline my conceptual framework.

2.1 Review of DLBE Teachers in DLBE Programs

2.1.1 DLBE Teacher Preparation

An essential part of understanding how DLBE teachers identify is to review the literature on their preparation. Research has found that teachers in DLBE programs lack DLBE-specific training (Amanti, 2019; Cammarata & Tedick, 2012; Freeman et al., 2005; Freire & Valdez, 2017; Lachance, 2017a, Lachance, 2017b) or even ESOL training (de Jong & Howard, 2009); instead, they may have backgrounds of mainstream or content teaching (Chestnut & Dimitrieska, 2018; de Jong & Barko-Alva, 2015). Research has also found that teachers, pre-service teachers, and administrators have identified specialized coursework in DLBE methodology as important to developing DLBE teachers; these stakeholders emphasized that teaching in a DBLE setting requires a different set of skills and knowledge than in the general education classroom (Amanti, 2019; Barko-Alva, 2022; Cammarata & Tedick, 2012; Lachance, 2017a; Lachance, 2017b; Varghese & Snyder, 2018; Yeh, 2017). However, in many cases, teachers reported receiving no specialized coursework prior to teaching in immersion schools (Dennis, 2016) or stated that the coursework they did receive was not sufficient (Lachance, 2017b; Yeh, 2017; Varghese & Snyder, 2018).

The availability of bilingual teacher preparation or DLBE certification programs varies by state. States like California and Texas have large bilingual populations and a well-established history of bilingual education, as well as numerous bilingual teacher preparation programs that have prompted many studies (Athanasios et al., 2015; Caldas, 2021a, 2021b; Caldas et al., 2019; Caldas & Heiman, 2021; Heiman et al., 2021). Meanwhile, other states like Georgia (Amanti, 2019), Indiana

(Choi et al., 2022; Shie, 2022), and North Carolina (Cervantes-Soon, 2014; Lachance, 2017a; Lachance, 2017b) are seeing an increase in their DLBE programs (Harris, 2015); however, some states do not have the state-wide bilingual certification (Boyle et al., 2015) or sufficient bilingual teacher education programs to support the new demand for DLBE teachers (Amanti, 2019; Varghese & Snyder, 2018). Additionally, even in states with bilingual teacher certification programs, research has found that teachers still report the need for specialized professional development for teaching in the DLBE context (Franco-Fuenmayor et al., 2015).

Varghese and Snyder (2018) conducted a study of bilingual DLBE PSTs who were enrolled in an elementary education program, “but no bilingual/dual language endorsement was offered” (Varghese & Snyder, 2018, p. 150). The authors found that the pre-service teachers felt that there wasn't specific coursework or feedback related to DLBE for them. The pre-service teachers cited a lack of DLBE-specific feedback from multiple stakeholders: professors, instructional coaches, and mentor teachers. The director of the program acknowledged the limitations and monoglossic orientation of the general education program for DLBE pre-service teachers and sought ways to acknowledge and value the linguistic resources of the PSTs, such as through faculty professional development and integrating bilingual education information across the curriculum. However, this study showed how DLBE PSTs lack DLBE-specific training even in places where DLBE student-teaching placements are available and DLBE teachers are needed.

de Jong and Howard (2009) best captured the inequality of teacher preparation and certification within DLBE programs with a language policy of one language, one

teacher. Writing about the frequency of code-switching in DLBE (specifically TWI) classrooms, they then transitioned to the unequal expectations regarding certification in Spanish language teachers vs. English language teachers. First, they found that code-switching happened more frequently in partner language instruction than in English language instruction due to English language teachers not being required to be bilingual.

Moreover, whereas Spanish language teachers are expected to have a bilingual or second language certification, the same requirement (and hence skill to teach second language learners) is not always made of English language teachers. In the CAL/CREDE study, a survey of the teachers in the 11 participating programmes found that only 38% of English-only teachers had a bilingual or ESL certification, as compared to 76% of the bilingual or Spanish-only teachers. (p 87).

In other words, DLBE programs are hiring teachers with little or no background in language education to teach in a program that is dedicated to language learning, which ultimately “compromise opportunities to achieve the goals of bilingualism and biliteracy in TWI” (p. 87). This unequal representation of certification requirements underscores the need to closely examine teachers in DLBE programs with a two-teacher model, including their previous preparation and experience as well as how they professionally identify as either content or language teachers.

One qualitative study (Freire & Valdez, 2017) explicitly named the lack of preparation of English language teachers for the unique context of teaching in a DLBE classroom. Drawing on critical sociocultural theory (Lewis & Moje, 2003), the

authors analyzed teachers' power, agency, and beliefs around sociocultural competence and implementing Culturally Relevant Pedagogy (CRP) (Ladson Billings, 1994; 2006) during a year-long professional development. The study included both bilingual and English monolingual teachers. The authors noted that teachers wanted this professional development on CRP, "as they felt they came from university teacher training programs unprepared to teach minoritized students" (p. 63). One first grade teacher, Ms. Cox, a monolingual, English language teacher in a one teacher/one language model, specifically identified the lack of preparation her literacy-based degree had given her to teach culturally and linguistically diverse students such as a lack of "cultural classes," which she only received as on-the-job professional development once she began teaching (p. 63). Although these are the only two studies that specifically note the lack of preparation of English language DLBE teachers, their findings demonstrate that adequate preparation for all DLBE teachers, including English language teachers, is extremely important. In the following studies, I outline how DLBE teacher preparation is necessary and markedly different from other types of teacher preparation programs.

Amanti (2019) studied DLBE teachers in Georgia to document the "invisible work" (p. 457) that DLBE teachers frequently engage in but often goes unnoticed or undistinguished from the work of mainstream teachers. Drawing on second wave feminist scholarship, she found that while teachers spent a large amount of time and effort translating and creating materials for their DLBE classrooms, none reported "ever having had the opportunity to enroll in a course or attend a workshop that provided them with guidelines for creating curriculum materials for the DLBE

classroom” although such opportunities would have been welcome. She concluded that the unavailability of such coursework or professional development “contributes to the perception that this type of invisible work is a natural and normal part of the work of DLBE teachers” for which special preparation is not necessary (p. 467).

In a case study of DLBE teachers in North Carolina and New Mexico (Lachance, 2017b), six participants came from a variety of teacher education programs yet still identified a need to “solidify teacher preparation with professional development programs for polishing and deepening dual language teaching skills” (p. 57). One participant stated that although she was fluent in Spanish and English and familiar with linguistics and grammar in those languages, there were specific aspects of DLBE teaching that she needed to learn, such as biliteracy and “sociocultural details,” echoing the goals of DLBE according to the Guiding Principles (Howard et al., 2018). She called this lack of preparation a “struggle” and described it as “frustrating” (p. 57). She firmly stated that, “Teachers need to come into dual language already trained. It’s not the same to just be fluent in Spanish or English or both” (p. 57). Her words reinforce that teaching in DLBE requires specific knowledge and skills beyond language proficiency, yet studies have documented principals prioritizing linguistic proficiency over certification when hiring teachers for DLBE programs (Ramos, 2009). Similarly, Lachance (2017b) found that all six participants in the study, regardless of location, stated that they needed a “broadened, more intensive focus on language acquisition with two languages and linguistic variations in languages’ literacy patterns” (p. 58).

Hood (2020) conducted a qualitative study on pre-service teachers (PSTs), in-service teachers, and administrators in two DLBE programs in Oregon. Drawing on grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003), she collected data to answer research questions around effective DLBE teacher preparation and its challenge (the author used the term TWI).

Hood (2020) found that PSTs and teachers identified linguistic proficiency and cultural competency as necessary for effective DLBE preparation. Interestingly, all the participants mentioned study abroad as “essential for growing a DLBE teacher’s language proficiency and for increasing cultural competence” and cited the need for teachers to have a “comfort level with culturally different people” (p. 136). One of the challenges of DLBE teacher preparation was the “multifaceted nature of TWI instruction” (p. 138.). Multiple participants mentioned that DLBE teachers take on “double duty” when they need to plan for English language development, Spanish language development, and content instruction. For example, three of the teachers talked about using “all the standards in both languages” for curriculum development (p. 138).

Teachers also commented on the responsibility of “assessing language skills and content knowledge,” along with “assessing and interpreting results in both languages” (p. 138). The teachers in this study were cognizant of their unique role as educators of both content and language (Cammarata & Tedick, 2012) which comes with different responsibilities and expectations than in a mainstream setting. The findings from these studies underscore the importance of and need for specialized dual language teacher preparation (Lachance, 2017b).

Even teachers with a background in ESOL assert that teaching in a dual language program requires distinct preparation (Franco-Fuenmayor et al., 2015; Lachance, 2017b). Franco-Fuenmayor et al. (2015) conducted a mixed methods study of 225 bilingual and/or ESL teachers in a school district. Although in this study all participants had some type of certification (bilingual or ESL), the authors noted that in many cases the ESL certification is completed only by “taking a test” (p. 349). Results from the study indicated that “teachers are not being provided with information about research on bilingual education and on best practices to work with culturally and linguistically diverse students” (p. 349). While the authors did not identify how many teachers in the study taught in DLBE contexts, they did note that the survey data indicated that DLBE teachers felt that district PD opportunities did not focus enough on DLBE. DLBE teachers further identified areas in which they needed to advance their knowledge, such as bilingual education research. One DLBE teacher stated that they needed “more training in our specific area. We are wasting so much time going to in-service during the year that do not have anything to do with our Dual Language program” (p. 348). This study raises questions about how much professional development DLBE teachers receive that is specific to their DLBE teaching context and not only for a mainstream teaching audience.

Other studies have noted how even DLBE-specific training can be lacking. DLBE teachers in Navejas’ (2021) qualitative study reported feeling unguided after a three-day summer workshop on alignment using *The Spanish Language Development Standards: Kindergarten - Grade 12* (WIDA, 2013) and that the workshop was ineffective. Palmer et al. (2016) examined top-down program implementation in two

new DLBE programs. A top-down implementation in DLBE education means that programmatic and instructional decisions come from the state or district, while the school itself retains or exercises little autonomy. The teachers received a three-day training in how to implement the DLBE model. In addition to being rescheduled to after the start of the school year, teachers expressed concerns about the effectiveness of the model and noted that “they received little advice for how to work with students who had low levels of second language proficiency or those who struggled with academic content” (p. 399). The lack of support from districts in regard to resources and guidelines can lead to teachers feeling unprepared to teach in DLBE programs.

There are some counterexamples in which districts or schools provide quality DLBE-specific support to teachers. Some districts require that all DLBE teachers have a specific bilingual or biliteracy certification (Knight et al., 2016). In Babino and Stewart (2018) and Babino (2015), the district provided DLBE training to all DLBE teachers. In this case study (Babino & Stewart, 2018) and in her dissertation (Babino, 2015), the authors outlined the PD that the district expected DLBE teachers to complete, which included training prior to the implementation of the DLBE programs, grade level planning retreats, as well as orientation sessions for teachers “new to dual language and basic strategy sessions for those new to working with language learners (whether they be English learners or Spanish learners)” (Babino, 2015, p. 117). Per Babino and Stewart (2018), the district expected all teachers in DLBE programs, regardless of language of instruction, to be DLBE teachers and aimed to prepare them accordingly with professional development in DLBE methodology such as bilingual theory, sheltered instruction pedagogy, and biliteracy

methods. The authors found that the teachers exhibited critical consciousness and made agentive moves to support language learners (ironically, sometimes going against district policies). The authors do not state whether there is a relationship between the district training and the teachers' subsequent agentive decision-making, however these variables do raise important questions about the role of professional development in DLBE teacher identity and decision making.

These studies illustrate how districts and schools may provide DLBE-specific professional development; however, their findings suggest that the quality of professional development should also be examined in the field on DLBE.

Finally, principals also uphold the need for specialized coursework for teachers in DLBE (Lachance, 2017a; Hood, 2020; Knight et al., 2016). Lachance (2017a) conducted a case study of two DLBE administrators and their perspectives on dual language program needs and teacher preparation. The research questions focused on what considerations administrators take when selecting teachers for their DLBE programs and recommendations for teacher preparation programs for teachers working with DLBE students. Lachance (2017a) found that administrators believed the following to be essential competencies in DLBE: academic language proficiency in L1 and L2, sociocultural importance and learner agency, demonstrated understanding of second language acquisition, and collaboration with other teachers. Findings for recommendations for DLBE teacher preparation included dual language methodologies (which ranked the highest), biliteracy development and second language acquisition (second highest, tied with extensive clinicals and specialized internships), authentic assessment, and working with parents. Similarly, Hood (2020)

found that principals reported that DLBE teachers need to be familiar with DLBE research, such as “benefits of the program model and the time it takes for the benefits to appear, so TWI teachers can ‘teach the parents the why’” (pp. 137-138). Knight et al. (2016) documented a principal’s decisions as she implemented a new DLBE program in three grades (Pre-K, Kindergarten, 1st). The district required that all DLBE teachers needed a special biliteracy credential apart from the ESL credential. In order to fulfill this requirement, the principal incorporated biliteracy certification into her “larger professional development plan” and partnered with a local university to have faculty teach “bilingual education courses on her campus that would lead to certification” (p. 38). These studies show that administrators of DLBE programs are also aware of specialized skills and knowledge that DLBE teachers should possess in order to teach DLBE students.

In this section, I reviewed the literature on teacher preparation in DLBE programs. The literature overwhelmingly states that most teachers in DLBE programs lack DLBE-specific preparation, although teaching in a DLBE-context requires specialized knowledge and skills beyond speaking the language. Districts may provide DLBE-specific training or professional development; however, results may vary whether teachers find such training effective for working with language learners. The findings from these studies point to the need for further examination of the teacher preparation and experiences of teachers in these specific DLBE programs and how they may contribute to the formation of a language teacher identity.

2.1.2 DLBE Teachers' Practices

In this section, I will review, analyze, and critique eight studies (Amrein & Peña, 2000; Babino & Stewart; 2018; Choi et al., 2022; Domke et al., 2022; Freire, 2020; Heiman & Yanes, 2019; Lee & Tucker, 2017; Palmer et al., 2016) that documented the practices of teachers and pre-service teachers in DLBE programs with a one language/one teacher policy. In this section, I do a deep dive into the literature around the teachers within this model, specifically noting what research has documented about Spanish language teachers and English language teachers, both separately and together.

I will begin with a review of three studies that addressed how teachers implemented their program's language allocation policy. Amrein and Peña (2000) authored a seminal study which is often cited when referring to language allocation in DLBE schools. Drawing on symmetry (Wheatley, 1992) as their theoretical framework, the study specifically focused on teacher practices and challenges encountered by school personnel when implementing the DLBE program. They found that in the school's program model of Spanish and English partner teachers, the English teachers were monolingual. They argued that this was actually a strength of the program, since the monolingual teachers could stay in the language of instruction and not feel tempted to translate, which they noted as happening with the bilingual, Spanish language teachers. Since the publication of this study, Amrein and Peña's original conclusion regarding the benefit of monolingual teachers to uphold the program's language allocation policy has been vigorously contested and questioned by dual language scholarship (Palmer et al., 2014; Pratt & Ernst-Slavit, 2019;

Sanchez et al., 2018), although researchers continue to heavily cite the original study as evidence of monolingual, English teachers in dual language programs.

This tension has led us to an interesting point in the field of DLBE. Many DLBE programs work to maintain the strict separation of language, many times citing the need to protect the program language from English hegemony. However, scholars are criticizing this approach as steeped in inequity regarding the language use of emergent bilinguals (Garcia, 2009), who do not naturally separate language so strictly (Grosjean, 1989; Otheguy et al., 2015). Babino and Stewart (2018) documented this tension among their teachers. Teachers in both languages recognized the limitations of the strict language allocation policy and were aware that it did not meet the needs of their students. Therefore, they pushed back on this language policy in covert ways, such as allowing students to use their L1 in English class, even though the teacher herself was not bilingual. However, such acts brought about feelings of guilt, with teachers reporting feeling “torn” about whether or not to “follow the rules” (p. 286).

Palmer et al. (2016) is one of the few studies that features team-teaching in a DLBE context and includes data from both the Spanish and English language teachers. The authors used ethnography of language policy (Hornberger & Johnson, 2007; 2011) and drew on theories of sense-making (Coburn; 2001; Weik, 1995) for its conceptual framework. The authors found that lack of support from the district regarding resources and guidelines to implement DLBE was a recurring theme throughout the study, as well as the pressure on teachers to prepare their students for standardized testing. As a result, teachers reported feeling frustrated and began modifying their instructional models to meet what they believed were priorities for

the students. At one school, teachers prioritized teaching literacy to students homogeneously in their students' dominant language, but in doing so undermined the goals of bilingualism and biliteracy in DLBE education. Meanwhile, at the other school, the teachers all but abandoned focusing on implementing the DLBE model in favor of test preparation.

The three studies above demonstrated the different ways that DLBE teachers implemented their program's language allocation policy and in what context. Amrein and Peña (2000) demonstrated the (largely contested) benefits of monolingual teachers' ability to uphold the language barrier. However, Babino and Stewart (2018)'s case study showcased teachers agentively pushing back against the language allocation, regardless of their language background, in order to meet the needs of their students. These teachers were able to make informed decisions that upheld the bilingual goals of the program. In contrast, the teachers in Palmer et al. (2016) illustrated the need for teachers in DLBE programs to have the appropriate support in order to fully implement the instructional models and fulfill the goals of the program. These findings illuminate the connection between teacher knowledge and practice while also raising questions about DLBE program language allocation policy.

DLBE teachers are supposed to teach both content and language. The National Dual Language Education Teacher Preparation Standards (NDLETPS) outline this requirement in their third standard, "Dual Language Instructional Practices and Pedagogy" (Guerrero & Lachance, 2018). Per the NDLETPS, Component 3.2 states that teacher (candidates) must demonstrate "methodologies that effectively provide language-rich instruction through the use of a wide variety of strategies, including

those that support minoritized students as well as students with special needs” (Guerrero & Lachance, 2018, p.47). Scholars have reported that teachers find it difficult to integrate content and language (Cammarata & Tedick, 2012); however recent research has begun to explore what that difficulty looks like in practice (Choi et al., 2022; Domke et al., 2022; Navejas, 2021).

In an exploratory mixed methods study, Domke et al. (2022) examined nine bilingual PSTs placed in DLBE classrooms to determine how PSTs incorporated language acquisition into their content instruction. Findings indicate that throughout their preparation program, PSTs improved their integration of language and content and attention to language. However, PSTs’ linguistic focus remained limited to vocabulary instruction, echoing themes from a previous study with in-service teachers (de Jong & Barko-Alva, 2015). PSTs also focused more on students’ receptive than expressive language development.

Choi et al. (2022) observed over 60 hours of video of teachers’ ELA lessons and used the SIOP rubric to observe instruction (Echevarría, et al., 2016) to compare the quality of sheltered content instruction of ELL teachers across DLBE and non-DLBE programs (p. 9). The teachers in the study participated in an 18-month long professional development focused on improving instruction for MLs. Like the PSTs in Domke et al. (2022), the authors found that the professional development led to improvements in the quality of sheltered ELA instruction of the participating DLBE teachers such as including more explicit learning strategies, scaffolding, and higher order questions.

Navejas (2021) examined the beliefs and practices that teachers in a DLBE program display in relation to partner language development. In the qualitative case study, Navejas examined partner language teacher beliefs and practices regarding both L2 and heritage speaker learners. Findings revealed that even partner language teachers tended to focus on content over language instruction; researchers noted instances in which the teachers ignored key opportunities for linguistic instruction in favor of teaching content. Navejas also noted that teachers made the assumption that students “learn the language itself from ‘exposure’ and grammar in terms of writing ability from instruction” (p. 77).

In de Jong and Barko-Alva (2015), the authors studied DLBE teachers who had formerly been mainstream teachers (teaching content in non-DLBE programs). They found that teachers had difficulty conceptualizing academic language and tended to focus on content vocabulary. They also found that teachers were initially unfamiliar with language objectives but became more comfortable writing them and integrating them into their lessons, although they still struggled to support the language objectives through strategies such as sentence frames. The authors also found that the English language teachers perceived language objectives as cumbersome and sentence frames as unnecessary. This distinction raises questions about why this distinction between English and Spanish teachers and language objectives existed and is worthy of future consideration. Connecting with the previous studies outlined, these findings raise questions about how districts and higher educational institutions can better prepare teachers in DLBE programs to teach culturally and linguistically diverse students.

These studies demonstrate two key themes. First, they reify the struggle that DLBE teachers face in integrating content and language instruction. Second, they show that with key supports such as teacher preparation or professional development, DLBE teachers can advance in both knowledge and practice in language instruction. What remains to be explored is the connection between DLBE teacher identity and practice.

2.1.3 Team Teaching in DLBE Programs

In DLBE programs with a two-teacher model, teachers are paired with another teacher, who teaches in the other language. Known as partner teaching or team-teaching (Palmer et al., 2016), this structure represents another area that is rarely studied in DLBE literature. Team-teaching can have a lot or a little overlap between content, depending on the program's language allocation policy. In programs where language is allocated by time (e.g., one week in Spanish, one week in English), teachers may be concurrently teaching all the same subjects. In programs where language is allocated by subject (e.g. mathematics in Spanish, science is in English), there may be less overlap, except in literacy instruction, which is typically required in both languages (Howard et al., 2018). When there is a large amount of overlap, teachers are covering the same content and must be in sync, which presumably requires some degree of co-planning. Per the NDLETPS, Component 3.1.c states that DLBE co-teachers must be able to “map instructional standards across languages to create a cohesive instructional plan that promotes biliteracy development and the transfer of learning objective” (Guerrero & Lachance, 2019, p. 46). During this review, I found evidence that illuminates the need for a closer look at partner teachers

to explore how their professional and collaborative relationship can possibly influence DLBE teacher identity.

Of the literature found, two recurrent themes arose regarding team-teaching: materials and planning. Amanti (2019) referred to both materials and curriculum development in her study of DLBE teachers in Georgia. She noted that Spanish language teachers considered how the material they developed aligned “with the instruction their students receive[d] from their English partner teacher” in order to incorporate the “same strategy” (p. 466). This example illustrates the alignment of resources that happens in DLBE programs but does not mention if the English language teacher reciprocates in their development of curriculum and materials. Additionally, the study does not mention whether this alignment happens in an intentional, collaborative space, or if it solely on the initiative of the Spanish language teacher. Amanti (2019) also noted the disparity in materials between the English and partner language classes. One teacher reported that having “an abundance of materials like in the English class” allowed English language teachers to “have more ideas on how to change lessons or differentiate.” Meanwhile, the Spanish language teacher is limited to “Bingo... because that’s all they can find in Spanish, you know?” (p. 466). As a result, Spanish language teachers feel behind the English teachers on their grade level team because of the extra time and effort they must take into creating and preparing materials themselves. The findings from this study illustrate how partner language teachers must put in extra effort to align and prepare materials with the English side, however research is needed to examine the relationship and planning that occurs between partner teachers.

The second theme that arose concerned planning in team-teaching. Knowledge of program structures and co-teaching are also essential to working in a DLBE program with a two-teacher model. In Lachance's (2017) study, a teacher outright mentioned this need, saying, “I also needed to know about co-teaching [in a 50/50 setting]” (p. 58). Tedick and Zilmer (2018) found that through PD on biliteracy, DLBE teachers learned the importance of collaboration with their partner teachers. One teacher wrote in the survey:

Designing this [biliteracy] lesson helped me see how it is possible to collaborate with my teaching partner, with whom I had not collaborated before. We have since implemented a collaboration system in our school and it has impacted both our teaching in positive ways because we are making progress towards maximizing our instruction time by building on what students are learning in each language. [survey response] (p. 287).

Lee and Tucker (2018) examined the identities of three transnational teachers teaching in DLBE programs. Lee and Tucker (2018), drawing on third space theory (Bhaba, 1990; 1994; Soja, 1996; 2009), found that while teachers' prior experiences teaching in their home countries featured little professional collaboration, they “connected professionally with colleagues through shared planning” and enjoyed “fostering relationships with peers” (p. 77). In other words, the school’s structure of a shared planning time provided a basis for DLBE to connect professionally and collaborate with their colleagues. Similarly, Knight et al. (2016) noted how an administrator, charged with implementing a brand new DLBE program, rearranged the “master schedule so that teacher-grade teams could have collaborative time

together to form inquiry-based professional learning communities” (p. 39), suggesting that some DLBE administrators recognize the importance of collaborative planning time on DLBE grade-level teams to support teaching learning.

These studies show the importance of collaboration in DLBE teacher identity development, as teachers learned to work with their partner teachers in DLBE programs to strengthen the connections in their instruction across languages. They also illustrate that partner teaching and collaboration may not be skills that teachers automatically come with in a DLBE program with a two-teacher model and teachers may need support through either PD or school structures in how to develop and enact collaborative teaching relationships to successfully teach language learners.

DLBE schools and districts may or may not provide guidance on team-teaching. In Babino (2015), the school district provided DLBE teachers with explicit planning time and structure on curriculum development in a DLBE context. During these extended planning times, grade level teams collaboratively planned standards-driven instruction that included “content and language development... for emergent bilinguals” which “also fostered instructional consistency between dual language partners” (p. 117).

However, in Palmer et al. (2016), the teachers reported that the district did not provide enough support for the implementation of a DLBE program or team-teaching. Although their study focused mostly on DLBE program implementation and fidelity, their findings included a comparison about the team-teaching relationships between third grade teams in two pilot schools and its impact on teachers' ability to make decisions. As mentioned previously, the teachers felt that the district had not provided

them with enough support to implement the DLBE program with fidelity. This lack of support in turn affected their ability to make decisions as a team.

The studies reviewed in this section represented the small field of research in team-teaching in DLBE programs. Interestingly, while there are more studies (including in this review) that feature DLBE partner teachers, their team-teaching status is only typically reported as part of the context of the study (Babino & Stewart, 2018; Chestnut, 2015; Henderson & Palmer, 2015; Palmer et al., 2016). Research has yet to explore the collaborative nature of team-teaching relationships in DLBE programs with a two-teacher model or how these relationships may influence the formation of language teacher identity in DLBE teachers.

2.2 Teacher Identity in DLBE Programs

In my review of relevant literature, I found research on teacher identity of teachers in DLBE programs with a two-teacher model to be scarce. The research on DLBE teacher identity seems to fall into two camps: immersion teacher identity as professional identity, based on self-perception and skills as a content and language teacher (Cammarata & Tedick, 2012; Fortune et al., 2008; Tedick & Zilmer, 2018) and bilingual DLBE teacher identity as it relates to critical conceptualizations of race, language, culture, and power (Lee & Tucker, 2018; Martinez Negrette, 2020; Varghese & Snyder, 2018; Wong et al., 2020). Some emerging themes in the literature are: (1) DLBE teachers are/feel distinct from mainstream teachers (connecting to the previous theme of needing specialized coursework) (Chestnut, 2015; Lee & Tucker, 2018; Martinez-Negrette, 2020; Varghese & Snyder, 2018) and

(2) within DLBE programs the teachers identify more strongly as content teachers rather than language teachers (Cammarata & Tedick, 2012; Tedick & Zilmer, 2018).

While very few studies have specifically focused on DLBE teacher identity as a whole, several studies have examined different components of teacher identity, such as teacher knowledge (Barko-Alva, 2022; de Jong & Barko-Alva, 2015; Freire & Valdez, 2017; Lucero, 2015) teacher views, beliefs, or ideologies (Freire & Valdez, 2017; Henderson, 2020; Navejas, 2021; Shie, 2022), and critical consciousness (Freire, 2020; Heiman & Yanes, 2019). Therefore, in this section, I will first review studies that explicitly talk about teacher identity and will then move into studies that address the separate components of teacher identity.

The studies in this section include teachers in a two-teacher model (Chestnut; 2015; de Jong & Barko-Alva, 2015; Navejas, 2021; Lee & Tucker, 2018; Martinez-Negrette, 2020; Shie, 2021), teachers in DLBE programs where the model is not stated, (Cammarata & Tedick, 2012; Tedick & Zilmer, 2018), and finally bilingual pre-service teachers completing their practicum in a DLBE program (Varghese & Snyder; 2018). Although my focus is on teachers in the two-teacher model, the scarcity of studies in teacher identity in DLBE programs led me to cast a larger net and I believe these studies reflect important themes and contribute to the field and our understanding of teacher identity in DLBE.

2.2.1 DLBE Teachers vs. Mainstream Teachers

The first theme about teacher identity in DLBE teachers in the literature was that DLBE teachers feel distinct from other mainstream teachers. Although that was the overlying theme, individual studies conceptualized this distinction in different

ways as well as suggesting different factors that contributed to this feeling of distinction. Chestnut (2015) examined four teachers—two Spanish language and two English language—in a DLBE program that was converting from one-way immersion to two-way immersion (which the author referred to as ‘dual immersion’). The four TWI teachers in the study were part of a district-mandated professional learning community (PLC) in which they participated alongside their colleagues who were in the one-way immersion part of the program. Drawing on theories of communities of practice (Lave, 1991; Wenger 1998). and identity theory (Burke, 2004; Smulyan, 2000; Stets & Burke, 2000), the study examined how the dual immersion teachers understood and negotiated their roles as members of a PLC working with one-way immersion teachers. They also examined how dual immersion teachers’ identities as teachers were shaped by their roles and work in PLC teams. All three of Chestnut’s (2015) findings related to the theme of DLBE teachers feeling different or distinct from mainstream teachers. In this case, the DLBE teachers in the dual immersion program experienced difficulty in a PLC environment with one-way immersion teachers. Chestnut (2015) found that the DLBE teachers in the dual immersion program were subordinates rather than managers of their own work, that DLBE instruction is markedly unique (and often misunderstood), and that the PLC work conflicted with DLBE teachers’ beliefs/identities. The three findings focused heavily on the Spanish language teachers. Only two mentions are made of the (monolingual) English teachers. For example, one of the monolingual, English teachers noted the difference in teaching the units in two languages and pushed back on district mandates to teach them the same way. She identified herself as a dual language

teacher and was aware of the difference between dual language and mainstream instruction. Even though she was the English teacher, her statement suggests a stronger affiliation with a DLBE identity due to her knowledge of Spanish instructional differences.

Finally, Chestnut (2015) found that the PLC work conflicted with DLBE teachers' beliefs and identities, Chestnut noted the following:

During both meetings and interviews, the participants regularly intimated that PLC requirements conflicted with their identities as dual immersion teachers who held certain beliefs about best practices for language instruction. While this theme came through in statements from all four participants, the Spanish-focused teachers expressed this more frequently and passionately (p. 348).

In this study, the author explored the intersection of PLC work and TWI teacher identity. The author found that conflict arose for the teachers between the requirements of the PLC and their beliefs about best practices for the language instruction of their students. These findings are significant because they once again highlight the unique context of DLBE education and the challenges teachers face, including within their own schools, when trying to implement a successful DLBE teaching program. However, of the findings that directly discussed teaching in a DLBE context, the majority of the data shown focused on the Spanish language teachers. More research is needed to examine the identities of English language teachers in DLBE programs. Additionally, the findings from this study illustrate the importance of professional development and professional learning communities that

meet the distinct needs of teaching in a DLBE context, which are explored more in the following studies.

Babino and Stewart (2018) also documented how DLBE teachers were considered different, however in this case the label came from the district's expectations of teachers in its DLBE programs:

All Spanish-medium teachers identify as bilingual, and all English-medium teachers identify as monolingual; however, both bilingual, Spanish-medium teachers and monolingual, English-medium teachers are considered DLBE teachers in this school district (p. 280).

I found this quote very interesting, as it counters how some districts only consider the program language teachers to be DLBE teachers (Martin-Beltran et al., under review). In contrast, this district considers all teachers in DLBE programs to be DLBE teachers and therefore requires training regardless of instructional language. That distinction plus the district's investment in DLBE teachers training led the teachers to making agentive moves in the best interests of their students, sometimes going against school policy of strict language separation and allowing students to use their L1. As Michelle, an English-medium teacher, said, "It's just we've got a model that's not working for us" (p. 285). This quote shows that teachers of both languages demonstrated an awareness of the specific needs of their students in a DLBE environment. Although the authors do not pursue the line of inquiry further, I see connections between the district firmly establishing the English language and Spanish language teachers as DLBE teachers and as a result the teachers strongly identified as DLBE teachers to the point of becoming agents and advocates for their students.

Although the authors do not make that connection explicit, this is something that I sought to explore in my dissertation study.

Cammarata and Tedick (2012) found that teachers faced external challenges in their attempt to integrate content and language instruction, such as “lack of planning and instructional time, lack of resources, district expectations for content coverage, and lack of accountability for language acquisition” (p. 258) (Amanti, 2019; Hood, 2020; Palmer et al., 2016) and that teachers reported a growing sense of isolation in their work as immersion teachers, compared to the mainstream teachers at their school (Amanti, 2019; Martinez-Negrette, 2020).

Drawing upon the theoretical framework of raciolinguistics (Flores & Rosa, 2015), Martinez-Negrette (2020) examined the interactions and dynamics between the teachers and students in the classroom and other locations throughout the school. The ethnographic case study reports on the findings of a year-long study that Martinez-Negrette completed in a kindergarten classroom, The Bears, in its inaugural year as a dual language program.

The findings of the study illuminated the language practices and interactions of the various actors in the class (the two kindergarten teachers and students) and the school community (other teachers and support staff) and how they are intertwined with social constructions. The author found that although the school was implementing a dual language program, the greater school community Otherized the language of Spanish, and by extension the Spanish teacher, due to the Spanish language’s association with race (raciolinguistics). The focal students viewed these interactions, internalized the messages about language and race, and acted upon them.

The author supported her argument in her findings with various interactions between Ms. Gabby, the Spanish teacher, and other (English-speaking) staff members. For example, Ms. Gabby, the Spanish teacher, requested Spanish music as the cafeteria lunchtime playlist (a routine part of the school culture). She brought a Spanish music CD and asked her English language partner teacher, Ms. Nancy, to make the request. A support staff member soundly and publicly denied her request, stating “No, this is an English space, Spanish is in her classroom” (p. 8).

This is the only part of the study that featured the English language partner teacher. Here, Ms. Gabby, the Spanish language teacher, utilized her English partner teacher as the intermediary to make the original request, perhaps recognizing the ‘power’ her partner teacher wielded as a teacher of English. Ms. Nancy, her partner teacher, supported her as well as the vision of the bilingual vision of the program by making the request and her subsequent reaction of “This is a communal space!” She once again demonstrated her potential power as well by declaring she would buy a Spanish CD herself and ask the cafeteria worker to play it. This interaction demonstrates the importance of teacher identity and agency when implementing a DLBE program.

These interactions demonstrate how teachers can react to schools implementing DLBE programs. As Chestnut and Dmitrieska (2018) noted, monolingual English teachers may feel threatened by possible job loss when schools implement DLBE programs. Although two-teacher models may help to alleviate some of that fear by allowing job retention for English, monolingual teachers, schools and districts need to provide all teachers in schools implementing DLBE programs

professional development around the mission and vision of DLBE in order to create a supportive and welcoming bilingual environment that supports the goals of the program. Otherwise, interactions like the one above can affect students and subvert the goals of the program, as Martinez-Negrette noted in her next finding.

Martinez-Negrette (2020) went on to argue that the students internalized the “specific ethnic and linguistic” messages (p. 11) they saw about the value of Spanish and linguistic racialization of their teacher, and remade them in their own interactions, stating things like “You don’t speak Spanish in the cafeteria” (p. 9) and “I don’t trust her [the Spanish teacher]” (p. 11). Although this study examined the implementation of a two-teacher model, the findings mostly focused on Ms. Gabby, the Spanish language teacher, and featured little of her English language partner teacher. However, even from one interaction, one can see themes such as language of power, teacher identity, and agency within a two-teacher model. These themes are worthy of examination by future research.

2.2.2 DLBE Teacher Identity

Cammarata and Tedick (2012) and Tedick and Zilmer (2018) authored studies on immersion teacher identity, specifically relating to professional identity and the integration of content and language. In their seminal study, Cammarata and Tedick (2012) used phenomenology (Husserl, 1936; 1970; Dahlberg et al., 2008) to study DLBE teachers’ lived experience with content and language integration and what it meant to the teachers.

The study participants were three immersion teachers involved in a year-long PD program. All of the teachers were considered immersion teachers, meaning they taught in the partner language. No English language teachers were in this study; however, the findings are significant to understanding DLBE teacher identity.

The authors found that teachers experienced an identity transformation during the year-long PD, in which they shifted from seeing themselves as solely content teachers to both language and content teachers. The authors emphasized that the identity of immersion teachers as both content and language teachers is “two sides of the same coin; one not being able to function without the other” (p. 258). However, this shift did not come easily and required “the need to revisit and re-shape their teaching identity” (p. 257) and “revisit one’s own beliefs regarding immersion teachers’ roles” (p. 258).

In addition to an identity transformation, Cammarata and Tedick (2012) found that immersion teachers experienced a growing sense of “awareness of interdependence of language and content” (p. 260). However, amidst this language awareness, they also experienced difficulty identifying what language to focus on in the context of content instruction. The authors maintain that this difficulty lies in the expectation that immersion teachers are “first and foremost, content teachers” and that as content teachers, they are typically “unaware of the ‘content’ of language teaching— grammatical structures, morphological rules, and so on” (p. 263). In their implications, Cammarata and Tedick (2012) criticized generic teacher programs and their inability to prepare teachers for the DLBE classroom. They claim that the teacher education programs “reinforce teachers’ view of themselves as content

teachers alone,” and lead them to “question their identity as teachers” when they are required to focus on language in their content instruction. The authors suggested that PD programs need to “target the specific needs of the immersion teacher audience” (p. 263).

Tedick and Zilmer (2018) built on the previous study by also studying immersion teachers enrolled in a PD, however this study was completed in the context of an online professional development program. Data sources in this study included a survey sent to the seventy-five teachers within the professional development program and focus groups with selected teachers. Some of the teachers in the study taught in DLBE programs with two-teacher models, although the authors do not identify their language of instruction. Tedick and Zilmer (2018) drew on the conceptual framework of communities of practice, a social theory of learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger; 1998). The community of practice in this context was the online PD for immersion teachers. The study examined which professional development experiences DLBE teachers perceived as having a positive impact on their ability to attend to language in their content teaching.

The findings of the study indicated specific features of the course assignments and activities that contributed to teachers’ professional development as DLBE teachers. The researchers organized their second finding according to Wenger’s (1998) theory of learning: practice, meaning, identity, and community. For the sake of brevity, I will focus on the findings related to identity. The authors conceptualized the realm of identity as becoming a DLBE teacher who “embraces the need to balance content and language instruction and makes it an essential part of his/her teaching” (p.

285). The authors found that teachers needed intentional, or “deliberate about attending to language and to adopt an integrated content and language identity” which takes “deep understanding, deliberate planning, careful thought, and intentionality in practice” (p. 285). In other words, becoming a DLBE teacher does not happen by accident or solely by teaching in a DLBE school.

Along with intentionality, the authors identified self-awareness and growth as related to DLBE teacher identity. The authors noted the process that happened as teachers developed their identity as content and language teachers. Teachers demonstrated more language awareness, were able to identify language needed for content teaching and write targeted language objectives, provide language-based feedback, and assess student learning.

Another theme that emerged was empowerment. The teachers spoke of experiences that had empowered them as DLBE teachers and contributed to their growing identity as DLBE teachers. These experiences included presenting at conferences, becoming teacher leaders, providing PD for their colleagues, and learning strategies that changed their teaching practices and led them to feeling empowered as a result. As the teachers learned more about integrating content and language and shared that with their colleagues, they more firmly established their own identities as DLBE teachers.

The final theme related to identity was high expectations for their learners. At the beginning of the online PD, some teachers doubted that their students “would be able to produce more language” or “learn specific grammatical concepts and improve their accuracy” (p. 287). However, as the online PD progressed, teachers began to

raise their expectations of students to “focus on both language and content,” saying that they were “absolutely capable” (p. 287).

Overall, the previous two studies (Cammarata & Tedick, 2012; Tedick & Zilmer, 2018) paint the picture of DLBE teacher identity as a process of becoming ‘language-aware,’ in which teachers traditionally prepared as content teachers learn how to integrate content and language, and ultimately see themselves as both content and language teachers. Palmer et al. (2016) and Babino and Stewart (2018) also addressed the relationship between professional teaching identity and dual language education. In Palmer et al. (2016), the authors noted how the difference in teachers’ “sense of agency, professional backgrounds, and prior experiences” (p. 409) in the two campuses affected their implementation of DLBE. For example, they noted the following about the teachers at Riverrun:

...both had prior experiences working with education researchers; both had strong professional identities as experienced educators deeply invested in the community they served, and both articulated relatively well-developed critical perspectives about the ways that the educational system disadvantaged certain students and advantaged others. Both teachers were committed to righting these wrongs and made their decisions on these bases (Palmer et al., 2016, p. 409).

The teachers’ “strong professional identities” contributed to their sense of agency to make instructional decisions based on what they thought would be best for their students, which was to modify the DLBE program and teach literacy based on students’ dominant language. Unfortunately, this decision ultimately subverted the

goals of the program. However, this finding illuminates the need to understand how teachers' professional identities can be a help or a hindrance into the implementation of a DLBE program, as well as the effect of district support and guidance. Had their district provided them with more support, perhaps the two teachers could have implemented the program more faithfully.

Finally, one study explored the identity formation of DLBE teachers. Varghese and Snyder (2018) studied four bilingual pre-service teachers completing their practicum in DLBE schools (which the authors referred to as DL). As I mentioned previously, although there is a growing body of literature on bilingual teacher preparation, few studies confirm whether the bilingual teachers become DLBE teachers. In this study, three of the four pre-service teachers, referred to as teacher candidates (TCs) in this study went on to teach in DLBE schools. Varghese and Snyder (2018) drew upon the conceptual framework of cultural models and figured worlds (Varghese, 2008; 2017; Strauss, 1992). The study investigated DLBE teacher identity development (and how it conflicts with other identities), the role of language ideologies in DLBE teacher development, and how TC's exercise agency in their work as DLBE teachers.

Three participants identified as Latinx, and one identified as a white, Mexican. All four pre-service teachers spoke Spanish but said they mostly grew up in the US with a monoglossic English education. They completed their teaching practicums in local DLBE elementary schools.

The authors found various factors that influenced the PSTs identity formation and teaching choices. The context and demands of DLBE teaching juxtaposed with

the PSTs' identities as Spanish speakers who grew up in a monoglossic English educational environment and their status as upcoming novice teachers. For example, one PST demonstrated "conflicting identities" which included "daughter, language teacher, new teacher, good teacher, and Latinx" (p. 154). Although she related strongly to the DLBE school she had been placed in, which featured a large Latinx student population, she opted to accept a full-time job in a mostly White one-way immersion school. As an aspiring teacher, she chose the immersion school due to its structure and stronger curriculum rather than stay in her placement school, where the program was being newly implemented and expanding each year. This resulted in feelings of conflict; she wanted to stay in her placement school due to her ties to the language and culture of the students, but as a novice teacher she did not have confidence in her teaching to pioneer the DLBE program at the third-grade level.

In this section, I reviewed five studies that investigated teacher identity in DLBE programs (Cammarata & Tedick, 2012; Chestnut, 2015; Tedick & Zilmer, 2018; Palmer et al., 2016; Varghese & Snyder, 2018). These studies found that teachers must develop identities as DLBE teachers (Cammarata & Tedick, 2012; Tedick & Zilmer, 2018; Varghese & Snyder, 2018) and that developing a DLBE teacher identity cannot happen solely by teaching in a DLBE program. However, these studies mostly reported bilingual teachers (Cammarata & Tedick, 2012; Tedick & Zilmer, 2018; Varghese & Snyder, 2018) rather than teachers in programs with a language policy of one language/one teacher. The one study in this section that included partner teachers focused the majority of its findings on DLBE teacher identity on the Spanish language teachers; the English language teachers were mostly

mentioned in conjunction with their role as PLC facilitators. Although research acknowledges that DLBE teachers need institutional support (Chestnut, 2015; Varghese & Snyder, 2018) through professional development (Cammarata & Tedick, 2012; Tedick & Zilmer, 2018) or prior preparation from their teacher education programs, little is known about other factors that may contribute DLBE teacher identity formation.

2.2.3 DLBE Teacher Knowledge

Teacher knowledge is a component of teacher identity that Yazan (2018) described as “the unobservable mental aspects of teachers’ work” (p. 31). In this section, I attempt to bring forth the unobservable and review studies that demonstrate what DLBE teachers know about teaching language learners in DLBE classrooms.

Standards 1 and 3 from the NDLETPS (Guerrero & Lachance, 2018) summarize the types of teacher knowledge and skills that a DLBE teacher must have. Standard 1, Component 2 states that DLBE teacher candidates should demonstrate “understanding of the theoretical nature of the acquisition and development of language, bilingualism, and biliteracy across the lifespan” (p. 24). Component 3.1.b of the NDLETPS, under Standards-based Planning, states that the DLBE candidate should be able to develop “lessons that are based on a combination of academic and language/literacy standards as well as guiding principles for sociocultural development” (p. 46). These standards indicate that DLBE teachers should have a knowledge of bilingual language development and be able to plan lessons that drive linguistic and academic development, as well as sociocultural competence, essentially, the three pillars of DLBE.

de Jong and Barko-Alva (2015) investigated DLBE teachers who had previously been mainstream teachers, which they defined as either foreign language teachers (Spanish) or regular, elementary classroom teachers (English). Drawing on a framework of constructivism (Grbich, 2007), the authors examined how DLBE teachers with a mainstream preparation background define academic language and how they integrate language development into their practice through the use of language objectives.

de Jong & Barko-Alva (2015) found “building language awareness as well as integrating language and content is part of a broader professional identity development” (p. 117). Although this study mentioned teacher identity twice, the authors did not provide much, if any, conceptualization behind the term. This study used a lens of language awareness to examine the shift between mainstream teachers which could be helpful for my own consideration of how to measure how teacher identity manifests in the dual language classroom.

They divided the findings into two parts: teachers’ initial conceptualization of academic language and their perception of it as mostly vocabulary teaching, and the practice of creating language objectives and structuring the classroom in support of those objectives.

The findings mostly reported on all DLBE teachers and did not make distinctions between English and Spanish teachers except in specific cases. In the first finding about teacher conceptualization of academic language, the authors found that the concept was unfamiliar to DLBE teachers. The teachers had difficulty describing academic language, and when prompted, linked academic language to conceptual and

vocabulary teaching. The authors note that “For most of the DLBE teachers, academic language was linked to content: the language they teach” (p. 118). The authors made no distinction between Spanish and English DLBE teachers in this finding, however the finding itself points to the need for further research around teachers’ conceptualization of their role as language teachers in the dual language classroom and what *type* of language that entails.

The second finding revolved around the identification and development of language objectives, and the organization of support of those language objectives in the classroom. The authors reported that the “emphasis on language objectives was new to teachers” (p. 118). As the professional development progressed, teachers reported that the “inclusion of language objectives positively affected their practices” and made them “more aware of what they need to actually teach the students in terms of language” (p. 118). The authors then made one distinction between English and Spanish language teachers; de Jong and Barko-Alva (2015) noted that

For teachers using English as the language of instruction in their classroom, the implementation and scaffolding of sentence frames was at times seen as unnecessary. In the workshops they often reported that they saw writing language objectives as a cumbersome additional step, despite the noted benefits. It was harder for them to see the language that needed to be taught explicitly. For those using Spanish as the language of instruction, the use of sentence frames created opportunities for academic Spanish language production for both English and Spanish speaking students (p. 119).

Finally, the authors discussed their findings around the organization of support of language objectives. Based on their survey findings, they found that teachers overall reported an “increased comfort, awareness and familiarity with integrating language objectives” (p. 119). However, from their observations, the researchers also found that “incorporating language objectives systematically into their teaching on a daily basis continues to be challenging for some teachers” (p. 120). In other words, although teachers found it easier to identify and create language objectives, they struggled with the planning and execution of activities and structures to support the teaching of the language objectives in their classrooms. As with the first finding, the authors made no distinction between Spanish and English language teachers.

This study is significant because many teachers in DLBE programs have a mainstream teaching background due to the lack of bilingual preparation programs in many states (Boyle et al., 2015) or because they are recruited internationally. The findings mostly reported on all DLBE teachers and did not make distinctions between English and Spanish teachers except in one specific case. Even so, when the authors did identify that English language teachers perceived language objectives as cumbersome and sentence frames as unnecessary, they did not explore this finding any further in their discussion, only noting “professional development for TWI teachers needs to take in consideration the differentiated contexts of teaching and learning across the two languages (de Jong & Howard, 2009)” (p. 122). Finally, in their implications, the authors focused more on implications in professional

development and teacher preparation of DLBE teachers and did not provide any avenues for further research.

Navejas (2021) noted a similar theme in her study of three Spanish language teachers in DLBE programs. She identified integration of language into content as a challenge for teachers, with one teacher even dismissing Spanish language instruction as outside of her content area and instead the responsibility of the Spanish language arts teacher. Another Spanish language teacher asked, “I just want to know exactly what to do ... Is there something specifically to teach for language?” (p. 74).

Finally, Freire and Valdez (2017) followed teachers in a year-long professional development as they learned and enacted practices around Culturally Relevant Pedagogy (CRP). The focus of this qualitative study was to capture the barriers the teachers encountered in implementing Culturally Relevant Pedagogy, a type of pedagogy developed by Gloria Ladson-Billings (1994; 2006) whose three tenants are academic achievement, cultural competence, and sociopolitical consciousness.

Drawing on critical sociocultural theory (Lewis & Moje, 2003), the authors analyzed teachers’ power, agency, and beliefs around sociocultural competence and implementing CRP. The study included eight DLBE teachers: three Latinas and five White teachers. All three Latinas and three White teachers were bilingual in English and Spanish. The other two White teachers, Ms. Cox and Ms. Nikolaidis were “monolingual English speakers” (p. 58).

The authors found that as teachers engaged in the professional development on CRP, they showed a nascent awareness of the lack of diversity in their classroom

materials and were able to make observations like “I’m pretty sure every picture is a White kid” (p. 62). This quote shows that DLBE teachers, including English language teachers, can be made aware of issues such as the lack of diversity in their classroom materials and are able to identify this as a barrier to CRP implementation.

The authors also found lack of knowledge in relation to minoritized students’ heritage and cultures as another barrier. The authors specifically identified Ms. Nikolaidis, Ms. Montes, Ms. Lee, Ms. Bell, and Ms. Davies as the source of this finding. Interestingly, all these teachers were White non-Latinas. Ms. Nikolaidis was the only monolingual English teacher in this group.

These findings demonstrate a gap in knowledge regarding minoritized students’ heritage and the implementation of CRP that seemed most prevalent in the white, English language teachers, even those who were bilingual. These findings illuminate the importance of teacher preparation and professional development in order to teach culturally and linguistically diverse students in DLBE programs.

2.2.4 Passion/Investment

In this section, I wanted to draw attention to a theme that I noticed while reviewing the literature, which I believe may be connected to DLBE teacher identity formation. In several studies, I noticed that the authors used the term ‘passion’ to describe DLBE teaching or teachers. Sometimes, the DLBE teachers used the word themselves (Hood, 2020), while other times the researchers used it to describe the teachers (Babino & Stewart, 2018; Chestnut, 2015). I provide the following examples below.

Palmer et al. (2016) noted that DLBE teachers not only experienced tension from the district regarding DLBE implementation, but also their principal. His expectations around DLBE included surface-level, environmental checklists and a “You will do it” mentality even when faced with teacher resistance (p. 405). As a result, teachers at Woodward felt a lack of agency in their decision-making skills as teachers; for the majority of the year their planning and instructional times focused on test preparation. This top-down focus alienated teachers from truly buying into the DLBE program and resulted in a shift from discussing biliteracy instruction during planning time to an almost exclusive focus on test preparation.

In Hood (2020), both the DLBE teachers and the principal cited passion as an essential disposition in DLBE teaching.

Four ISTs and the elementary school principal emphasized “the importance of passion. An elementary IST stated that “You must be passionate for language learning, have passion for kids, and fuel the passion to the learners.” A secondary IST exclaimed, “It’s a lot of work, the passion will drive you” (Hood, 2020, p. 137).

This quote actually touches upon two recurring themes from the literature; that teaching in a DLBE program is a lot of work (Amanti, 2019) and that teachers must be invested or dedicated to the goals of the program in order to “fuel the passion to the learners,” or the students. The finding suggests that being passionate about the program will lead to successful teaching in the program. However, the following two studies show how teachers’ passion can also fuel their defense when obstacles arise that can challenge the goals of the program.

Chestnut (2015) documented the teachers' feelings regarding their perceived conflict between the PLC requirements and their "beliefs about best practices for language instruction," which although stated by all teachers, was expressed "more frequently and passionately" by the Spanish language teachers (p. 348). Babino and Stewart (2018) also noted the passion of the teachers when describing the English hegemony that persisted at their research sites. They reported that "consistently sacrificing Spanish for English" was "a heated issue" about which teachers demonstrated awareness of and how it subverted DLBE program goals (p. 283). Babino and Stewart (2018) noted that, "On both campuses, English-medium teachers were just as impassioned about this issue as their Spanish-medium teaching counterparts" (p. 284). In both situations, the teachers in the DLBE programs identified the persistent obstacles that challenge their work as DLBE teachers. The teachers responded to these challenges with passion because of their "beliefs about best practices for language instruction" (Chestnut, 2015, p. 348) and their awareness of "English is the language with power" (Babino & Stewart, 2018, p. 283).

Finally, Varghese and Snyder (2018) found that bilingual DLBE PSTs closely tied their own experiences of language and language loss to their investment in teaching in a DLBE program. The authors noted that "supporting the development of Spanish (particularly for Latinx students) was intertwined with their own development as teachers" and PSTs brought their own "histories and selves to the classroom" (p. 152).

The 3 Latinx PSTs connected to the mission and vision of DLBE because of their own history of (language) loss and struggle. However, one PST, who identified

as a white, Mexican, decided not to pursue a teaching position in a DLBE program. Instead, she opted to teach in a mainstream elementary classroom. The authors noted the following juxtaposition between Jennifer and her three Latinx classmates:

It was clear that for Fernando, Elena, and Sebastián, connecting to their history and their community was their major impetus to becoming DLBE teachers. This was not as much the case for Jennifer, who was not as invested in DLBE teaching and who did not seek a DLBE teaching position. This was related to the manner in which Jennifer positioned herself and was positioned: as a White, second language speaker of Spanish (Varghese & Snyder, p. 157).

Here, authors used the words ‘impetus’ and ‘invested’ instead of passion, however the three words can be synonymous. In this study, three of the PSTs personal histories and experiences contributed to an investment in the DLBE program, however one PST’s identity and positioning precluded her feeling invested in the DLBE program and therefore she ultimately did not pursue a career in DLBE education.

In this section, I noted the role that “passion” played in some studies on DLBE research. Teachers in Hood (2020) identified passion as necessary for teaching in a DLBE program. While the teachers in that particular study were not identified by their language of instruction, other studies in which the teachers were so labeled also revealed a similar theme. Babino and Stewart (2018) noted that regardless of language of instruction, English and Spanish language teachers both felt strongly about the impingement of English hegemony on their instruction. Chestnut (2015) also noted that DLBE teachers felt strongly the pressures of English, however they reported the Spanish language teachers as protesting more often. These observations

raise questions about the links between passion, investment, and teacher identity, and how they relate to teachers fulfilling the goals of DLBE programs.

2.2.5 DLBE Teacher Views, Beliefs, and Ideologies

Yazan (2018), citing Miller (2009), noted that “teachers’ identity construction is inseparable from their thoughts, knowledge, beliefs, and activities” (p. 32).”

Therefore, in this section, I review the literature on DLBE teacher beliefs, views, and ideologies (Freire & Valdez, 2017; Henderson, 2020; Shie, 2022). Where possible, I disseminate the views of Spanish language teachers in contrast with English language teachers.

Shie (2022) examined the translinguaging views and practices of elementary school teachers in DLBE classrooms and whether there were any differences in translinguaging views and practices between bilingual native Spanish speakers, bilingual native English speakers, and nonbilingual native English speakers.

The study analyzed the participation of seven DLBE elementary school teachers enrolled in the university’s ELL licensure and/or new DLBE graduate certificate program in the Fall of 2020. Findings showed that the bilingual teachers, regardless of native language, mentioned translinguaging more often than the monolingual teachers. However, “certain monolingual teachers did take very strongly to the idea of translinguaging and related practices” (p. 1). Additionally, findings showed that while bilingual teachers would “draw more often on personal experience,” the monolingual English teachers took a more practical approach and would reflect on “how they could incorporate translinguaging strategies into the classroom in the future” (p. 1). These findings showed that, regardless of language

background, teachers may be open to bilingual practices such as translanguaging in the classroom, however their motivations may vary based on personal experience with language.

Building on Shie (2022), Varghese and Snyder (2018) found that there was a distinct connection between bilingual teacher identity and practice. The bilingual PSTs' relational identities with the children and mentor teachers extended beyond teaching Spanish and English and inspired the PSTs to make "specific agentive moves," (p. 157) like translanguaging and building cultural connections with their students. This finding is important because it highlighted the distinct connection between the personal history of the PSTs and their practice, which was to implement "opportunities that they did not experience growing up" (p. 157).

However, in Freire and Valdez's (2017) study on barriers to implementing CRP, the authors identified the barrier of teachers' belief of the inappropriateness of social justice for children. For example, the authors found that one (white, monolingual) teacher prioritized "socioemotional awareness" and "social skills," did not see the relationships between those skills and CRP and cited a concern that CRP materials "were not age appropriate" (p. 65). This study contrasts the previous two studies and demonstrates how teachers' beliefs may prevent them from teaching in a culturally responsive way to MLs.

Henderson (2020) studied language ideologies (Kroskrity, 2004) of DLBE educators in Texas. Drawing on data from a larger multi-method study, the author used the concept of the pluralist-assimilationist continuum as their theoretical

framework to “further situate and make sense of language ideologies articulated by DLBE educators” (Henderson, 2020, citing de Jong, 2013, p. 4).

Henderson (2020) studied 20 DLBE teachers, five of whom identified English as their spoken language. The five teachers were all female and ranged in teaching experience from 5 to 17 years. The researcher found that the language ideologies of the educators spread across three dimensions of the pluralist-assimilationist continuum: language status, variation, and participation. The findings were not completely dichotomous. Although Henderson (2020) gave examples of where teachers fell on the continuum, they noted that there were also instances in which the teachers exhibited multiplicity or “ideological tension,” which they defined as “contradiction or tension in a teacher’s comment about language policy, language use, or language acquisition” (p. 6).

In each of the findings, Henderson (2020) provided an overall summary of where teachers’ language ideologies occurred with the highest frequency, teacher statements illustrating each end of the continuum, and moments of ideological tension. In the first finding, language status, Henderson (2020) found that “teacher statements orienting toward a pluralist stance on bilingualism or *both languages as important* occurred with high frequencies” (p. 7, emphasis in original). In the second dimension regarding language variation, participant responses with a negative language ideology toward “non-standard language practices, including code-switching” (p. 9) occurred with high frequency, placing them at the assimilationist end of the spectrum. The author additionally noted that this teacher’s language

ideology represented semilingualism (MacSwan, 2000), a deficit perspective in which bilingual students are viewed as not being proficient in either language.

The third dimension was participation, which Henderson (2020) defined as “the role of language for the purpose of communication, cultural ties, globalization, and citizenship.” The researcher reported that “statements toward the pluralist end occurred with moderate frequency” and statements that tended toward the assimilation end occurred with low frequency (p. 11).

Henderson (2020) examined the language ideologies of DLBE teachers and found that they ranged between pluralist and assimilationist in the dimensions of language status, variation, and participation. Teachers who identified their spoken language as English featured in more of the examples of assimilationist language ideologies. These findings, along with Freire and Valdez (2017), suggest a link between English language teachers and negative views of bilingualism, which could undermine the goals of a DLBE program.

2.2.6 Critical Consciousness

The passion the teachers in the previous section exhibited came from a developing awareness of the inequalities in DLBE programs and teaching (Cervantes-Soon et al., 2017). Beyond the additional work that DLBE teachers, especially the partner language teachers undertake, they also begin to develop understandings and beliefs about the “best practices for language instruction” (Chestnut, 2015, p. 348). In many studies, these understandings and beliefs manifest in resentment or pushing back against the predominance of English and the high stakes testing culture (Babino & Stewart, 2018). Developing awareness of inequalities and challenging them is

central to *conscientizacao*, or critical consciousness (Freire, 1970). Recent scholarship (Cervantes-Soon et al., 2017; Palmer et al., 2019) has called for the addition of critical consciousness as a fourth goal in dual language education. Conceptualized by Freire (1970), he defined critical consciousness as “learning to perceive social, political, and economic contradictions, and to take action against the oppressive elements of reality.” Palmer et al. (2019) define critical consciousness in DLBE as having four components: interrogating power, historicizing schools, critically listening, and engaging with discomfort. In a recent webinar (Heiman et al., 2020), the same authors re-defined critical consciousness as acting more like a foundation to the original three pillars rather than a separate, fourth pillar. The NDLETPS include components related to critical consciousness throughout their standards but particularly focus on its execution in the fifth standard under Professionalism, Advocacy, and Agency, stating that DLBE teachers must “understand that part of their professional responsibility will be to advocate for learners and act on their behalf in order to address matters of inequities and conflicts” (p. 68).

Due to its relatively new introduction to DLBE, research on critical consciousness is burgeoning (Babino & Stewart, 2018; Dantas-Whitney & Dugan Waldschmidt, 2009; Freire, 2020; Heiman & Yanes; 2018). Earlier studies showed that white in-service teachers in DLBE programs struggled with implementing culturally relevant pedagogy, describing it as inappropriate for young children (Freire & Valdez, 2017) and pre-service teachers viewed teaching in DLBE as a non-localized, politically neutral activity (Dantas-Whitney & Dugan-Waldschmidt, 2009)

that was primarily focused on language acquisition (Dennis, 2016). Conversely, U.S.-born Latinx teachers and teacher candidates have demonstrated a developing critical consciousness that research has linked to their own personal history of marginalization and language suppression in U.S. schools and have that to guide their own approach to teaching (Arce, 2004; Briceño et al., 2018; Caldas, 2019; Varghese, 2008; Varghese & Snyder, 2018; Varghese & Stritikus, 2005).

Freire (2020) used a transformational DLBE educational framework to assess the levels of critical consciousness (which he refers to as sociopolitical consciousness) that teachers employed in their instruction over a year-long period that coincided with professional development. The teachers taught in a school with a two-teacher model in the primary grades and a bilingual one-teacher model in the upper elementary level. Drawing on Banks' (2016) levels of integration of multicultural content, he outlined the four levels as contributions, additive, transformative, and social actions (p. 61-62). The transformative and social actions levels most aligned with critical consciousness, as in the former educators engage in restructuring the curriculum to center the perspectives of minoritized communities and the latter students engage in activism by making decisions and participating in action-based projects (Banks, 2016). For this particular article, Freire (2020) created a table that noted the general teaching trajectories of all teachers in the study which included teachers from both models, while the focal teachers were all upper elementary in the one-teacher model.

Freire (2020) found that four teachers “showed growth over time” in integrating multicultural content in teaching (p. 62). For example, Ms. Cox, a

monolingual English 1st grade teacher, taught lessons that lacked any multicultural elements. In the third trimester, she taught a lesson with Level 3, transformative level elements, which Freire defines as elements that “promote critical thinking” and can “help students navigate monitored sociocultural environments and respond to cultural conflicts and social inequities” (p. 62). Although Freire (2020) did not describe the particulars of this lesson, or of any of the of the teachers in the two-teacher model, this finding shows evidence of teacher growth in implementing critically conscious instruction.

Heiman and Yanes (2018) conducted a critical ethnography of one bilingual Spanish teacher and how she taught “Spanish, love, content, not in that order” (p. 179). In this study, Michelle (the teacher and co-author) exhibited such tenets as interrogating power and critically listening. For example, she centered and elevated Spanish as a way to interrogate and re-distribute power to families who are being marginalized due to gentrification (Valdez, 2016).

Michelle also engaged in critical dialogue with her students. In one example, Michelle centered Spanish while she simultaneously engaged in a discussion around national security based on the book the class is reading. As students drew connections to their own lives, she utilized critical listening to invite students to contribute and interrogate power dynamics in the United States.

Although these two studies give clear examples of how teachers describe and enact critical consciousness in their teaching practices, more research is needed to investigate how to develop and support teachers in enacting critical consciousness in

their DLBE classrooms and communities and how critical consciousness is related to DLBE teacher identity.

2.3 Methodologies in Studies of DLBE Teachers

In this final section, I will review the methodologies used to investigate teachers in DLBE programs. Regarding methodologies, the majority of the studies in this review were qualitative in nature; only two studies used mixed methods, and none used solely quantitative methods (see Table 1). In the following subsections, I will briefly review each type of methodology used.

Table 2.1 Studies by Methodology

Methodology	# of Studies	Studies
Case Study	10	Amrein & Peña, 2000 Babino & Stewart, 2018 Chestnut, 2015 Lachance, 2017a Lachance, 2017b Lee & Tucker, 2018 Lucero, 2015 Martinez-Negrette, 2020 Navejas, 2021 Shie, 2021
Qualitative	7	Amanti, 2019 Barko-Alva, 2022 de Jong & Barko-Alva, 2015 Freire, 2020 Freire & Valdez, 2017 Henderson, 2020 Varghese & Snyder, 2018
Ethnography	1	Palmer et al., 2016
Critical Ethnography	1	Heiman & Yanes, 2018
Grounded Theory	1	Hood, 2020

Phenomenology	1	Cammarata & Tedick, 2012
Mixed Methods	4	Choi et al., 2022 Domke et al., 2022 Franco-Fuenmayor et al., 2015 Tedick & Zilmer, 2018

2.3.1 Case Study

Robert Yin, a pre-eminent scholar of case studies, defined the *case study* as “an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between the phenomenon and context are not clearly evident” (Yin, 2009, p. 18). Case studies include multiple data sources such as documents, archival records, interviews, direct observations, participants observations, and physical artifacts which researchers then triangulate as a way to ensure reliability and validity of their findings. Other features include rich description of the participants and setting so that readers can fully understand the context of the case. Case studies can also combine with other methodologies such as ethnography or phenomenology; drawing upon their methods used while remaining within the bounds of the case (Merriam, 1998). Nine studies in this review utilized case study as their method (Amrein & Peña, 2000; Babino & Stewart, 2018; Lachance, 2017a, Lachance, 2017b; Lee & Tucker, 2018; Lucero, 2015; Martinez-Negrette, 2020; Navejas; 2021; Shie, 2021).

Amrein and Peña (2000) implemented a two year-long case study of a dual language program. Data collection included documentation such as “statistical and demographic information about Leigh and Leigh’s community” (p. 4), observations in

6 classrooms in grades K-2, formal interviews with the program director, and informal interviews with a board member and teachers. The authors used an inductive approach (Erickson, 1986) in the data analysis, in which researchers “build toward theory from observations and intuitive understandings gained in the field” (Merriam, 1998, p. 7). From this wealth of data, the authors reported their findings on dual language program instruction. However, their conceptual lens of symmetry (Wheatley, 1992), reified the language separation policy that has since been vehemently questioned as a best practice in DLBE research (Pratt & Ernst-Slavit, 2019; Sanchez et al., 2018).

Shie (2022) was an undergraduate researcher who implemented and published a small case study of the translanguaging views of seven DLBE elementary school teachers in two schools in Indiana. Their sample came from teachers who were part of Purdue University’s ELL licensure program and the new DLBE Graduate Certificate program at the time (Fall 2020). Data collection consisted of participation records and documents over 2 eight-week courses. Data sources included virtual discussions boards, VoiceThread discussion boards, and course assignments. Through these methods, the researcher coded and categorized the number of mentions of translanguaging and related practices (e.g., metalanguage). Although data sources for this study were limited to documents, the preliminary findings add to the small, but growing field of research on teachers in TWI programs with a two-teacher model.

Lachance (2017a; 207b) designed two interpretive case studies that used purposeful sampling (Merriam, 1998) of participants. In interpretive research, education is thought of as a “process and school is a lived experience” (p. 4).

Purposeful sampling (Merriam, 1998) allows the researcher to “select a sample from which the most can be learned” and the researcher can select an “information-rich case” (p. 61). Lachance (2017a; 2017b) utilized selection criteria in both studies to obtain information-rich cases. In the first study, Lachance (2017a) recruited two administrators in North Carolina due to the fact that their program sites “represented dual language models with language-minority and language-majority students with the languages of instruction as Spanish and English” (p.7). The data sources included semi-structured interviews (Seidman, 1991), artifacts and documentation regarding “school setting details with DLBE learners for triangulation,” and participant observations to “view the school administrators in the content of their own environment” (p. 8). Lachance (2017a) organized the findings as two data categories connected to a “predominant thematic axis” about dual language teacher preparation (p. 9). The two categories were dual language teachers’ essential competencies and recommendations for specialized dual language teacher preparation. Both categories had “corresponding code markers,” of which Lachance (2017a) created a table with which to more easily comprehend the frequency of the codes.

In the second case study, Lachance (2017b) utilized a similar design, theoretical framework, and visual representation of findings to examine DLBE teachers in New Mexico and North Carolina. The participants consisted of six DLBE teachers selected via personal recruitment. Using purposeful sampling (Merriam, 1998), Lachance (2017b) recruited three teachers from North Carolina (where DLBE programs are nascent and increasing) and three from New Mexico (where DLBE programs have a long-established history). Both states also have a bilingual

endorsement for high school graduates. Similar to the Lachance (2017a), the author chose participants who taught in DLBE programs with both language-majority and language-minority students in English and Spanish. Programs varied by time and allotment of Spanish. The author collected data over a 12-month period. Data sources included interviews, artifacts and documents analysis, and participant observations in their classrooms for case study data triangulation (Corbin & Strauss, 2008).

Lucero (2015) conducted a qualitative case study of a team of first grade DLBE teachers over the course of a school year. The grade level team consisted of three teachers: one Spanish language teacher and two English language teachers (math and science). The primary sources of data for this study were: classroom observations, interviews, and relevant documents. Lucero (2015) made the methodological choice of observing entire units rather than individual lessons “in order to examine changes in the teachers’ instruction at the macrolevel” (p. 112).

Navejas (2021) conducted a qualitative case study of three teachers in DLBE programs. Drawing on an interaction framework (Long, 1996), they examined teacher beliefs and practices in partner language development with HL and L2 learners. Their primary data sources were surveys and interviews triangulated with observations and documents. The researcher chose to use these sources in order to “match the teachers’ reported beliefs and practice with observable practices” (p. 70). Like Lucero (2015) and Navejas (2021), I also drew on multiple sources in order to triangulate data and draw more trustworthy conclusions about teacher identity and practice.

In their case study of teachers in two schools in Texas, Babino and Stewart (2018) opted to use a sample of convenience (Merriam, 1998). A sample of

convenience is when a researcher selects based on convenience, such as “time, money, location, availability of sites or respondents, and so on” (p. 63). In this study, the first author associated with the school district as “both a bilingual teacher and a researcher” (p. 280). To avoid insider bias, the second author was included in the data analysis and writing phases of the study.

Their study was part of a larger study that examined DLBE implementation of two schools. Therefore, this study operated as an embedded single-case study; this occurs when “within a single-case... attention is also given to a subunit or subunits” (Yin, 2018, p. 51). In this study, the single case was the DLBE implementation in two schools, with each school functioning as a sub-unit. The researchers implemented data collection in two phases “so one could inform the other” 8 (p. 280). The first phase included a focus group with 4 administrators and a survey of 33 teachers. The researchers then contacted teachers who had indicated interest in the survey to engage in the second phase, which consisted of two teacher focus groups, one on each campus. In all, a total of 13 teachers participated. The authors noted the limitation of their phase two recruitment method:

By merit of self-selecting to participate in the surveys and focus groups (Robinson, 2014), participating teachers may be more invested, vocal, and/or perhaps more active in their agency as DLBE teachers when compared to other teachers at their campuses (p. 280).

The authors drew upon the focus groups and surveys in order to triangulate the data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Chestnut (2015) employed an embedded case study. In an embedded case study, multiple cases are examined within a bounded context (Yin, 2012). In this case, the research examined the experiences of four TWI teachers closely examined within the bounded context of their school setting. Data sources included observations, note taking, and audio- and videorecording of teachers and administrators.

Observations took place in a variety of settings for structured teacher collaboration, including PLC meetings, grade-level team meetings, PLC facilitator meetings, and whole-school meetings (p. 344).

The author additionally conducted semi-structured interviews and interpersonal process recall (IPR) sessions. In the latter, each watched the recording of a PLC meeting of their choice, paused the video throughout, and talked through their impressions and experiences. This case study drew on multiple sources of data; the inclusion of the IPR brought an especially nuanced angle to the data.

Lee and Tucker (2018) also conducted a multiple case study on three transnational DLBE teachers. The authors defended the choice by stating that the multiple case study approach allowed them to “understand and illustrate the complex nature of teachers’ experience with the curriculum and pedagogical practices” in their DLBE classroom settings (p. 74). Each of the participants taught on the partner language side of the DLBE program with a two-teacher model. Data sources included teacher journal entries, semi-structured teacher interviews and informal conversations, participant classroom observations, and artifacts collected over a period of five months.

Martinez-Negrette (2020) implemented a year-long ethnographic case study. Ethnography methods are employed to study “human society and culture (Merriam, 1998, p. 13). Ethnographies are typically characterized by extensive time in the field, extensive data collection, and a “sociocultural interpretation of the data” (p. 14). In this particular case, Martinez-Negrette (2020) spent over 230 hours in the field over an 8-month period. Data sources included twice-weekly participants observations in the kindergarten DLBE classroom and video-recorded full-day Spanish and English lessons twice a month “to capture the social and academic dynamics in these settings and the classroom discourse of the participants” (p. 5). Martinez-Negrette (2020) also conducted semi-structured interviews with teachers and students to “develop a comprehensive exploration of the interactions of race, ethnicity, and language in this setting” (p. 5). Therefore, Martinez-Negrette’s (2020) study included all the features of an ethnographic study within the bounded system of the DLBE kindergarten class.

2.3.2 Qualitative Studies

Another common type of study in this review was the qualitative study, which Merriam (1998) also refers to as *basic* or *generic* qualitative study. In this type of study, researchers are not aiming to understand a culture or build a grounded theory, nor are they conducting research of a “single unit or bounded system” (p. 11). Instead, the researchers “simply seek to discover and understand a phenomenon, a process, or the perspectives and worldviews of the people involved” (p. 11). Data sources typically include interviews, observations, and documents. Seven studies in this review utilized qualitative study as their method (Amanti, 2019; Barko-Alva,

2022; de Jong & Barko-Alva, 2015; Freire, 2020; Freire & Valdez, 2017; Henderson, 2020; Varghese & Snyder, 2018).

In Amanti's (2019) study on the invisible work of DLBE teachers, the researcher used the qualitative interview method "to elicit the experiences and perspectives of the participating teachers on the study topic" (p. 458) and "deepen our understanding of the complexity of the working conditions of DLBE teachers" (p. 458). Amanti (2019) drew on Marshall and Rossman (2006) to explain that in qualitative studies, "...context matters" (p. 53). Building on that argument, Amanti described the then-context of the study in Georgia, noting that there had been a recent surge in "the number of schools with DLBE programs in the state" (p. 459). To recruit participants, Amanti engaged in convenience sampling "from the network of DLBE teachers" that they already knew professionally through her work at the university and in the "... National Association for Bilingual Education" (p. 459). Amanti's (2019) selection criteria included the following: the teachers must 1) be current DLBE teachers, 2) teach in a language other than English, 3) have at least 2 years teaching in a DLBE program. Data collection consisted of a one-time interview with each teacher focused on their experiences selecting and creating curriculum materials and digital photographs of curriculum artifacts created by either the teachers or their students.

de Jong and Barko-Alva (2015) conducted a qualitative study on DLBE teachers with a mainstream teaching background. This study was conducted during 10 teacher professional development workshops and a lesson study. Data collection included interview data from eight K-2 teachers, survey data of 21 DLBE teachers,

classroom observations, and field notes during the professional development workshops. The large amount of data collected in this study ensured that the authors could fully examine and understand the language awareness exhibited by DLBE teachers with a mainstream teaching background.

Freire and Valdez (2017) and Freire (2020) examined implementation of culturally relevant pedagogy (CRP) as part of a larger, qualitative study that involved a collaborative PD program in an elementary school. While Freire and Valdez (2017) focused on teachers' stated barriers to implementing CRP, Freire (2020) explored implementation of CRP as well as DLBE teachers' developing sociopolitical consciousness. Both studies drew on data collected during the larger study.

Activities of the larger study included (a) classroom observations, (b) documents, such as teaching rubrics and questionnaires, and (c) individual and group *pláticas* (informal conversations). (Freire, 2020, p. 61)

Freire and Valdez (2017) focused the majority of their data collection and analysis on the individual and group *pláticas*, or informal conversations, and the “written L2 documents related to their CRP beliefs and practices (i.e., questionnaires, teaching rubrics, and KW charts)” (p. 58). As a methodological approach, research defines *pláticas* (Chabram-Dernersesian & De la Torre, 2008; Delgado Bernal et al., 2006) as “intimate conversations embedded in Latina/o cultural ways of knowing that allow a relaxed, comfortable pace to interactions (Freire & Valdez, 2017, p. 59). Researchers engage in *pláticas* to disrupt conventional hierarchies that can typically be present during interviews (Seidman, 1991). Freire and Valdez (2017) noted that although *pláticas* “take time,” the benefit is that they “foster *confianza* (trust) between

the two parties, allowing more elaborated answers from participants” (p. 59). This type of method is beneficial in studies when teachers may need to express vulnerability or doubts when discussing challenges in their teaching.

Freire (2020) drew on classroom observations and participants’ teaching documents as the primary data sources. The researcher video-recorded a total of 60 lessons throughout the school years, and then “conducted a content analysis on participants’ video recorded lessons” (p. 61) using Banks’ (2016) four levels of integration of multicultural content. Banks (2009) referred to teachers’ gradual progression over time as a “move from the lower to the higher levels of ethnic content integration” (p. 22). This model focuses on “teachers’ growth in both their multicultural teaching practices and their ways of integrating students’ cultures and developing sociopolitical consciousness in their teaching” (Freire, 2020, p. 61). Freire’s (2020) extensive data collection and adaptation and application of Banks’ (2016) framework provided a comprehensive analysis and presentation of teachers’ implementation of CRP.

Varghese and Snyder (2018) conducted a qualitative study using an ethnographic approach to study four bilingual pre-service teachers in a mainstream teacher education program (TEP) with placements in local DLBE schools for their student teaching internship. Due to the small sample size, there was no selection criteria. Additional participants in the program included the PSTs’ mentor teachers, university supervisors (referred to as “instructional coaches” in the study), and the director of the TEP. To align with the lengthy immersion required in ethnography, the researchers gathered data for over one year, the duration of the TEP. Data sources

included interviews, formal observations, and field notes related to participant observations. The researchers also interviewed the program director, their mentor teachers, and their university supervisors in order to triangulate the data and develop themes.

2.3.3 Ethnography and Critical Ethnography

Creswell (2007) described an ethnography as studying “the meaning of the behavior, the language, and the interaction among members of the culture-sharing group” (pp. 68-69). Merriam (1998) distinguished ethnography as “concern with the cultural context is what sets this type of study apart from other types of qualitative research” (p. 14). I have already reviewed two studies which drew on ethnographic methods during their research (Martinez-Negrette, 2020; Varghese & Snyder, 2018). Two other studies were distinctly ethnographies: Palmer et al. (2016) and Heiman and Yanes (2018).

Palmer et al. (2016) conducted an ethnography of language policy implementation (Hornberger & Johnson 2007; 2011). This study focused on 3rd-grade teaching teams at two different schools during their first year implementing a DLBE model. Data collection included observations and semi-structured interviews. The observations were extensive; researchers conducted observations of team planning meetings, classroom instruction in both English and Spanish classrooms, and DLBE and STAAR (the Texas standardized test) related trainings. Following ethnographic and qualitative norms, data analysis was conducted concurrently with data collection (Emerson et al., 1995). Each school’s data set was “thematically analyzed by more than one researcher” (Palmer et al., 2016, p. 398), a strategy used

by ethnographers to increase the validity and reliability of the findings (Goetz & LeCompte, 1984).

Another study in this review employed critical ethnography (Heiman & Yanes, 2018). Critical ethnography draws on research and theory to “critique hegemony, oppression, asymmetrical power relations, and the normalization of these structures in society, in order to potentially foster social change in direct or indirect ways” (Palmer & Caldas, 2017, p. 382). Critical ethnography and ethnography share methods: extensive field immersion, participant observation, interviews, and artifact collection, however that is, long term immersion in the field, participant observation, interviews, artifact collection, etc., to study a specific culture. However, Palmer and Caldas (2017) note that critical ethnography situates the research as an “ethical responsibility” (Heiman & Yanes, 2018, p. 176) and the researcher as being committed to changing the inequitable conditions that they illuminate in the course of their research. As such, Heiman and Yanes (2018) conducted a nine-month study on how gentrification was impacting one school’s community and TWI program. The first author was the principal researcher, and the second author was both a researcher and the focal teacher of the study. The article included a thick description of setting and participants and included a statement of researcher positionality by the first author, a white man who was also a parent of a child at the school in the study. Data sources included observations of classroom instruction and family meetings, semi-structured interviews with the focal teacher, a student, and the school principal, a transcript of a visit the focal teacher made to the first author’s undergraduate bilingual

education class, and” two student speeches at a school board meeting” (p. 179). The authors situated the study and its methodology with the following argument:

As TWBE spaces look to move beyond the three official goals, albeit laudable, to include the development of students’ critical consciousness, humanizing methodologies (Paris & Winn, 2014) that prioritize collaborative research relationships with teachers and other stakeholders should be a priority (p. 176).

As mentioned previously, one camp of DLBE research takes a critical stance on issues of language, power, and race (Cervantes-Soon et al., 2017; Dorner et al., 2021). Therefore, critical ethnography is an appropriate methodology to collaboratively study these critical issues within the settings of specific schools and communities.

2.3.4 Phenomenology

Another type of study reviewed in this paper was a phenomenological study. Merriam (1998) described the focus of a phenomenological study as being on the “essence or structure of an experience” (p. 15). Magrini (2012) summarizing the work of van Manen (1990) described phenomenology as:

A philosophical “method/practice” of observing, recording, and interpreting “lived experience” through vivid and detailed descriptions. The practice of phenomenology seeks to expose, uncover, or reveal “universal” (transcendental) elements of human existence that are instantiated within practical, “particular” empirical situations (e.g., Sartre’s Being and Nothingness) (p. 1).

Cammarata and Tedick (2012) conducted a phenomenological study of DLBE teacher experiences. They rationalized their choice of method by stating that phenomenology is “particularly well suited for exploring human experiences and the meanings human beings attribute to those experiences” (p. 255). In order to fully examine DLBE teacher experiences, the research utilized purposeful sampling to carefully select participants “who have lived the experience under study” (p. 255). Selection criteria included participants who had successfully completed the researchers’ PD program, were teaching in a DLBE school, and were open to sharing their “personal experience of attempting to balance language and content in their teaching” (p. 255). Data sources for the study included interviews and “lived experience description” (LED). Created by van Manen (1997, 2003), the LED is “a written account similar to a journal entry that aims to collect rich descriptions of people’s experiences” (p. 256). The interviews followed an open-ended protocol that utilized the LED as a jumping off point.

Interviews typically began with discussion of the LED as the springboard for additional description of the experience. Teachers were asked first to describe why they chose a particular experience to describe in the LED. They proceeded in a very dynamic manner, with questions emerging from the content of participants’ descriptions (p. 256).

Using this process, researchers were able to capture hard (written) data, and then engage in elaboration of the experience in question with a concrete point of reference.

2.3.5 Grounded Theory

Hood (2020) employed grounded theory in their study of PSTs, teachers, and administrators in a DLBE program. Founded by Glaser and Strauss (1967), grounded theory is a methodology commonly used in qualitative research in which the researcher “assumes an inductive stance and strives to derive meaning from the data” (Merriam, 1998, p. 17). Grounded theory is similar to phenomenology in that neither typically has a conceptual framework. In phenomenology, the focus is on understanding the lived experience of the participants. In grounded theory, the focus is to develop theories from the participants' knowledge and experiences (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003). Hood (2020) chose grounded theory due to the participants' contact with DLBE programs and the researcher wanted to “learn about their lived experience” (2003, p. 15). The participants in this study were three university juniors, all recently returned from a study abroad program in Ecuador who had a 72-hour field placement in DLBE classrooms. Other participants included the principals of the two DLBE programs, one at an elementary school and the other a middle school, and 10 DLBE teachers. Data collection included interviews and focus groups with the administrators and teachers, and a focus group, journal prompts, and survey (pre- and post-placement) with the PSTs. Hood (2020) analyzed the data using a coding procedure outlined by Auerbach and Silverstein (2003). In this step-by-step process, the researcher engaged in manual coding, repeating ideas, then grouping themes into “theoretical constructs” (2003, p. 67) or abstract concepts related to a theoretical framework. Finally, the researcher created a theoretical narrative using participants' voices.

2.3.6 Mixed Methods

Four studies utilized mixed methods, drawing on quantitative and qualitative methodologies to guide their research (Choi et al., 2022; Domke et al., 2022; Franco-Fuenmayor, 2015; Tedick & Zilmer, 2018). Mixed-methods research can allow researchers to “address more complicated research questions” and “collect a richer and stronger array of evidence” than solely one method can provide (Yin, 2018; p. 63). Franco-Fuenmayor et al. (2015) conducted a study in 21 elementary schools with either TWI, one-way immersion, development bilingual or ESL programs. The researchers used a convenience sample of 225 bilingual and/or ESL teachers in the district who agreed to complete the survey during an after-school professional development session. Data collection consisted of a survey with items designed for quantitative and qualitative analysis. The questionnaire was designed to “evaluate different program components by assessing teachers’ knowledge about specific areas (e.g., instructional practices for ELLs)” (p. 340). The survey consisted of items/questions on a 5-point Likert scale and two open-ended questions. After collecting the survey data, the researchers performed a factor analysis and MANOVA for the items about teachers’ knowledge, PD, and training opportunities. Finally, the open-ended responses were analyzed qualitatively. The researchers transcribed and color coded to “categorize and extract themes in regard to teachers’ PD experiences” (p. 342).

The entire data source of this study came from surveys that included both quantitative and qualitative items. In contrast, Tedick and Zilmer (2018) began their

data collection with a survey, drawing on a larger pool of participants, and from there selected a smaller sample of participants with which to conduct focus groups. Similar to Franco-Fuenmayor et al. (2015), the survey data yielded both quantitative and qualitative data. The researchers reported the quantitative data descriptively and coded the open-ended survey questions and focus group transcripts drawing from their theoretical framework, Communities of Practice (Wenger, 1998). From there they engaged in open-coding (Saldaña, 2013) and categorized the codes into relevant themes connected to their theoretical framework like practice, meaning, and identity.

Mixed-methods studies in DLBE have also relied on other ways to draw both quantitative and qualitative data. Domke et al. (2022) analyzed seventy videos of nine bilingual PSTs teaching content-area lessons in DLBE teaching placements. The authors analyzed the videos quantitatively using a researcher-created rubric for *Integrated Language and Content* and *Attention to Language*. After analyzing the videos quantitatively, they conducted a qualitative analysis of both video and transcript data by way of coding linguistic and multimodal communication to further describe PSTs' instructional moves.

Choi et al. (2022) conducted a mixed-methods study on seven DLBE teachers (two of which taught English in schools with a two-teacher model). The teachers in the study participated in an 18 month long professional development focused on improving instruction for English learners. The professional development included online coursework and group coaching for the teachers and were guided by the project's English language and literacy development framework. The primary source of data for the study was recorded videos of the teachers' ELA lessons (that were

later used during coaching sessions). Over 60 hours of videos were collected from 15 teachers (7 DLBE and 8 non-DLBE). The researchers used the SIOP rubric to observe ELA instruction (Echevarría et al., 2016) in order “to compare the quality of sheltered content instruction of ELL teachers across DLBE and non-DLBE programs” (p. 9).

One benefit of mixed-methods studies is the ability to draw from a larger pool of participants or a larger quantity of data and cast a wider net. For example, Franco-Fuenmayor et al. (2015) used a sample of 225 teachers and Tedick and Zilmer (2018) collected data from 75 teachers. From there, the choice of additional data sources (if any) determines how nuanced the findings can be. Franco-Fuenmayor et al. (2015) only drew from survey data; their qualitative data resided in the open-ended questions. In contrast, Tedick and Zilmer (2018) used both open-ended questions from the survey and focus groups as data sources for qualitative analysis. By conducting focus groups, the researchers were able to delve more deeply into some of the responses from the survey, allowing for more complex understandings of DLBE teacher identity in their study. However, it’s important to note that the type of sample used also influenced the findings. The teachers in Franco-Fuenmayor et al. (2015) completed the survey after an after-school PD session. The teachers in Tedick and Zilmer (2018) were part of an online course. The context of the sample (teachers from many different schools gathered at an after-school PD vs. teachers in an online learning community) may have also influenced the depth and nuance of their responses. In Choi et al. (2022) and Domke (2022), the number of participants was relatively small (fifteen and nine, respectively). However, the researchers’ primary

source data was video-recorded observations which resulted in a larger quantity of data for analysis.

2.3.7 Summary and Implications

In this section, I reviewed the methods used to investigate DLBE teachers and DLBE teacher identity. The majority of the studies were qualitative, with four mixed-methods studies. The qualitative studies featured a range of methodologies used in qualitative research: phenomenology, grounded theory, ethnography, case study, and basic qualitative studies. The studies drew upon a wide variety of data sources: surveys, focus groups, interviews, observations, and documentation. Two studies featured a type of data distinct to their methodology. Cammarata and Tedick (2012) utilized LEDs (van Manen; 1997, 2003) to understand the experiences of DLBE teachers. The LEDs served as a jumping off point to their next data source of conducting interviews and provided teachers the opportunity to elaborate on their experiences. Chestnut (2015) used the IPR sessions. The researcher and the teacher watched the recording of a PLC meeting of the teachers' choice, paused the video throughout, and talked through the impressions and experiences in that moment. In both studies, the LEDs and IPRs allow the researcher and the participant to access (and in the participant's case) recall specific moments that could have otherwise been forgotten and provide the researcher with an additional level of nuance in their data.

Qualitative research is an appropriate methodology for examining DLBE teacher identity. Since qualitative research seeks "to discover and understand a phenomenon, a process, or the perspectives and worldviews of the people involved"

(Merriam, 1998, p. 11), researchers can utilize these methods to explore DLBE teacher identity as a process, phenomenon, or perspective. Research can also utilize qualitative methods to examine DLBE teacher identity in practice through data collection such as observations and interviews. Mixed-methods are also appropriate, as they can draw from a larger sample for a wider scope of responses, such as understanding teacher background, while utilizing qualitative methods with a smaller sample for more depth and nuance.

Finally, several studies in this review utilized case study as their methodology. Case study is an appropriate research methodology for DLBE due to the distinct context each DLBE program has. DLBE programs vary by district and by school. The case studies in this review consisted of single-case studies (Amrein & Peña, 2000; Lachance, 2017a; Lachance, 2017b; Martinez-Negrette, 2020; Shie, 2022) and embedded single-case studies. One case study method that can be explored is multiple-case study, in which multiple cases are researched and analyzed for cross-case analysis. In the context of DLBE schools, a multiple-case study of two or more DLBE schools, for instance, could yield results around the different variables that influence and determine DLBE teacher identity, such as district guidelines, school environment and administrator expectations, and the teachers' own background and experiences with language and language education.

2.4 Conceptual Framework for Language Teacher Identity

Cammarata and Tedick (2012) found that teachers involved in their professional development for DLBE teachers often experience a transformation in identity from content to language teacher. Additional research has documented that

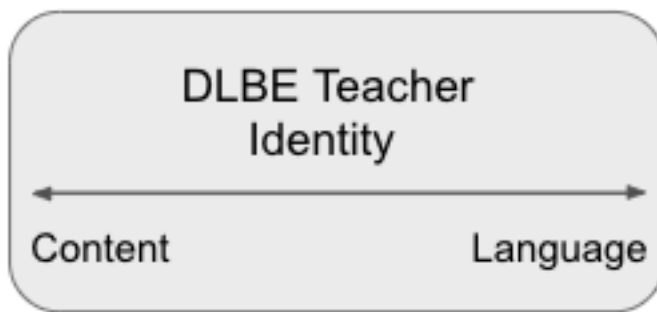
many DLBE teachers come to DLBE as mainstream teachers whose background and/or licensure is teaching content (especially on the English side) or foreign language as a content and are suddenly in a teaching context in which they need to teach *both* content and language (Fortune et al., 2008; Walker & Tedick, 2000). Studies have also shown that through DLBE-specific PD, DLBE teachers demonstrated increasing awareness around language, or metalinguistic awareness (Barko-Alva, 2022), in their lesson planning and instruction (Choi et al., 2022; de Jong & Barko-Alva, 2015; Tedick & Zilmer, 2018). This study intends to build upon the findings of these previous studies by widening the scope of examining which factors contribute to the formation of a language teacher identity, and if/how their teaching identity becomes evident in their pedagogical language practices.

Building on these studies, I conceptualize this identity development/formation as occurring along a continuum that ranges between content teacher and language teacher. I operationalize the definition/understanding of a “content teacher” as a teacher who teaches specific subject matter (e.g., math) or is licensed in general education (e.g., elementary education) and has pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) on that subject (Shulman, 1987), which they may draw upon to teach students to successfully master that subject.

I operationalize the definition of a “language teacher” as a teacher who teaches language as a subject matter and has pedagogical language knowledge (PLK) about teaching that language (Bunch, 2013). In this context, the language teacher teaches the language as a subject. However, in DLBE contexts, the language is primarily the *medium* of instruction and not the subject. Instead, the DLBE teacher is

responsible for teaching the subject (e.g., math) in the target language while *simultaneously* teaching the target language. The same is true for English language DLBE classrooms with MLs. Therefore, I conceptualize DLBE teacher identity as theoretically existing dynamically on the continuum between content and language (see Figure 2.1). I understand there are other ways to conceptualize DLBE teacher identity, but for the purpose of analysis in this dissertation I will be focusing on content and language as defined by the field.

Figure 2.1 The Continuum of DLBE Teacher Identity



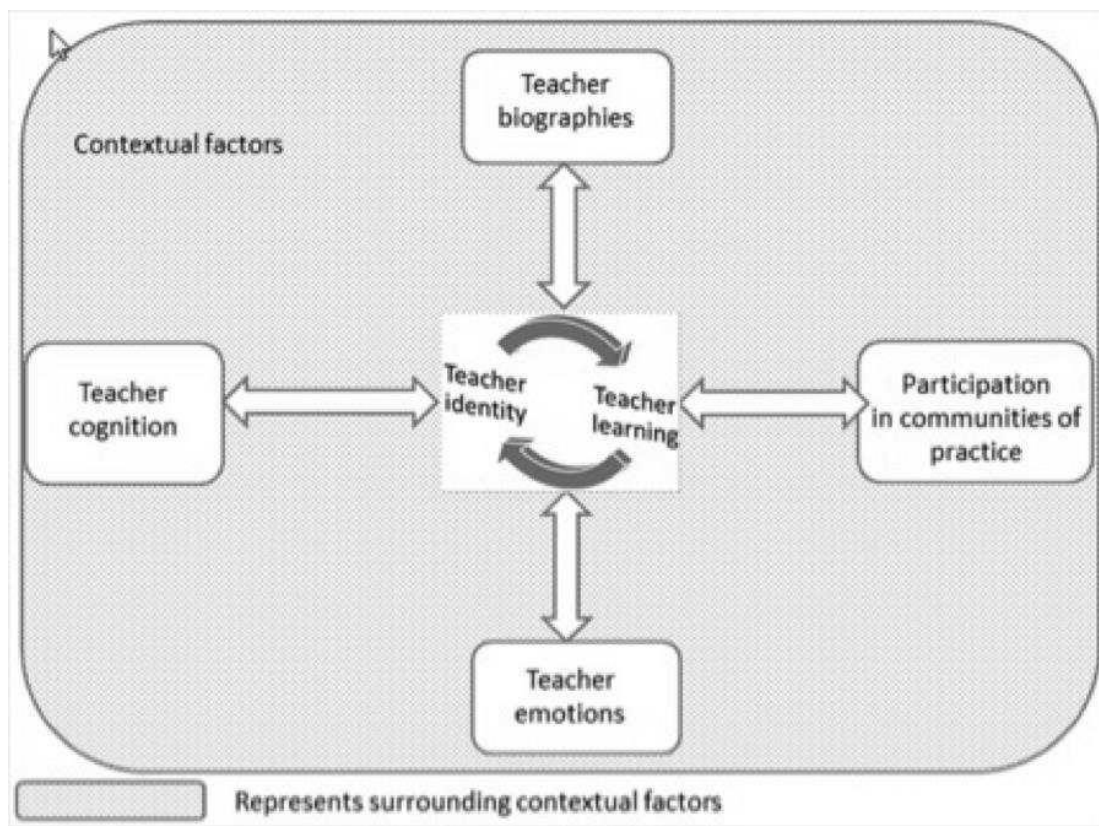
Previous studies that have examined or investigated DLBE teacher identity have used theoretical frameworks such as Communities of Practice (Chestnut, 2015; Tedick & Zilmer, 2018), figured worlds (Varghese & Snyder, 2018), and third space theory (Lee & Tucker, 2018). However, research has yet to examine how the two-teacher model influences DLBE teacher identity on equal footing with other potential factors. That is to say, the two-teacher model has been in the background, and I want to foreground it to make it a centerpiece, while also acknowledging other factors that may influence teacher identity. Foregrounding the two-teacher model makes visible the dichotomy between teachers and the different factors that may influence how they identify as either content or language teacher.

In order to do so, I will draw upon two conceptual frameworks to bring in the various factors that influence DLBE teacher identity. First, I draw upon Yazan's (2018) Language Teacher Identity Conceptual Framework and second, I draw upon Martin and Strom's (2016) factors that contribute to a linguistically responsive teacher. I will explain both of these frameworks and then describe how I adapted them to a DLBE Teacher Identity Framework (Figure 2.3).

2.4.1 Language Teacher Identity

Yazan's (2018) conceptual framework on language teacher identity is grounded in the fields of Second Language Teacher Education (SLTE) and TESOL. Yazan proposed a conceptual framework in which L2 teacher identity and teacher learning are focal, cyclical, and interactional. At the center, Yazan's model showed the interaction between teacher identity and teacher learning. He drew upon Johnson and Golombek's (2003) definition of teacher learning as "normative and lifelong, emerging out of and through experiences in social contexts: as learners in classrooms and schools, as participants in professional teacher education programs, and later as teachers in the institutions where teachers work" (p. 729). He stated that as L2 teacher candidates (TC) engage in teacher learning via teacher education activities, they are provided the opportunity to "revise and reconfigure their self-images as L2 teachers and enact and experiment with their fledgling teacher identities" (Yazan, 2018, p. 31). Therefore, teacher identity development and teacher learning are "two intimately connected contours" which underpin TC's professional growth (see Figure 2.2).

Figure 2.2 Language Teacher Identity Framework (Yazan, 2018)



Surrounding teacher identity and teacher learning are factors that interact with these two components of teachers' professional growth. These factors include teacher biographies, teacher cognition, participation in Communities of Practice, and teacher emotions. Yazan (2018) defined teacher biographies as personal histories or biographical trajectories that influence TC's views about teaching and learning, also referred to as "implicit theories," prior to their entry in a teacher education program (Percy, 2012, p. 29). Yazan included teachers' views or beliefs in the factor he labels as teacher cognition. Yazan, drawing on Borg (2003), defines teacher cognition as the "beliefs, knowledge, theories, attitudes, images, assumptions, metaphors, conceptions, perspectives about teaching, teachers, learning, students, subject matter, curricula, materials, instructional activities, self" (p. 82). Yazan also included teacher

emotions as a factor in L2 teacher identity development, arguing that the “emotions emerging out of TCs’ interaction with their colleagues, students, and students’ parents orient, inform, and define” the development of L2 teacher identity (p. 38). Like the other factors, emotions are interactional as the TCs’ emerging teacher identity also “influences how they respond emotionally to varying incidents” that they encounter in their teacher education activities. The fourth factor that interacted with teacher identity and teacher learning is participation in Communities of Practice (Lave * Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). He argued that seeking and acquiring membership in a new community of practice and L2 teacher identity development are “two interactively woven processes” (p. 33) because “becoming a member of a new community of practice is not just about learning new content but also about acquiring new practices, values, and ways of thinking which enable particular identities to be realized” (Singh & Richards, 2006, p.158). Surrounding these factors were contextual factors, which Yazan (2018) defined as “can be defined as the set of circumstances and dynamics that shape the setting for L2 teacher learning and teaching practices both at macro and micro plans” (p. 34). He argued that context has an influence on how “L2 TCs negotiate, frame and enact their identities as they...transition from being a student to being a teacher (p. 36).

Yazan’s conceptual framework for language teacher identity is comprehensive and grounded in the literature on teacher identity in SLTE and TESOL. Yazan’s research focused on TC’s who were becoming L2 teachers, however I argue that DLBE teachers are more than L2 teachers. Therefore, I used components from his conceptual framework to examine DLBE teachers in the two-teacher model as they

may have been content teachers who are now content/language teachers. However, in order to do so, I complemented Yazan's language teacher identity framework with additional literature on mainstream teachers who developed a linguistically responsive teacher identity.

2.4.2 Linguistically Responsive Teacher Identity

Martin and Strom (2016) composed a thorough systematic literature review on teachers who developed characteristics of a linguistically responsive teaching identity. Martin and Strom (2016) drew on Lucas & Villegas' (2011) Linguistically Responsive Teaching Framework to analyze studies of K-12 in-service teachers who taught multilingual learners. Their literature review identified factors that contribute to the formation of a linguistically responsive teaching identity: processes of reflection, the actual practice of teaching ELs, their own personal history, and contextual influences.

Martin and Strom (2016) identified reflection as one of the ways in which teacher identity in relation to ELs developed, citing studies from Galindo (2007), Giampapa (2010), and Pennington and Brock (2012). Drawing upon these studies, they defined processes of reflection as through autoethnographic reflections and narrative inquiry, in which teachers found that their identity developed through personal history and sociocultural influences, professional career, and experiences with students. The second factor that contributed to teacher identity was the actual practice of teaching ELs, in which researchers noted that over time, when teachers identified as both teachers of mainstream and EL students, their sense of self-efficacy increased and overcame the 'threat' that the teachers initially perceived by having EL

students in the classroom (Haworth, 2008). The third factor that the authors identified was teachers' own personal history and how it relates to the development of teacher identity. The fourth factor was contextual influences. Similar to Yazan (2018), Martin and Strom conceptualize contextual influences as being at the macro and micro level, such as language related educational policy initiatives and local school climate, culture, and aim, respectively.

2.4.3 Pedagogical Language Knowledge

In DLBE programs, teachers must have the knowledge to teach language as well as content (Howard et al., 2018). This knowledge of teaching language has been conceptualized for both mainstream teachers of MLs (Bunch, 2013) as well as bilingual teachers teaching in Spanish (Aquino-Sterling, 2016; Aquino-Sterling & Rodríguez-Valls, 2016). Bunch (2013) argued that mainstream teachers who teach MLs need more than PCK in order to adequately meet the needs of their language learners. Shulman (1987) originally described PCK as "the blending of content and pedagogy into an understanding of how particular topics, problems, or issues are organized, represented, and adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners, and presented for instruction" (p. 8). Due to the rising numbers of MLs that mainstream teachers will encounter in their classrooms, teachers will now need to consider the language demands of their content areas and develop PLK. Bunch (2013) defined PLK as "knowledge of language directly related to disciplinary teaching and learning and situated in the particular (and multiple) contexts in which teaching and learning take place" (p. 307).

Aquino-Sterling (2016) and Aquino-Sterling and Rodríguez-Valls (2016), in response to research on bilingual teacher candidates' lack of confidence in teaching in Spanish due to a perceived lack of linguistic proficiency, developed the teaching-specific Spanish language competencies, or what Aquino-Sterling (2016) refers to "as pedagogical Spanish." Aquino-Sterling (2016) defines these competencies as "language and literacy competencies" that bilingual teachers require for "teaching in Spanish across the curriculum in K-12 bilingual schools" (p. 51).

PLK and the teaching-specific Spanish language competencies are relevant to DLBE for two reasons. First, they are directly related to the job requirement of DLBE teachers, that is, to integrate content and language instruction. Cammarata and Tedick (2012) noted the particular type of knowledge DLBE teachers need, although they attributed it to pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) at the time (note: Cammarata and Tedick published their paper a year before Bunch published his on PLK).

The "content" that immersion teachers must know and know how to teach is comprised of both subject matter content (mathematics, social studies, etc.) and language (functional linguistics). Thus, their "pedagogical content knowledge" (Shulman, 1986; 1987) represents a dynamic amalgam of ways of representing and presenting both subject matter content and language that make it comprehensible to the learners and that elicit learners' language use. Previous research strongly suggests that most immersion teachers lack pedagogical content knowledge when it comes to language (p. 254).

Here, Cammarata and Tedick (2012) refer to pedagogical content knowledge about language. I argue that PCK about language is the equivalent of PLK and is

therefore essential for DLBE teachers to have. When a DLBE teacher has PLK and/or the teaching-specific Spanish language competencies, they are able to successfully integrate content and language instruction. In this paper, I will heretofore refer to the teaching-specific Spanish language competencies within the umbrella term of PLK.

Research on PLK in DLBE teachers is relatively recent (Barko-Alva, 2022; Ardell, 2022; Lee & Lee, 2017; Lucero, 2015). Barko-Alva found that DLBE teachers need “academic and professional support to build their linguistic capacity to teach in Spanish” (p. 3). Ardell (2022) found that the DLBE teacher’s PLK centered on vocabulary instruction. Lee & Lee (2017) studied math instruction in a Korean/English TWI program and found missed opportunities for language-specific teaching in the math curriculum. Finally, Lucero (2015) studied three teachers in a DLBE program with a language allocation policy of one language/one teacher and found differences in the teachers’ PLK based on their linguistic background and professional experience; the Spanish language teacher demonstrated having PLK while the English language teacher demonstrated limited PLK while having PCK in his content area of science.

2.4.4 Conceptual Framework

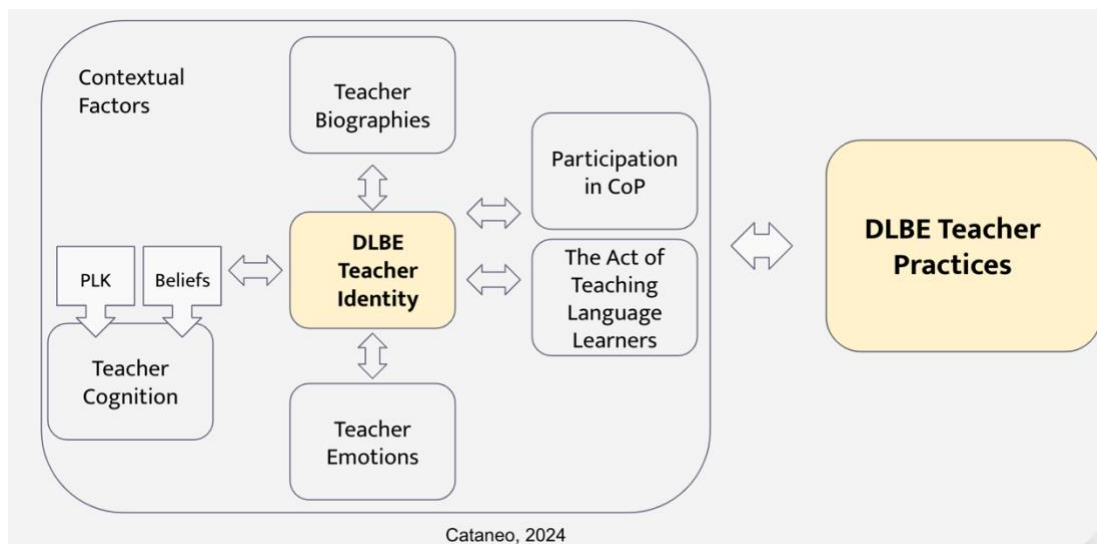
I draw upon these three sources (Bunch, 2013; Martin & Strom, 2016; Yazan, 2018) to adapt a conceptual framework of my study (see Figure 2.3) that reflects the teaching context of DLBE teachers as both educators of language and content and takes into consideration DLBE teachers’ documented backgrounds as mainstream or world language teachers. To create this framework, I adapted Yazan’s (2018) Language Teacher Identity framework to include the additional factors from Martin

and Strom's (2016) systematic literature review of linguistically responsive teachers. In the following paragraph I will explain how I adapted the various components of Yazan (2018) and Martin and Strom (2016) to reflect the DLBE teaching context.

First, I situate DLBE teacher identity in the middle with factors interacting with the development of DLBE teacher identity. The five factors I included are teacher biographies, teacher cognition, participation in communities of practice, the act of teaching language learners, and teacher emotions. Within DLBE, I conceptualize teacher biographies as teachers' personal histories which include their sociocultural, racial, and linguistic backgrounds, teacher education, and professional experience. I conceptualize teacher cognition as the beliefs, views, and attitudes that teachers have about teaching in a DLBE program and about language learners (e.g., English learners, heritage speakers, newcomers). I conceptualize CoP as the various professional communities that DLBE teachers in a two-teacher model may interact with, such as partner teachers (opposite language), language teachers (same language), grade level team, school PDs, district PDs, and any teacher-directed learning. I conceptualize the act of teaching language learners as the context of having language learners in one's class (regardless of home language) and the consequent pedagogical moves that the teachers make to teach students who are learning an additional language in DLBE. I conceptualize teacher emotions as feelings or emotions that arise from various instances or interactions when teaching in a DLBE program. This includes how teachers feel regarding interactions with students, parents, administrators, and other teachers, and generally how they feel about teaching in a DLBE program.

Like Yazan (2018) and Martin and Strom (2016), I conceptualize DLBE teacher identity, and the five interactional factors as influenced by contextual influences at both the macro and micro levels, such as district policies around DLBE and school climate, respectively. As these factors contribute to the DLBE teacher identity and vice versa, the teacher's identity then influences their PLK, which then influences their teaching practices in the DLBE classroom, i.e., how much the lesson focuses on content versus language development. I conceptualize PLK as the knowledge and practices that teachers demonstrate in order to teach both content and language in either English or Spanish. For the purposes of this study, I draw upon PLK as an important concept because it makes visible and offers a lens to understand the ways teachers make connections across language and content as I examine their practices. For example, when DLBE teachers write language objectives, I will use PLK to analyze the quality of the language objective and the extent to which it focuses on language development. As teachers enact their practice teaching language learners, this practice in turn influences the different factors in teachers' DLBE teacher identity and ultimately informs their DLBE teacher identity (see Figure 2.3). With this adapted framework that I have conceptualized, I hope to identify the intrinsic and extrinsic factors of where and how DLBE teacher identity is formed and how that identity shapes or influences their teaching practice. As I describe the design of my study in the next chapter, my hope is that the interactional relationship between all these components continues to become apparent.

Figure 2.3 Conceptual Framework for DLBE Teacher Identity



Chapter 3: **Methodology**

In this chapter, I will explain my methodological choices for this dissertation, beginning with my rationale for selecting the qualitative case study as my primary method of inquiry, followed by a brief description of the case study approach. Finally, the remaining sections will detail various aspects of the design of this proposed multiple-case study, including: the selection of participants, the different types of data that I will collect, and the ways in which I will analyze the data to meet the standards for quality in research. Before proceeding to these sections, I will restate my research questions:

Before proceeding to these sections, I will restate my research questions:

1. How do DLBE teachers understand their professional identity as content and/or language teachers?
2. What factors contribute to the formation of language teacher identity in DLBE teachers?
 - a. How do personal history, contextual influences, teacher emotions, teacher cognition, and the act of teaching language learners play a role in the formation of the DLBE teachers' language teacher identity?
 - b. How does teacher participation in CoPs affect the development of language teacher identity?
3. How do teachers' understandings of their professional identity (RQ1) and factors mentioned in RQ2 shape their instructional practices?

These questions guided my inquiry with DLBE teachers.

3.1 Methodological Rationale

For this study, I selected a qualitative case study based in *grounded theory* (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Corbin & Strauss, 1998) as my methodology due to the complexity of DLBE teacher identity and practice. Grounded theory attempts to “generate a theory that explains a process, an action, or an interaction” (Creswell, 2016, p. 274). The researcher analyzes the data with the purpose of advancing a theory (Corbin & Strauss, 1998). As explained in my conceptual framework, much of the current language teacher identity literature focuses on L2 teacher identity. This study seeks to examine how DLBE teachers understand their professional identity and what factors contribute to a language teacher identity in DLBE teachers. Due to the unique context of DLBE, I am utilizing grounded theory as a complementary methodology to case study in order to be open to the possibility of re-designing and revising current conceptualizations of language teacher identity to reflect a DLBE teacher identity.

Robert Yin defined the *case study* as “an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between the phenomenon and context are not clearly evident” (Yin, 2009, p. 18). Case studies are beneficial because they allow for an in-depth examination of a phenomenon. They include multiple data sources such as documents, archival records, interviews, direct observations, participants observations, and physical artifacts which researchers then triangulate as a way to ensure reliability and validity of their findings. Other features include rich description of the participants and setting to understand the context of the case. Case studies can

also combine with other methodologies such as ethnography or phenomenology; drawing upon their methods used while remaining within the bounds of the case (Merriam, 1998). As explained in the literature review above, much research in DLBE has utilized the case study approach (e.g., Amrein & Peña, 2000; Babino & Stewart, 2018; Lachance, 2017a, Lachance, 2017b, Martinez-Negrette, 2020; Shie, 2022).

The first step of describing a case comes in describing the phenomenon to be studied. In this dissertation, the phenomenon is the understanding and formation of teacher identity in two-teacher model DLBE contexts. Merriam (1998) stated, “[b]y concentrating on a single phenomenon or entity, the researcher aims to uncover the interaction of significant factors characteristic of the phenomenon” (p. 29). For this study, I am examining the interaction of factors that characterize the professional identity of teachers in DLBE programs and the factors that contribute to the formation of a language teacher identity. In particular, I investigated three aspects of DLBE teacher identity: (1) how DLBE teachers understand their professional identity as content teachers and/or language teachers; (2) what factors contribute to the formation of a language teacher identity in DLBE teachers; and (3) the connection between teacher identity and teacher practice. I examined the nature of DLBE teachers’ evolving professional identity on a *continuum* from content teacher to language teacher, while simultaneously looking at the impact of that identity on their practice in language instruction (i.e., pedagogical language knowledge). This impacts the kind of case study design I used, which I will further describe below.

Merriam (1998) described case studies as particularistic, descriptive, and heuristic. They are particularistic as the “case itself is important for what it reveals about the phenomena and for what it might represent” (p. 29). Olson wrote that case studies “can examine a specific instance but illuminate a general problem” (as cited in Hoaglin et al., 1982, p. 138-139). Based on the analysis of the empirical literature reviewed in Chapter 2, I argue that current research has not examined the relationship between how the professional identity of DLBE teachers impacts their pedagogical language knowledge and teaching practice. Therefore, this case study can examine specific instances of DLBE teachers in order to illuminate this larger problem.

Case studies are also descriptive. The final product of the case study should be a rich “thick description” of the phenomenon under study (Merriam, 1998, p. 29). Teacher identity is undeniably a complex construct, and case study embraces the complexity. Case study as a methodology allows me to examine the formation of language teacher identity in DLBE teachers by virtue of necessitating detailed descriptions to capture the complexities of the phenomenon under study. Using multiple sources of data, case study researchers can draw upon multiple threads and build a thorough picture of the phenomenon they are investigating.

Finally, case studies are heuristic in that they are meant to “illuminate the reader’s understanding of the phenomenon under study” (Merriam, 1998, p. 30). Stake (1981) astutely noted that in case study research, “[p]reviously unknown relationships and variables can be expected to emerge from case studies leading to a rethinking of the phenomenon being studied” (p. 47). In my case study, I am attempting to bridge multiple variables between teacher identity, language teacher

identity, pedagogical language knowledge, and teaching practice. My case study aims to illuminate how teachers in a DLBE program identify professionally, what factors contribute to how they identify professionally, and how their identity impacts their practice as a teacher in a language program. I began this case study acknowledging that variables may emerge that may push the field to reconceptualize teacher learning and professional development in DLBE programs (i.e., grounded theory).

Next, I describe how I delimit the object of study (bound the case) and determine the type of case it is. Stake (1995), Merriam (1998), and Smith (1978) characterize case studies as “bounded systems,” or analyses of single entities, of which there are a limited number of people who could be interviewed regarding the case and a limited amount of time for observation. According to Creswell (2007), “[b]ounded’ means that the case is separated out for research in terms of time, place, or some physical boundaries” (p. 485). A case study can focus on a variety of different things. Merriam (1998) defined a case as an individual, a group, a school, a community, while Creswell (2007) added “a program, events, or activities” to that definition (p. 485). The bounded systems in my case studies are the DLBE teachers in two schools in different districts: one school has a DLBE program in a suburban district, and the other is a DLBE school in an urban district. The time boundaries of these cases are determined by the academic school year 2022-2023. The case described here is bounded as a holistic, multiple-case design (Yin, 2014, see Table 2). Because I examined teacher identity and the factors that contribute to the formation of a language teacher identity, each individual teacher was considered a case. Although the school and systems within the school are included as factors that may contribute

to the formation of language teacher identity, the school itself is not the case but rather part of the context surrounding the case (i.e., the teacher). Research has shown that multiple factors influence teacher identity, including teacher background. Therefore, to fully answer the research questions, the case must be based on individuals rather than schools or systems. By examining each teacher as an individual case but also being allowed to have access to two very distinct programs (described in Section 3.3.2, Site Access), this case study will allow for a richer analysis of the ways that language teacher identity is formed, and which factors of the program may influence that process. Therefore, upon collecting and analyzing the data from each case, I will also engage in a cross-case analysis to determine if or how the DLBE programs may influence the formation of language teacher identity in DLBE teachers.

3.2 Research Design

In the remaining sections of this chapter, I will present the essential aspects of the study design, including context, participant selection, data collection, and data analysis. I will finish this chapter with a discussion of the measures I took to ensure trustworthiness and rigor.

3.2.1 Context

This research project was a holistic, multiple-case study (Yin, 2018) that took place within two larger research projects in two separate school districts, Broken Wood and Midsummer. The data collection used for this dissertation study was a part of the work from two larger research projects that I was involved in within the two

school districts. These overarching projects were led by two different universities and research teams. However, both projects were conducted on DLBE programs and have similar data collection methods: interviews, observations, and artifacts. Participants in both research projects include teachers, administrators, and instructional leadership.

The first research project investigated teacher learning at the Riverstone school within Broken Wood School District (pseudonym) and included a series of workshops with DLBE teachers to strengthen their bilingualism and biliteracy practices. Within these workshops, teachers engaged in a professional learning community that around planning and implementing DLBE pedagogies. My dissertation's data collection fell within the scope of the pre-existing IRB of this larger research project. I was able to identify specific teachers within the project to participate in my dissertation study. For example, as teachers planned in these workshops, I observed their planning habits and discourse. When we conducted interviews with teachers, I included questions related to teacher identity and teacher learning. During classroom observations, I observed for strategies and practices that demonstrate pedagogical language knowledge. In short, I had the ability to supplement the larger research project's objectives by developing observation procedures and interview protocols that catered to goals of my dissertation research.

The second research project was a research-practice partnership between a university and Midsummer school district that examined the implementation of evidence-based biliteracy instruction through district-level PD for school instructional leaders and on-site coaching for school leaders and teachers. In this project, my role was both researcher and coach. My dissertation's data collection fell within the scope

of the pre-existing IRB of this larger research project. I was able to identify specific teachers within the project to participate in my dissertation study. Similar to the first research project, I was able to conduct interviews and observations that met the goals of the larger project as well as fulfilling the goals of my dissertation research.

Riverstone

Riverstone Elementary School is a K-6 school with a DLBE strand located in the Broken Wood School district. The Broken Wood School District is a suburban district located on the East Coast of the United States. The Broken Wood School District has a strong history of one-way immersion programs, where the emphasis is on world language education for English-dominant students. The transition to DLBE is a recent development in this district; currently, there are only two schools with a DLBE program. The program model at Riverstone is maintenance bilingual, as over 80% of the school population is identified as Hispanic/Latinx. The school employs a two-teacher model and is relatively new—it started in 2015 with a kindergarten cohort and ran through Grade 5 by the time of data collection. Although data collection protocols for the larger research project and this dissertation study were complementary, my study is distinct in its focus on the development of language teacher identity and the connection to pedagogical language knowledge. Within the data collection and analysis, I was focused on how the DLBE teachers identify professionally, which factors contribute to the formation of language teacher identity, and how pedagogical language knowledge is demonstrated in practice. Collecting data at this research site was significant to my study and its contribution to the field because of the unique context of the site. Both the context of the district—with its

long history of one-way immersion education—and this school as a newly established DLBE maintenance bilingual program will provide a rich source of data in the field of language teacher identity. In this study, I will engage in the role of *Participant as Observer* (Tisdell, 1998), as my participation in the group will be “secondary to the role of information gatherer” (p. 101).

Barnaby Jones

Barnaby Jones is located in the Midsummer School District. The Midsummer School District is an urban school district located on the East Coast of the United States of America. The Midsummer School District has a longstanding history of DLBE and eleven DLBE programs around the district, including eight elementary and three secondary programs. Barnaby Jones is the site of the longest-running DLBE program (over 50 years), is recognized as a successful DLBE program, and has been the subject of multiple studies in DLBE literature (though none have addressed the topic of language teacher identity). The DLBE program at Barnaby Jones is a two-way immersion program that is school-wide in grades K-8. Fifty-four percent of students are identified as Hispanic/Latinx. The program follows a 50/50 two-teacher model in grades PreK-3. The upper grades follow a similar one language-one teacher policy; however, the subjects are departmentalized (e.g., Spanish Language Arts, English Language Arts, Science, Math) so that each teacher teaches only one subject. Conducting research in this school provided the opportunity to investigate what factors (if any) contribute to the formation of language teacher identity in one of the longest-running DLBE programs in the district/nation in a district with a documented commitment to DLBE. As with the other research site, both the context of the district

and the school provided a rich source of data in the field of language teacher identity. In this study, I engaged in the role of *Observer as Participant* (Tisdell, 1998), as I was engaged in an “active membership role” as the co-facilitator of DLBE workshops (Adler & Adler, 1994, p. 380).

3.2.2. Participants

The focal participants are DLBE teachers in a two-teacher model, meaning that they currently teach in one of two languages in a DLBE program along with a partner teacher who teaches in the other language. I sought to recruit teachers on the same teacher-team, meaning partner teachers who share the same grade and group of students while teaching in their target language. I selected my participants according to a type of purposeful sampling that Patton (1990) calls *operational construct sampling*, where “one samples for study real-world examples (i.e., *operational examples*) of the constructs in which one is interested” (p. 178). I choose operational construct sampling because “the sample becomes, by definition, representative of the phenomenon of interest” (p. 177), which is precisely the case with the teacher participants I was looking to recruit.

Given the sampling procedure, then, I used the following criteria to identify potential participants: 1) they were teaching in a Spanish/English DLBE program at the time that data collection began; 2) they were part of a teacher-team in a two-teacher model; and 3) their partner teacher is participating in the research project as well. The third criterion was optional, as recruiting two teachers on the same team can be difficult and entirely dependent on the teacher relationship. The ultimate aim was to have a balanced sample of Spanish language and English language teachers.

In addition to operational construct sampling, I also relied on the “*convenience*” *sampling* technique to help me identify participants. Due to my involvement in two research projects (described previously), I had access to DLBE schools in two districts and was able to recruit from within these two projects. Using the sampling methods described above, this holistic, multiple case study, investigates eight cases, or DLBE teachers from two different schools, six of which are partner teachers. I was also able to triangulate the data with interviews with an administrator from each school.

Now, I will provide a brief description of each participant. Table 3.1 provides the contexts of the participants’ teaching history, role and/or classroom, and language(s). Pseudonyms are used to assure anonymity of all participants.

Table 3.1 Participants in the Study

Name	Grade and Subjects Taught	Years Teaching	Years Teaching DL	Languages Spoken
Blake Anderson	2nd grade, English Humanities and Science	2	2	English, Spanish
Simon Jimenez	2nd grade, Spanish Humanities and Math	9	9	Spanish, English
Brad Miller	2nd grade, English Humanities and Science	22	13	English, conversational Spanish
Laura Estrada	2nd grade, Spanish Humanities and Math	20+	20	Spanish, English

Bettina Rubio	Assistant Principal at Barnaby Jones	30+ in education	14 years in leadership at Barnaby Jones	Spanish, English
Hannah Ke	1st Grade, English Language Arts, Science, Health	10	6	English, Mandarin, basic Spanish
Helena Diaz	1st Grade, Spanish Language Arts, Math	1	1	Spanish, English
Faith Castle	4th Grade, English Language Arts, Science, Health	4-6	1-3	English, Spanish
Vanessa Martinez	5th Grade, Spanish Language Arts, Math	10+	1-3	Spanish, English
Serena Yanez	Academic Dean	10+ in education	2 years in leadership at Riverstone	Spanish, English

Blake Anderson

Blake Anderson is a Black-identifying novice teacher in his second year of teaching second grade English Humanities (a combination of language arts and social studies) and Science. He was an alumnus of Barnaby Jones and is bilingual in English and Spanish. Prior to becoming a teacher, he was a teacher aide in second grade, which the school called a “teacher partner.” He was certified through an alternative certification program in the U.S. Barnaby Jones was the first and only school he taught at. Blake was a partner teacher to Simón Jimenez at Barnaby Jones.

Simón Jimenez

Simón Jimenez is from Colombia and speaks both Spanish and English. He taught second grade Spanish Humanities and Math. This was his third year teaching second grade at Barnaby Jones. He previously taught kindergarten for six years at the same school. He had worked as a teacher aide in a dual language charter school prior to becoming a teacher at Barnaby Jones. He was certified through an alternative certification program in the U.S. His partner teacher was Blake Anderson at Barnaby Jones.

Brad Miller

Brad Miller taught second grade English Humanities and Science at Barnaby Jones. He was a veteran teacher and had been at the DLBE school for thirteen years but had been teaching for a total of 25 years. He previously taught in a mainstream monolingual school with a high multilingual learner population on the West Coast. He described himself as “not fully” bilingual in Spanish and stated his proficiency was more conversational. He received his teaching certification in elementary education and ESOL through a university preparation program, although at the time of the study, he had let his ESOL certification expire. Brad’s partner teacher was Laura Estrada at Barnaby Jones.

Laura Estrada

Laura Estrada is bilingual in Spanish and English and identified herself as an adult second language learner of English. She taught second grade Spanish Humanities and Math. She was also a veteran teacher, with 20 years of experience at Barnaby Jones. Prior to that, she taught in her home country of Mexico. Her partner teacher was Brad Miller at Barnaby Jones.

Bettina Rubio

Bettina Rubio is from Peru and speaks both Spanish and English. She was the assistant principal at Barnaby Jones and had worked there for 14 years at the time of the study. She had prior experience as a school leader in a neighboring school district and had been working in education for over 30 years.

Hannah Ke

Hannah Ke identifies as a Chinese American woman who speaks English and Mandarin, along with some basic words in Spanish. She taught first grade English Language Arts, Science, and Health at Riverstone. She had taught at Riverstone for 10 years and had been there since the beginning of the dual language program six years prior. She completed her elementary education certification through a university preparation program. She shared that this was her last year teaching in the DLBE classroom, and she would be transitioning to ESOL in another school district the following academic year. Hannah's partner teacher was Helena Diaz at Riverstone.

Helena Diaz

Helena Diaz is from the Dominican Republic and is bilingual in Spanish and English. She taught first grade Spanish Language Arts and Math at Riverstone. Helena was a novice teacher, and this was her first year teaching at any school. At the time of the study, she had a conditional certification in elementary education. Her partner teacher was Hannah Ke at Riverstone.

Faith Castle

Faith Castle identified as a White woman from the Northeast. She had attended a dual language primary school and is bilingual in English and Spanish. She taught fourth

grade English Language Arts, Science, and Health at Riverstone. She completed her certification in elementary education and Spanish through a university master's program. Riverstone was the only school she had taught at for the past few years. She left Riverstone at the end of the 2023 school year to teach ESOL at another school in the same district. I was not able to collect data from her partner teacher.

Vanessa Martinez

Vanessa Martinez was from Puerto Rico and was bilingual in both Spanish and English. She taught fifth grade Spanish Language Arts and Math at Riverstone. As a veteran teacher with over ten years of teaching experience, she had previously taught in both ESOL and dual language contexts in the U.S. Prior to coming to Riverstone, she taught at a one-way immersion school in the same district. I was not able collect data from her partner teacher.

Serena Yanez

Serena Yanez is from Puerto Rico and speaks both Spanish and English. She was the instructional leader for DLBE at Riverstone and had worked there for two years at the time of the study. She had prior experience as a school leader in a one-way immersion school in the same school district and had been working in education for over ten years.

3.3 Data Collection

Data collection occurred from December 2022 to December 2023. Because I am examining the formation of language teacher identity and pedagogical language knowledge, I collected a variety of data that could inform how DLBE teachers

identify professionally and what factors help form a language teacher identity in DLBE teachers. I also collected data that can illustrate the relationship between teacher identity and instructional practice (pedagogical language knowledge). Tables 3.1 summarizes the data collected at each research site and its corresponding research question. More details about each data source will be explained in the following sections.

Table 3.2 Summary of data collection and methods

Research Question	Data Collection Riverstone	Data Collection Barnaby Jones
1. How do DLBE teachers understand their professional identity as content and/or language teachers?	Survey Individual interviews with teachers	Individual interviews with teachers Emails with teachers
2. What factors contribute to the formation of language teacher identity in DLBE teachers? a. How do personal history, contextual influences, teacher emotions, teacher cognition, and the act of teaching language learners play a role in the formation of the DLBE teachers' language teacher identity? b. How does teacher participation in CoP affect the development of language teacher identity?	All data from RQ1 Observation of monthly DLBE planning meeting (fieldnotes), classroom observations (fieldnotes), interviews with admin/instructional coaches, documents (unit plans, lesson plans) Observation of monthly DLBE planning meeting (fieldnotes + audio/visual recordings), interviews with admin/instructional coaches, documents (PD scope/sequence)	All data from RQ1 Observation from planning session with teacher, (fieldnotes), classroom observations (fieldnotes), observation from debrief session with teachers (fieldnotes), interviews with admin/instructional coaches, Artifacts (unit plans, lesson plans) Observation of planning session with teacher (fieldnotes), observation of debrief (fieldnotes), observation of bi-weekly grade-level meetings, interviews with admin/instructional coaches, artifacts (PD scope/sequence)

3. How do the answers to RQs 1 and 2 affect/appear in the practices of DLBE teachers?	All data from RQs 1 - 2 Classroom observations (3)	All data from RQs 1 - 2 Classroom observations (3)
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As I explained previously, I collected data for this dissertation under the umbrella of two ongoing research projects: one in Broken Wood School District and the second in Midsummer School District. Both projects were conducted on DLBE programs and have similar data collection methods: interviews, observations, and artifacts. While the data sources are similar, they are not exactly the same. Therefore, in this section, I will describe each type of data source and how it was collected between the two sites. It should be noted that all data types collected during these procedures—recordings and transcriptions, observation notes, scanned documents—were kept in a password-protected Google Drive folder.

3.3.1 Interviews

I conducted interviews as a means to provide data about language teacher identities and their realities (Merriam, 1998; Yin, 2018) and because they have been used in multiple other case studies in language teacher identity research as a data source (Babino & Stewart, 2018; Tedick & Zilmer, 2018; Varghese & Snyder, 2018).

The first type of interview I conducted was a survey via structured questionnaire for the teachers. In this survey, I gathered biographical information about the teacher participants, their teaching experience, and areas of success and growth in being a DLBE teacher (see Appendix A). I used this survey to gather information about the teachers at Riverstone, as it was already part of the larger study from which I drew data. I chose not to administer the same survey to the teachers at

Barnaby Jones due to my more salient role as a coach within the research-practice partnership in which I was already gathering data from my coaching activities. Instead, I asked the teachers questions from the survey as part of the biographical interview and in coaching conversations.

I conducted biographical interviews with all eight participants. During these semi-structured interviews, I asked questions about the teacher participant's background, past and current teaching experiences, past and current professional development, rationale for working in a dual language program, areas of improvement, and future aspirations (professional development and career) (see Appendix B).

The biographical interviews were my main source of interview data. However, I also conducted two types of interviews which resulted in supplemental data: these were post-observation debriefs which occurred after my observations of participants whom I was coaching (see section 3.3.3.2 below), and follow-up interviews with two participants to member-check emerging findings (see Appendix C).

Finally, for triangulation, two interviews with the leaders of the two programs were conducted. One interview was recorded, transcribed, and verified for accuracy. The other interview was conducted via telephone.

I conducted the interviews for all participants either in-person, online via Zoom, and one interview via telephone. Most of the interviews were recorded and then transcribed. I did not record two interviews because one participant did not consent to being recorded and the other because the interview took place on the

telephone, which was difficult to record. For these two interviews, I took extensive fieldnotes to recall focal points of the conversation at a later point.

3.3.2 Observations

The second type of data I collected were observations to complement the interviews and provide evidence to answer RQs 2 and 3. I conducted observations of teacher collaborative planning sessions and classroom instruction.

In total, I observed 11 collaborative planning meetings between the two schools. At Barnaby Jones, I conducted five observations of grade-level collaborative planning sessions for second grade. At Riverstone, I observed one grade-level planning session for fourth grade, which included both the DLBE and non-DLBE teachers in the grade level. My role during the collaborative planning observations was fluid (Merriam, 1998). In some instances, I was an observer participant, in which I observed but also interacted and supported teachers as necessary. In other instances, I conducted observations as a participant observer, in which I actively supported teachers in their planning due to my role as a coach. To avoid potential biases (Yin, 2018) that may have arisen from being a participant observer, I took notes using low-inference descriptors (Goetz & LeCompte, 1984) and created a separate column for opinions and personal thoughts or marked them with a separate font.

In addition to the planning session observations, I also conducted observations in the classroom—two observations per teacher, as multiple observations provided more opportunities to find “good moments to reveal the unique complexity of the case” (Stake, 1995, p. 63). I took detailed fieldnotes during the observation, either on

a laptop computer, tablet, or in a notebook, and compiled a more extensive description immediately after the observation.

3.3.3 Documents

The third type of data I collected were documents as a way to “corroborate and augment evidence from other sources” (Yin, 2018, p. 115). The types of documents I collected were meeting agendas, unit plans, and any other documents related to DLBE lesson planning or teaching. I used these documents as both stand-alone sources and to corroborate the evidence from the observations and interviews. I have kept electronic copies of the documents.

3.4 Data Analysis

I transcribed all interview recordings using Trint (an automated voice to text transcription service) and then reviewed and refined each transcript manually using the same software. I coded the data using *Atlas.ti*, a mixed-methods analysis software that can code documents, photos, and transcripts. I coded using both inductive and deductive codes. During the inductive coding process, I identified emerging themes related to what research participants view as important topics of teachers’ professional identity and relationships to various communities of practice. The deductive coding was based on findings of prior research (reviewed in Chapter 2), the research questions themselves, and my conceptual framework. I coded data iteratively by rereading my conceptual framework and reviewing previous codes as new observations arise. I wrote ongoing analytic memos for both the interviews and the

observations for each participant both after data collection and again after coding (Saldaña, 2013).

To address the first research question, I first coded inductively, then deductively. I first coded the data inductively using in vivo coding to describe participants' perceptions of themselves as teachers, their reason for working in a DLBE program, and labels for the relevant communities of practice they inhabit and their participation in those communities (Saldaña, 2013). I then coded data deductively using concepts described in my conceptual framework. These codes included the following concepts taken from Yazan (2018) and Martin and Strom's (2016) systematic literature review: background (Martin & Strom, 2016; Yazan, 2018; coded as personal background, prior experience, previous education); teacher cognition (Yazan, 2018; coded as knowledge and beliefs); communities of practice (Wenger, 1998; Yazan, 2018); the practice of teaching language learners (Martin & Strom, 2016; coded as DLBE pedagogy); language-related education policy initiatives (Martin & Strom, 2016; Yazan, 2018; coded as macro contextual factors); and local school climate, culture, and aim (Martin & Strom, 2016; Yazan, 2018; coded as micro contextual factors). As I coded, I originally looked for words or phrases that indicated an affiliation with a professional identity as content or language teachers. However, as I analyzed the answers to the questions that I asked for RQ1, the teachers' responses revealed a depth and breadth that went beyond the two dichotomous categories, which I will explain in my findings.

To address the second research question, I first coded deductively, then inductively. I coded the data deductively using the concepts from Martin and Strom

(2016), Yazan (2018) (listed above), and the DLI-Specific Formative Assessment of Teaching Rubric. The In-service DLI-Specific Formative Assessment of Teaching (Appendix D) was developed by researchers Diane J. Tedick and Corinne S. Mathieu as part of a National Professional Development Grant through the Office of English Language Acquisition (University of Minnesota, 2022). This rubric assesses teacher practices that include the “unique pedagogical skills and knowledge that DLI teachers should demonstrate,” such as integration of language, content and culture. Versions of the rubric were piloted in previous studies with PSTs in order to revise to the current version that has been developed for in-service teachers (there is also a PST rubric) (University of Minnesota, 2022).

To address the third research question, I coded the data inductively using a combination of in vivo coding and descriptive coding (Saldaña, 2013) to identify participants’ words and actions that revealed what teachers were focusing on in lesson planning and instruction (e.g., if they are focusing more on content or language) or what kind of pedagogical moves teachers were using to support language acquisition. I then coded deductively using categories from the Inservice DLI-Specific Formative Assessment of Teaching rubric (e.g., cross-lingual connections, visual language scaffolds, language alertness) and the above categories from the conceptual framework.

After initial inductive and deductive coding, I used axial coding (Saldaña, 2013) to group or categorize the codes across data. I then used theoretical coding to identify central themes or categories that respond to my theoretical framework and research questions (Saldaña, 2013).

Upon completion of the within-case analysis, I began a cross-case analysis in order to compare and contrast emerging patterns between the cases. My cross-case analysis began at the level of each individual case as a “case-based approach” (Byrne, 2009; Ragin, 1992). In this approach, the goal is to “retain the integrity of the entire case and then to compare or synthesize any within-case patterns across the cases” (Yin, 2018, p. 196). Therefore, I began by coding and categorizing each individual case. Then, I aggregated the codes and categories across cases and identified cross-cutting patterns, which I connected to the previous literature and conceptual framework. Both of these stages of analysis applied to all three of my research questions (see Table 3.2); my findings emerged from cross-case analysis.

Table 3.3 Procedures for Within and Cross-Case Analysis of Data

RQ	Procedure for Within-Case Analysis	Procedures for Cross-Case Analysis
RQ1. How do DLBE teachers understand their professional identity as content and/or language teachers?	Coding of biographical interview data (and other pertinent data from interviews and observations). Comparison of codes and generation of categories (iterative process). Description of major categories for each case and generation of connections to theoretical framework and previous literature.	Review of codes and categories from all cases. Aggregation of codes and categories, followed by identification of cross-cutting patterns in language teacher identity. Description of cross-cutting patterns and generation of connections to theoretical framework and previous literature on DLBE teachers and language teacher identity.

RQ2. What factors contribute to the formation of language teacher identity in DLBE teachers? a. How do personal history, contextual influences, teacher emotions, teacher cognition, and the act of teaching language learners play a role in the formation of the DLBE teachers' language teacher identity? b. How does teacher participation in CoP affect the development of language teacher identity?	Coding of observational data, interviews, and relevant documents. Comparison of codes and generation of categories (iterative process). Description of major categories for each case and generation of connections to empirical and conceptual literature on DLBE and language teacher identity.	Review of codes and categories from all cases. Aggregation of codes and categories, followed by identification of cross-cutting patterns in participants' formation of language teacher identity in their DLBE programs. Description of cross-cutting patterns and generation of connections to empirical and conceptual literature on DLBE and language teacher identity and (potentially) generation of suggestions for theory refinement.
RQ3. How do teachers' understandings of their professional identity (RQ1) and factors mentioned in RQ2 shape their instructional practices?	Review of codes from interviews and observations looking for dissonance or relationships between teacher identity and PLK in classroom instruction. Search for coincidences in language teacher identity and PLK codes for each case (iterative process). Description of major patterns and generation of hypotheses about the relationship between teacher identity and PLK for each case.	Review of hypotheses on the relationship between language teacher identity and PLK for all cases. Identification of cross-cutting patterns in the hypotheses on the relationship between language teacher identity and PLK. Description of cross-cutting patterns and (potentially) generation of suggestions for theory refinement.

3.5 Positionality

As with all qualitative scholarship, it is important to acknowledge my role and my status at the sites that I am immersed in. I am a White, middle-class, female. I grew up speaking English and learned Spanish as a second language in middle and high school. In college, I double majored in Spanish and History, with a focus on Latin American history. As part of my language and history studies, I studied abroad in both Spain and Chile. I learned a second language through a place of privilege in which my bilingualism was framed as a marketable asset. I now recognize the ways my language acquisition is related to structures of inequality that frame bilingualism differently for minoritized and racialized communities who become bilingual in their homes. Immediately after graduation, I was hired through Teach for America, an alternative certification program, to teach in a DLBE school with a transitional bilingual model, which began my 11-year career as a DLBE educator.

The original reasons I became so passionate about dual language education were for its success with English Learners (Thomas & Collier, 2002) and because it offered students from monolingual, English-speaking families opportunities to be bilingual at a much younger age, an aspect of language education in the U.S. that I had always thought was woefully lacking. I also appreciated the way that DLBE programs were structured so that, at any point in the day, half the students were learning in their second language. It *seemed* a much more equitable and socially just method of instruction. I was more or less blind to the inequities that still perpetuated within the program, that I myself contributed to through my own ignorance and complacency living in a society and system that upholds White supremacy.

As a former DLBE teacher and current researcher, I am both an insider and outsider in the scholarly and educational field. I am an insider in that I have multiple years of experience in multiple program types in various communities. I have taught in a transitional bilingual program that converted to the two-way immersion model and in two schools that were growing their DLBE programs. I have also taught in a school with a well-established DLBE program that experienced a leadership change with drastic effects, such as a change in program model, where bilingual teachers alternated languages week-to-week, to a strict language allocation policy, where the teachers taught only in one language. I taught in Denver, Boston, and Washington, DC. Each community has a large and distinct LatinX population from Mexico; Puerto Rico and the Dominican Republic; and El Salvador, Honduras, and Guatemala, respectively. In each setting, I learned about the various cultures and language varieties in each country.

However, I am also an outsider because I am a White woman who learned Spanish and experienced bilingual education through a racialized, white gaze. I have not experienced school as a minoritized and linguistically oppressed student or faculty member. I was not recruited to move internationally and teach and become a representative of my language and my culture in the U.S. because my culture and language are always represented. As a native English-speaking, U.S.-educated, White woman, I attended all faculty meetings, parent teacher conferences, and school events with confidence because they were designed for me to understand and navigate.

Now, as a DLBE teacher educator and doctoral candidate, I am still passionate about DLBE, but I see the many flaws and inequities that need to be addressed,

including the ones that perpetuate systemic oppression. These include centering the needs of White, English-dominant students and teachers, the exclusion of Black students from DLBE programs, and the focus/support that is primarily given for programs whose target language is seen as marketable by White people (i.e., Spanish, French, Mandarin Chinese) while ignoring the heritage languages of other minoritized communities. My research attempts to address at least one of these inequities, mainly that of the hiring of (often White) monolingual English language teachers in DLBE programs where the goals for the students are bilingualism and biliteracy. By examining how teachers understand their professional identities in DLBE programs, which factors contribute to the formation of a language teacher identity, and how these identities appear in their practices, I hope to contribute to the field in a way that provides DLBE programs with suggestions for how to better support and prepare their DLBE teachers. In this context, I lean on my insider status to gain access to these DLBE programs through my positions as research assistant and dual language coach. I acknowledge the outsider status I experience as a White woman in an environment that is meant to be culturally and linguistically sustaining for minoritized communities and how that may prevent teachers from feeling entirely comfortable with me, especially if they are from those communities. Finally, I acknowledge the bias I have as someone who enjoyed learning a second language (and is currently learning a third), and how that may impact my understanding and interpretation of monolingual speakers of English teaching in a DLBE environment.

While I acknowledge my role as insider-outsider in different times and spaces, I tried to maintain the integrity of my findings through member-checking and

triangulation. The next section will describe how I tried to maintain the quality of research standards.

3.6 Standards of Quality in Research

In this section related to the design of my research study, I will discuss how I upheld standards of quality in research. Case study research scholars commonly discuss reliability and validity as potential challenges in case study research and suggest potential strategies to ensure these standards are met (Goetz & LeCompte, 1984; Merriam, 1998; Stake, 1995; Yin, 2018). While no study is perfect, I included strategies to ensure reliability and validity in my study.

Reliability is “the extent to which studies can be replicated” (Goetz & LeCompte, 1984, p. 211). In other words, a completely different researcher can use the same methods or the same data set and obtain the same results as the original researcher. Time and the human condition prevent any study from being truly replicated, for this reason reliability is sometimes referred to as “consistency” or “trustworthiness” in qualitative research (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). I took measures to ensure that another researcher can follow the same steps that I used. First, I documented “the procedures followed” in my case study and maintained a chain of evidence (Yin, 2018, p. 46). This chapter serves as the documentation of my procedures, including careful description of selection and justification of informant choices, social situations and conditions, analytic constructs and premises, and methods of data collection and analysis (Goetz & LeCompte, 1984). I maintained a chain of evidence through the use of electronically organized folders and clear labels

in a password-protected drive. Second, I disclosed my researcher status position prior to conducting the study, which is done through the positionality section of this chapter. Finally, I included local informants (i.e., administration, instructional leadership, co-teachers) in order to engage in member-checking to check my own biases and center the emic views of the participants. Including other knowledgeable, local members of the community strengthened the trustworthiness of this study.

The second measure of a study's quality is *validity*, referred to in qualitative research as rigor, or credibility, of which there are three types: construct, internal, and external. Construct validity requires identifying the correct operational measures for the concepts being studied (Yin, 2018). External validity refers to the credibility and applicability of a study across groups. Threats to external validity are defined as "those effects that obstruct or reduce a study's comparability and translatability" (Goetz & LeCompte, 1984, p. 228). To address external validity, I took Yin's (2018) replication approach by using a multiple-case design. Goetz and LeCompte (1984) define internal validity as the alignment between the researchers and the phenomena they are studying. The authors summarize internal validity with the question, "Do scientific researchers actually observe and measure what they think they are observing and measuring?" (p. 221). I will account for internal validity in this study by way of data triangulation (Patton, 2015). Data triangulation is when a researcher uses multiple sources of evidence to corroborate their findings. As I have detailed in the above data collection section, I used a combination of observations, interviews, and documents, in order to examine the formation of language teacher identity and its influence on teacher practice. Finally, I engaged in member-checking, in which key

informants reviewed my preliminary findings to confirm whether my interpretation aligns with theirs.

Chapter 4: Findings

As I analyzed data, I found that DLBE teachers' professional identity reflects the goals of DLBE, however teachers demonstrated a range of understanding of those goals. Their understanding of their professional identity was informed by a variety of factors, which included their backgrounds and experiences, contextual influences such as school community, collaborative structures, and leadership, and teacher beliefs. Finally, teacher understandings of their professional identity as well as the aforementioned factors shaped the instructional practices of teachers in their use of translanguageing and bilingualism, the way that they scaffolded for language acquisition, how they aligned instruction with their partner teachers, and made connections across languages.

In this chapter, I begin with how DLBE teachers understand their professional identity connected to the Pillars, then I will discuss the factors that contributed to a DLBE professional identity, and finally I will describe how these understandings and factors shaped their instructional practices. Throughout this chapter, the organization of the findings shift between illustrating the personal experiences of the DLBE teachers and the school context (which I coded as contextual influences). The findings are organized this way because I found that the school context played a significant role in how the teachers understood and enacted their professional identities, which I will explain further in RQ2.

4.1 RQ1: How do DLBE Teachers understand their professional identity as content and/or language teachers?

In my first research question, I examined how DLBE teachers understand their professional identity as content and/or language teachers. As I analyzed the data, I found DLBE professional teacher identity is not an either/or dichotomy of content vs. language but instead a complex and more nuanced conceptualization of DLBE teacher identity that connects to the Pillars of DLBE. First the teachers recognized that the dual language setting is distinct from a monolingual educational context because of the emphasis on language. However, I also found that the teachers all had varied understandings of the role of language in their teaching, which I connected to the Pillars of bilingualism/biliteracy and academic achievement. Finally, I found that the teachers understood sociocultural competence as an important component of their teaching identity, but, similar to language, had varied understandings of how sociocultural competence manifests in their teaching. In this section, I organized the first finding by teacher, the second by language, and the third finding by school. I organized the findings in this way because the language of instruction and the school (which I coded as a micro contextual influence) at times played a large factor in the teachers' responses, which I will refer to in each research question and elaborate further in research question 2.

4.1.1 Awareness of and Focus on Language in DLBE

I found that the majority of the teachers acknowledged that teaching in a DLBE school is different because there is an increased focus on language. While at

first this finding may seem redundant, this finding answers my initial research question about how teachers understand their professional identity as content and/or language teachers. As I mentioned before, this dichotomy only scratches at the surface of DLBE teacher identity and I will further explore the complexity of DLBE teacher identity in the subsequent findings. However, this theme emerged so clearly from the data that I decided to include it here as a way to ‘set the stage’ for the subsequent findings in this section of the chapter. In sum, nearly all the teachers definitively named language in their answer about what makes teaching in a DLBE program different from other (monolingual) settings.

Vanessa Martinez, the 5th grade Spanish teacher at Riverstone, commented that a difference between “regular” teachers in a monolingual program and DLBE teachers is that DLBE teachers focus on language development.

Vanessa Martinez: Yo creo que las diferencias serían más en lo que es seguir el desarrollo del lenguaje. Eso es algo que no se ve en un maestro regular...

Vanessa Martinez: *I think the differences would be more in what it means to follow the development of the language. That is something that you do not see in a regular teacher...*

(Interview, 03/15/2023)

Brad Miller and Hannah Ke both had experience teaching in monolingual settings prior to teaching in DLBE (Hannah transitioned from monolingual to DLBE at Riverstone). Both teachers remarked upon their increased awareness of language after teaching in a DLBE program. Brad Miller remarked upon an increased understanding of language acquisition and processes of reading, while Ms. Ke

became more aware of the connections between languages and helping her students make those connections:

Brad Miller:...since I've become a dual language teacher, I feel like I understand reading and language acquisition so much better than I did as a monolingual teacher. I think you have to really be interested in how people learn languages and how they learn to read.

(Interview, 06/23/2023)

Hannah Ke: I think I've been a lot more intentional about connecting between the languages. Saying like, oh, for example, what is it? Cognates. Using cognates or. Pointing out similarities and differences. So like for like, the "e" and the "i", a lot of times they'll say, E for I and I'm like "Right in Spanish but tell me in English."

(Interview, 02/24/2023)

Simón Jimenez also named making connections across languages as a distinct aspect of teaching in a DLBE program. He also mentioned that the level of planning happened at a deeper level because of the need to make connections across languages and make intentional choices around vocabulary words based on whether or not they are cognates that students will understand.

Simón Jimenez: Y creo que el nivel de planeación para una escuela de lenguas es mucho más profundo, ya que no sólo tiene que hacer conexiones entre los lenguajes. Tienes que pensar hasta para una simple palabra será mejor esta palabra o esta hasta puede ser mejor porque es un cognado que lo entiende.

Pues creo que hay un nivel más profundo de planeación, específicamente en el lenguaje....

Simón Jimenez: And I think that the level of planning for a dual language school is much deeper, since you don't only have to make connections between the languages. You have to think about a word and which would be better [in the other language], this word or that word, because it could be better because it is a cognate that [students] understand. Therefore, I think there is a deeper level of planning, specifically in the language...

(Interview, 06/21/2023)

Simón's partner teacher, Blake Anderson, identified shorter instructional time as a key difference between monolingual and DLBE programs, but then clarified that students receive a depth and breadth from receiving instruction across languages and gave an example from the literacy curriculum.

Blake Anderson: ...so, whereas we have much shorter amounts of time we don't get as much time to go into things. But the value of working with a Spanish partner and then covering those things in depth in both languages I think is very unique and I don't think you get in other places. So, it's really making sure that like, hey, I'm covering fables and you're talking about fábulas and you're going over like these different elements of it... So, they get that depth and breadth.

(Interview, 05/31/2023)

Finally, Laura Estrada also spoke about the impact of bilingual instruction on students. Comparing DLBE to a monolingual program, she speculated that bilingual

students in the latter may not receive the support that they need due to the school's presumed inability to evaluate students in both languages nor having the tools or strategies to support those students. In a DLBE context, teachers have professional learning about second language acquisition and the tools to support bilingual students.

Laura Estrada: Si tú tienes alumnos en una escuela monolingüe but they are learning in a second language, you need to understand that they are learning, but in a second language. And sometimes they [teachers] don't make sure that they [students] are understanding. Entonces, en una escuela monolingüe, me imagino, que saben más rápido con los niños que no necesitan extra support. Pero los que necesitan extra support, maybe the teacher they don't have that tool. And they continue, and they move on. And in una escuela bilingüe, maybe we have more tools. It's a different, PDs, que nos ha ayudado entender, mejorar la enseñanza. sobre todo entender.

Laura Estrada: *If you have students in a monolingual school but they are learning in a second language, you need to understand that they are learning, but in a second language. And sometimes they don't make sure that they are understanding. Then, in a monolingual school, I would imagine that they know more quickly with students who don't need extra support. But those that need extra support, maybe the teacher they don't have that tool. And they continue, and they move on. And in a bilingual school, we have more tools. It's a different, PDs, that help us to understand, to improve teaching, above all to understand.*

(Interview, 07/31/2023)

This finding demonstrates that the teachers recognized that DLBE is a **different teaching context** and requires different knowledge, skills, and dispositions than in a monolingual setting due to the emphasis on language.

In the second and third findings, I will show similar connecting threads in how teachers understood their professional identities related to language and sociocultural competence. The teachers likewise all displayed nuanced understandings of language and sociocultural competence, which I explored and will discuss in the findings section of research question 2.

4.1.2 Understanding the Role of Language in Teaching

The DLBE teachers had different layers of understanding about the role of the language in their teaching in relation to their students. For example, Simon Jimenez saw DLBE as an opportunity to share or impart his language as well as his culture and roots with students.

Simon Jimenez: Me siento muy feliz de poder enseñar en mi propia lengua y poder al mismo tiempo poder transmitir parte de lo que es mi cultura y mis raíces.

Simón Jimenez: *I feel very happy that I can teach in my own language and at the same time I can share what is part of my culture and my roots.*

(Interview, 06/21/2023)

Laura Estrada, the other Spanish language teacher at Barnaby Jones, stated that she enjoys teaching Spanish as a second language, and recognizes the unique position a bilingual teacher has and that ‘learning a second language is something

more,’ and therefore DLBE teachers need to have the appropriate strategies in order to teach in a second language.

Laura Estrada: Me gusta el aprendizaje en segundo idioma... [Un maestro bilingüe tiene que] ponerse en su lugar - entender que cada uno lleva su proceso de aprender un nuevo idioma ...Sobre todo, que no es una receta mágica. Un maestro bilingüe necesita un buen desarrollo profesional de entender y saber estrategias... En mi experiencia, creo que es importante saber estrategias que puede enseñar en una escuela, que los maestros XXX que aprender en un segundo idiomas es algo más.

Laura Estrada: *I like second language learning... [A bilingual teacher has to] put themselves in [the students'] place – understand that each one has their own process of learning a new language... Above all, it is not a magic recipe. A bilingual teacher needs good professional development to understand and know strategies... In my experience, I think it is important to know strategies that you can teach in a school, that the teachers XXX that to learn in a second language is something more.*

(Interview, 07/31/2023)

In both cases, the teachers seemed to acknowledge or imply that their audience are the students in a two-way immersion school with a heterogeneous population, and thus the role of language in their teaching means sharing language, culture and roots to Spanish language learners.

Vanessa Martinez, as a teacher in a maintenance bilingual program at Riverstone, recognized her role as important in supporting students’ maintenance or

retention of their home language. She referred to dual language as a “balance” and that when students do not have this balance, they lose their native language. Therefore, she viewed her role as helping to maintain the balance between the two languages, Spanish and English.

Vanessa Martinez: Me defino como una maestra que debe dar las materias y tiene que dar soporte en el idioma nativo... Básicamente este año estoy trabajando la posición de en dual language de español a la refuerzo a los chicos que están perdiendo el idioma cuando no hay un balance, pero cuando no hay un balance del idioma, se pierde el idioma nativo. Y entonces el reto de este programa es mantener un balance entre ambos idiomas.

Vanessa Martinez: *I define myself as a teacher that should give materials and has to give support in the native language... Basically this year I am working in a dual language position of Spanish reinforcement for the students who are losing the language when there's not a balance, but when there's not a balance of language, you lose the native language. Therefore the challenge of this program is to maintain the balance between both languages.*

(Interview, 03/15/2023)

Similar to Ms. Martinez, Ms. Diaz also acknowledged the English dominance in her classroom and her role as the Spanish language teacher in reminding students to speak in Spanish.

Helena Diaz: en mi salón yo tengo que decirle no, no en inglés. Hablan ellos unos a otros se hablan en inglés. Sí, tengo como unos, diría como unos cuatro niños, que si hablan en español solamente hablan más español. Pero después,

la mayoría yo tengo que decirle en tiempo de clase que no entre ellos se hablan mucho en inglés.

Helena Diaz: *In my classroom I have to tell them, no, not in English. They talk among themselves in English. Yes, I have some, I would say about four children, who only talk in Spanish. But, the majority I have to say to them during class time not to talk so much in English between themselves.*

(Interview 05/04/2023)

Although Ms. Diaz does not specifically refer to the demographics of her students like Ms. Martinez did, she and Ms. Martinez both acknowledged English dominance as a challenge in their teaching and therefore saw their role as maintaining students' Spanish language abilities.

The English teachers understood the role of language as a means of making connections, but again had varied explanations of how they used language to make connections, whether as a literal bridge between the languages or a more metaphorical space for students to use their full linguistic repertoire. Two of the English teachers, Blake Anderson and Faith Castle, drew upon their own bilingualism as a resource as an integral part of their teaching identity. Blake Anderson stated that he uses his Spanish language skills as a tool to create a bilingual space for learning because it's important for students to be able to practice so that they may also become bilingual.

Blake Anderson: ... being bilingual myself, you know... it's important to me that kids that are either learning English or learning Spanish can practice that. I think I allow space for them to do that.

(Interview 05/31/2023)

When I asked Blake early in the interview about his position at Barnaby Jones, he named the dual language setting as part of his professional identity, first saying his grade, subjects, and school, and then adding "...and I specialize in, you know, a dual language setting or I'll say, a bilingual setting." In his interview, Blake drew upon his own bilingualism as a core part of his teaching identity and firmly identified the space in which he teaches as a bilingual, or dual language, space, both in his classroom and in the larger school setting.

Faith Castle demonstrated slightly more tension with her professional identity as a dual language teacher. Early in her interview, she mentioned that she omits telling people that she teaches dual language because she only teaches the English side.

Faith Castle: I usually don't mention the dual language part of it because I teach the English side of it. But like sometimes if I'm with my family, my mom will be like, 'Oh, but it's dual language.' But I'm like, 'Yes, but I don't teach the Spanish side of it.'

(Interview 12/12/2022)

Her school, Riverstone, is in a district with a long history of world language immersion programs where historically the program language teachers are referred to as 'immersion teachers.' However, later in her interview, she more definitively defined herself as a dual language teacher and named how she drew on her own bilingualism to make connections for students' understanding (against the district's strict language separation policy).

Faith Castle: ...even though I don't like identify myself to, to other people, I'm not like "I'm a dual language teacher." I feel like that's a big part of my identity, but I don't talk about it a lot because I feel like then people are like, "How are you dual language teacher if you just speak English?" I don't know, I, I just feel like I know what it is, like, I'm a dual language teacher. And I use Spanish some of the time in my class. A lot of times we use it to make connections.

(Interview 12/12/2022)

To contrast the two, Blake Anderson understands his use of (bilingual) language as a way to model bilingualism for his students. He views his teaching position in a dual language school as a bilingual setting. Faith Castle experienced more tensions with her professional identity; she said she was hesitant to identify herself publicly as a dual language teacher because she teaches on the English side and teaches in a district where the program language teachers are considered the 'immersion' teachers. Nonetheless, she pushes back on this distinction in her interview and explains how she uses her bilingualism as a tool to scaffold instruction and make connections for students. In summary, both these bilingual English teachers see their bilingualism as an important part of their professional identity as DLBE teachers.

Hannah Ke drew less on her personal experience and instead focused on the pedagogical language knowledge that DLBE English teachers should have. Although she was not bilingual in the program language, she believes that having knowledge of

the program language is helpful for teachers to make connections for their students (similar to Faith).

Hannah Ke: I think it would be helpful if they had a PDs in like the other language that they would be teaching. Because that's where I was able to make more connections. So if they know more about the other language, they can help their students make those same connections.

(Interview 02/24/2023)

Interestingly, while Hannah Ke acknowledged that professional development in the program language (essentially the development of PLK) would be helpful for English DLBE teachers, she also had major concerns about students in the DLBE program being able to learn English. She mentioned this concern in her interview as well as during a DLBE teacher meeting. In that meeting, the Riverstone DLBE teachers were asked to say why they thought DLBE was important. Ms. Ke expressed the concern that students who stay in communities with families who speak Spanish don't learn as much English, and that the DLBE program "needs to address that" (Fieldnotes, 05/18/2023).

Brad Miller was the only teacher who took a step beyond thinking about the program language in particular, and instead spoke about language in general as essential for building human connections or relationships. He connected language to his teaching role by saying that "being in a language school only intensifies" building relationships.

Brad Miller: ...the most important thing about being a teacher is it's a human endeavor. It's a connection between student, teacher, parents, everything.

Those connections and those relationships are what [are] the basis of teaching. And then I think being in a language school only intensifies that, right? Like, language is the most human creation or the most human form of building relationships.

(Interview, 06/23/2023)

Brad's belief in language as a form of making connections was reflected in the class values he reviewed with students at the beginning of each class; the fifth and final value was "Bilingual Brains," which he explained in a follow up interview as students using their full linguistic repertoire to discuss key concepts with each other during class.

4.1.3 Sociocultural Competence: knowing vs. doing

The third finding for RQ1 was that teachers understood their professional identity as connected to sociocultural competence; however, similar to the second finding, the teachers had different layers of understanding of how they present sociocultural competence in the classroom.

At Riverstone, the teachers conceptualized sociocultural competence as teachers having respect and understanding for other cultures (akin to multiculturalism). Faith Castle and Vanessa Martinez both explicitly stated that DLBE teachers need to have 'knowledge of students' cultures,' Helena Diaz said that teachers need to have 'empathy' for students due to their potentially difficult background experiences as the children of immigrants or newcomers themselves.

Faith Castle: Qualities - patience and empathy and I think knowledge of the students' cultures

(Interview 12/12/2022)

Vanessa Martinez: ...debe ser un maestro que tenga empatía hacia la cultura, no puede ser un maestro que aún no conozca diferentes lo que son las bases culturales de estos niños.

Vanessa Martinez: ...*they should be a teacher who has empathy for other cultures, they should not be a teacher that doesn't know the different cultural backgrounds of the students.*

(Interview 03/15/2023)

Helena Diaz: ...que sea también empático con nuestros estudiantes, porque la mayoría de los estudiantes vienen de situaciones...la mayoría, han pasado por situaciones muy difíciles.

Helena Diaz: ... *that they should also be empathic to our students, because the majority of our students come from situations... the majority have experienced very difficult situations.*

(Interview 05/04/2023)

Hannah Ke did not explicitly say that DLBE teachers need to have knowledge of students' cultural backgrounds, but she did speak to how she draws upon her own experience as a child of immigrant parents to understand the experience of her students, which demonstrates her own empathy as a DLBE teacher.

Hannah Ke: So I understand the experience, especially like for our students. A lot of them, their parents immigrated over or they did when they were very young. So I understand how it is culturally.

(Interview 02/24/2023)

At Barnaby Jones, the teachers demonstrated a different understanding of sociocultural competence that transitioned from teacher knowledge of students' cultures to teacher skill in fostering sociocultural competence in students. The Barnaby Jones teachers demonstrated a clear understanding of the diversity of the student population in a dual language, especially a two-way program, and emphasized that DLBE teachers need to not only be aware of the variety of the cultures of their students, but also to emulate and promote a respect for that diversity, as a skill to also be developed in students. Laura Estrada summarized it as “Ser bilingüe no es solo hablar español, es entender una cultura” (*Being bilingual is not only speaking Spanish, it is understanding a culture*). That is, language and culture are intertwined, and being bilingual means understanding both the language and the culture (as a goal for students).

Blake Anderson connected sociocultural competence to understanding the importance of teaching in a dual language program. He too, made a connection between culture, or “understanding that there isn’t just one set way of living and interacting with other people” and language, “someone who thinks bilingualism is important.”

Blake Anderson: ... understanding that there isn't just one set way of living and interacting with other people, I think is really important. Because then that

opens up your understanding of why dual language teaching is important. And I think it also just makes students feel a lot more comfortable because you're going to, again, get kids and families from so many different backgrounds and being able to migrate through all that requires someone who is more open with the world in general. And someone who thinks bilingualism is important.

(Interview 05/31/2022)

Simón Jimenez also recognized the importance of teacher modeling sociocultural competence for students. Like Blake Anderson, he acknowledged the diversity of student backgrounds, including gender and sexual orientation, and stated that the teacher is responsible for “respecting that diversity and promoting that diversity.”

Simon Jimenez: Es importante que todos los maestros de educación dual entienda la diversidad con la que se enfrentan de la población en tanto a niveles de todo de culturales o lugares de donde se proviene experiencias previas, género, orientación sexual, todo. Creo que es importante que se tenga ya que pues la realidad de los estudiantes es esa, no? Es diversa, y el maestro es ser como responsable de respetar esa diversidad y promover esa diversidad.

Simón Jimenez: *It is important that all dual language teachers understand the diversity that they encounter in the population at all levels of culture or places which are drawn from previous experiences, gender, sexual orientation, everything. I think it is important it is important to have it because that is the reality of the students, right? It's diverse, and the teacher has to be responsible for respecting that diversity and promoting that diversity.*

(Interview, 06/21/2023)

Finally, Brad Miller also discussed the importance of modeling sociocultural competence, what he referred to as “living respectfully.”

Brad Miller: I guess you need to be flexible. You need to be open. You need to be interested in other cultures. I think being really like respectful. Kind of living, not just like speaking respectfully, but just kind of trying to live respectfully.

(Interview, 06/23/2023)

However, notably absent from the majority of the teachers’ discourse was the importance of cultivating and sustaining the identity of students, especially Latinx students. The only teacher who mentioned DLBE as being culturally and linguistically sustaining was Brad Miller. Brad recognized that kids “glom” or get stuck on the notion that English is the more important language and identified DLBE as a way to counter English hegemony and maintain a home language practice they they’re “proud of.”

Brad Miller: I think kids especially, they glom onto like, oh, the dominant language is English, so everything should be English. You know, as a culture. And so even kids that have, you know, their own culture at home often, you know, you see it. The second generation, their parents talk to them in Spanish and they answer in English. And it's, I think. You know, we can't completely stop that, but we're at least giving the kids a firm basis in their home language that they're proud of and that hopefully they hold on to their whole lives.

(Interview, 06/23/2023)

Considering the history and current population of the school as a two-way program, the teachers' answers suggest an implicit focus on DLBE as a means of developing the sociocultural competence of white, English-dominant students, rather than the importance of DLBE for the preservation or maintenance of Spanish-dominant students' identities and cultures.

In conclusion, I originally set out to answer how DLBE teachers understand their professional identity as language or content teachers; and while I found that all the teachers acknowledged the role of language in their teaching, they had various understandings of the role of language in their teaching. I also found that teachers acknowledged the importance of sociocultural competence, with several describing how culture and language are indelibly intertwined. However, they differed in their understanding of sociocultural competence, with some teachers focused on knowing via understanding students' different cultures and backgrounds and others who conceptualized it as a more active modeling and teaching for students' how to interact with people from a variety of backgrounds and cultures. Although I originally set out to frame DLBE teachers' professional identities as content vs. language, I believe that my findings start to illuminate teachers' understandings of a DLBE teacher identity that reflects and connects to the Pillars of DLBE.

4.2 RQ2: What factors contribute to the formation of language teacher identity in DLBE teachers?

In this section, I will describe the factors that emerged from that data as contributing most to the formation of a language teacher identity in DLBE teachers.

Drawing upon my conceptual framework, I found that the most salient factors that emerged from the data were teacher biographies, contextual influences, and teacher beliefs. I also found that the factors were not linear; they emerged at different stages of teachers' careers and interacted with each other in various ways. Due to this complexity and interaction, I chose to answer RQ 2's sub questions about the individual factors and the communities of practice within the overarching question of RQ2. In this section I will attempt to unravel and explain the ways in which these factors intersect.

4.2.1 Teacher Biographies

The first factor that contributed to a formation of language teacher identity in DLBE is teacher biographies, which I operationalized as personal background, previous education, and prior teaching experience. For the English teachers, I found that their prior personal and professional experiences contributed to the awareness (and investment in) teaching in DLBE programs.

Faith Castle and Blake Anderson were DLBE alumni; this background knowledge and experience contributed heavily to their awareness of DLBE programs and their investment in teaching in one.

Faith Castle: But I think because my mom is a teacher and she's a really good one, that also shaped who I am and who I am and also like how I think about things...But I think what motivated me was like I had a great dual language education and then yeah, in, in college I learned how to do it.

(Interview, 12/12/2022)

Blake Anderson: I was raised to find, you know, bilingual education to be very important...I'm not just an alumni, but most of my life has been in a bilingual setting.

(Interview, 05/31/2023)

Brad Miller had prior experience teaching in a monolingual school setting with a large population of multilingual learners. That, coupled with his exposure to bilingual education during his teacher preparation program, led to interest in bilingual education and his belief in the importance of dual language (which will be discussed in the third finding).

Brad Miller: So the experience in California is interesting, I think because I think it's important for why I'm at Barnaby Jones, because I worked at a monolingual school in X City... I notice, you know, I'm teaching them to read...what was happening is these kids were basically having their home language replaced... I got really interested in bilingual education.

(Interview, 06/23/2023)

Hannah Ke did not have experience in or knowledge of DLBE prior to teaching in her current program. However, her personal background as a 1st generation descendant of Chinese immigrants nonetheless influenced her perceptions of DLBE. In a DLBE teacher meeting, she expressed concerns about the program and its ability to teach students' English by connecting to her grandparents' experience living in a Chinese-speaking community.

... [Hannah stated that] students stay in community with families who speak Spanish, don't learn as much English, [DLBE] needs to address that.

Connection to family and background - her grandparents have been living here for years and don't speak English because they don't need to.

(Fieldnotes, 05/18/2023)

Three of the four Spanish teachers came to their current program with past formal teaching experience. Similar to Brad Miller, Vanessa Martinez spoke about her experience in her masters' program as what prompted her interest in dual language and language acquisition. She also taught in two other bilingual programs, both for English-dominant students, prior to arriving at Riverstone.

Vanessa Martinez: El programa de inmersión está ligado a mi preparación académica. Empecé lo que es una maestría en inmersión en lo que es el programa bilingüe y de ahí empecé a hacer mi doctorado. El lo que es, lo que es adquisición de lenguaje, como un segundo idioma. Pude explorar lo que son los niveles de proficiencia en el idioma, como el ambiente afecta la enseñanza del idioma o mantiene el idioma en un atmósfera que no es, no es buena para mantenerla porque un idioma- un ambiente que no es bilingüe. Y de verdad por mi preparación académica, pues estoy ligada a los programas. He seguido explorando e investigando, verdad, personalmente sobre lo que es adquisición del lenguaje... He estado trabajando lo que es inmersión en español y también en otras escuelas, en otros condados. He trabajado el programa de ESOL y dual language.

Vanessa Martinez: *The immersion program is linked to my academic preparation. I started what is a master's degree in immersion in what is the bilingual program and from there I began to do my doctorate. What it is, what language acquisition is, like a second language. I was able to explore what the levels of proficiency in the language are, how the classroom environment affects the teaching of the language or maintains the language in an atmosphere that is not, is not good to maintain it because a language- an environment that is not bilingual. And really because of my academic preparation, because I am linked to the programs. I have continued exploring and researching, right, personally about what language acquisition is... I have been working in Spanish immersion and also in other schools, in other counties. I have worked in ESOL and dual language programs.*

(Interview, 03/15/2023)

Simon Jimenez taught in one previous DLBE program, a charter school, as a fellow (a novice teacher) before transitioning to Barnaby Jones. However, he also had past experience tutoring immigrant youths in Spain, which began to create his awareness about the importance of language acquisition in teaching. He then sought a position in a DLBE school when he came to the United States.

Simon Jimenez: *Trabajé como un tutor de estudiantes inmigrantes a España y ahí fue como la primera experiencia, porque muchos de ellos no hablaban español como primera lengua, porque venían de diferentes países y comencé a ver que es lo importante que era enseñarse lengua, pero también pues cómo se*

apoyaba, que no era lo mismo enseñar a una persona que te entiende 100% a enseñar a un estudiante que te entiende por un otro porcentaje menor.

Simón Jimenez: I worked as a tutor of students who had immigrated to Spain and there was my first experience, because many of them did not speak Spanish as their first language, because they came from different countries and I started to see the importance that was teaching language, but also how you support it, because it's not the same to teach a person who understands 100% as it is to teach a student who understands you a much smaller amount.

(Interview, 06/21/2023)

Past experience working with young children or youth outside of school settings similarly led Helena Diaz to want to be a teacher. Ms. Diaz originally planned to teach Spanish as a world language and was not aware of DLBE programs in Maryland, but then had friends who are DLBE teachers who told her about a teaching opportunity in first grade at Riverstone.

Helena Diaz: Entonces en la iglesia, yo siempre he estado trabajando con niños y entonces para mí fue como que 'Me gusta enseñar. Creo que voy a entrar a buscar algo de enseñar.' Pero del principio pensé en enseñar como el español y no sabía que Maryland tenía los programas dual language y una amiga me habló de la oportunidad en la iglesia. Tengo varios amigos que son maestros dual también y me mostraron este, me hablaron y me dijeron cómo llegar a ser maestra aquí en Maryland y entonces pues me motivé por esa razón.

Helena Diaz: *So, in the church, I have always been working with children and so for me it was like, 'I like to teach. I think I'm going to go in and look for something to teach.' But at first I thought about teaching like Spanish and I didn't know that Maryland had dual language programs and a friend told me about the opportunity at the church. I have several friends who are dual language teachers as well and they showed me, they talked to me and told me how to become a teacher here in Maryland and then I was motivated for that reason.*

(Interview, 05/04/2023)

Laura Estrada had prior teaching experience in Mexico, and also worked in a summer program in the United States but had not previously worked in a DLBE program. When she decided to re-enter the teaching profession, she too was originally approached to teach secondary.

Laura Estrada: Yo no sabía nada de Barnaby Jones... Una vez caminando por donde vivía... [había] una escuela bilingüe. Envié mi currículum a la oficina bilingüe y me llamaron para una entrevista para high school... no me da pasión. [Entonces] me llamó el director [de Barnaby Jones] - me llamó para entrevistar. Solicitaban maestra de kinder. Con mi experiencia en México, me pasó y me aceptaron. Así comencé en Barnaby Jones.

Laura Estrada: *I didn't know anything about Barnaby Jones... One time I was walking where I lived... [there was] a bilingual school. I sent my curriculum to the bilingual office and they called me for an interview for a high school... that doesn't excite me. [Then] the principal [of Barnaby Jones] called me –*

they called me to do an interview. They were looking for a Kindergarten teacher. With my experience in Mexico, they accepted me. That's how I started at Barnaby Jones.

(Interview, 07/31/2023)

The intention to teach in a DLBE classroom seemed less of a focus for Helena Diaz and Laura Estrada and more on the age group of the students. Both teachers mentioned the opportunity to teach secondary, but opted for DLBE programs so that they could teach younger students.

In conclusion, teachers' personal and professional experiences played a factor in their decision to teach in a DLBE program. For both English and Spanish teachers, knowledge or awareness of the existence of DLBE contributed to wanting to teach in a DLBE program. For two English teachers, this was mostly through their own experience as DLBE students. For Brad Miller and Vanessa Martinez, their teacher preparation and prior teaching experience developed their awareness of DLBE. For some of the Spanish teachers such as Helena Diaz and Laura Estrada, awareness of DLBE seemed more incidental, such as finding out about DLBE programs through their church or a walk in their neighborhood.

It is important to note the distinction in opportunities between the English teachers and the Spanish teachers, particularly the Spanish teachers whose more dominant language is Spanish. For English-dominant teachers in the United States, there are a plethora of teaching positions available across a variety of grades and content areas. For Spanish-dominant teachers, their choices are limited to teaching Spanish as a world language, or teaching both content and language in a DLBE

program. The former mostly occurs in secondary, while the latter mostly occurs in primary. For Spanish-dominant teachers who prefer to teach younger students, DLBE programs present a rare but growing opportunity to teach content.

4.2.2 Contextual Influences

The second finding of factors that contribute to the formation of a dual language teacher identity was contextual influences. In this finding I will highlight the contextual influences that emerged as key themes in teachers' identity as DLBE teachers. These contextual influences included community, collaborative structures (CoP) and leadership. Community refers to the students, families, and colleagues with whom the teachers interact. Collaborative structures, or Communities of Practice, refer to when the DLBE program has strong leadership and structures to support teachers in their work (e.g., collaborative structures that prioritize planning across languages), teachers are more likely to feel invested in the mission and goals of the program. When the program lacks strong, knowledgeable leadership and collaborative structures that support DLBE instruction, teachers do not feel invested in the DLBE program, even if they identify other factors positively such as a strong community of teachers, colleagues, and students.

For the purposes of this dissertation, I will focus on two of the eight cases to represent how contextual influences played a role in the teachers' desire to teach in a DLBE program. One teacher, Faith Castle, decided to leave at the end of the year. The other, Blake Anderson, remained. The macro and micro contextual influences of community, collaborative structures, and leadership contributed to the teachers' identity as a language teacher in DLBE.

First, I will highlight the case of Ms. Castle, the 4th grade English teacher at Riverstone. Ms. Castle had a clear commitment to dual language. She was a dual language student herself, is bilingual, and wanted to work with Spanish speaking students. In her interview, she spoke about what attracted her to teaching at Riverstone. She explicitly named the school community and the dual language program as factors in her decision to teach there.

Faith Castle: One of the reasons was because of the high Spanish speaking population ... And I wanted to be able to use my Spanish. I use my Spanish mostly with the parents. And I think that's really important because a lot of the parents, they aren't able to make it. It's hard to make a connection with someone... So that was important to me, that it came from a high Spanish speaking population. And I also liked that it had a dual language program... So I stayed for so long because I love the kids, I love teaching, I love the families, I love the other teachers.

(Interview, 12/12/2022)

However, she was leaving the school at the end of the year. The question was, why? In her interviews, Ms. Castle stated that she was leaving due to the lack of support she felt from leadership (with the exception of Ms. Yanez) and the lack of agency (being told what to do in ILT). Although the school had a collaborative planning time, it was not meant for collaborative planning between dual language partner teachers. Instead, it was, in Ms. Castle's words, used for telling teachers "what to do."

Faith Castle: Like Ms. Ortega [Spanish partner teacher] and I plan sometimes together, but we both are so busy.. We have collaborative planning at the school, which in my opinion is baloney because it's just the instructional lead teachers, telling us what to do....I wish collaborative planning time could be used like me and Ms. Ortega [to] talk in depth about what we're doing.

(Interview, 12/12/2022)

Following the CoP framework, I coded this as a lack of mutual engagement (no time for partner teachers, Ms. Castle is not considered a part of the CoP but rather positioned as a passive recipient of information) and a lack of shared repertoire (curriculum not aligned between languages).

While Ms. Castle acknowledged the support she received from Ms. Yanez further in her interview, it is too little, too late. The rest of the administration's lack of support or knowledge of her role as a DLBE teacher played a major influence in her leaving the school. I coded this as joint enterprise or understanding the shared goals of the program.

Faith Castle: But there comes a point when it's like it's just not enough. Like, like the administration is very disorganized and they don't listen. There's nothing like it's like you, you just constantly feel like no matter what you say, nothing changes. So it's like there comes a point where you just can't do it anymore.

(Interview, 12/12/2022)

If the administration here was different. If I felt appreciated, seen, acknowledged. It's not out of the question that I wouldn't do dual language in the future.

(Interview, 05/12/2023)

Although Ms. Castle ultimately decided to remain in teaching by becoming an ESOL teacher; she will not be helping future students meet the goals of DLBE bilingualism/biliteracy, because that is not a possibility in ESOL. Fortunately, she has not entirely lost her commitment to DLBE and does not rule out the possibility of teaching in a DL program in the future.

I compared Ms. Fields' experience with the other DLBE alum, Mr. Anderson. Mr. Anderson likewise named his community as a reason for teaching in the school. He referred to the 'core values' that they all share, and again cited words that paraphrase two of the goals of DLBE (bilingualism, sociocultural competence). Among his team and his school, the joint enterprise, or goals of DLBE, is known and shared by all teachers.

Blake Anderson: I think the thing that I think that keeps me here the most is my colleagues. While we're all, I think, different in a lot of ways. I think that core values that we all have, whether that's bilingualism, multiculturalism, being more liberal. I think everyone's ability to kind of celebrate that difference is something that keeps me here and wanting to stay here.

(Interview, 05/31/2023)

He also mentioned how he felt supported as a team member, which I coded as mutual engagement. The collaborative structures of the school, which included dual

language planning documents, provided Blake with a shared repertoire and also allowed him to ‘lean on’ his colleagues on his grade level team (both his Spanish partner teacher and his English counterpart) to learn. He reported in his interview that he had the opportunity to observe Simon which helped grow his pedagogy as well.

Blake Anderson: I think Barnaby Jones is kind of the high bar of kind of what the expectations are in terms of dual language teaching and collaboration with our Spanish partners...I think being a second year teacher, I think I've done a lot more leaning on Simon and even my other English partner... And fortunately, I also walked into a situation where all of our lesson plans are built in a bilingual way. So we have documents that are dual language documents and show how does it work between both classrooms. But I feel like I have not been as valuable as a team member as he has been a valued team member for me. So I was leaning on him for, you know, what's the best pedagogy for the classroom?

(Interview, 05/31/2023)

He also identified the literacy instructional coach (part of the leadership team), Barbara, as a support, especially in setting the ‘why’ of their pedagogy, and again connected that back to collaborating in a dual language setting, helping teachers to understand why it’s important to coordinate instruction across languages (joint enterprise).

Blake Anderson: I think the thing that I always value about Barbara... she is very good at questioning why we're doing something.... And really having us think through like what, why, or how are we being intentional about the things

that we're doing? And I think that's incredibly valuable in a dual language setting in general, because sure, I could have like vocabulary that mirrors what they're doing in Spanish, but then what's the intention behind doing that, right? I think she's very good at having us circle back with ourselves.

(Interview, 05/31/2023)

Together, these contextual influences create a space, or a community of practice, where Mr. Anderson feels supported, able to grow, and confident and committed in his choice of being a DLBE teacher. It is important to recognize that Mr. Anderson feels a special connection to the school due to his prior experience as a student there. However, in a separate part of the interview, Mr. Anderson stated that he felt his skills and knowledge gained at Barnaby Jones would make him a valuable English teacher at another DLBE program, showing that even if he did leave Barnaby Jones, he recognizes and is committed to DLBE learning.

4.2.3 Teacher Beliefs

The third finding for RQ2 similarly shows the interplay between factors: leadership (another contextual influence) and teacher beliefs (conceptualized within teacher cognition). In this finding, I selected the cases of the other two English teachers, Hannah Ke and Brad Miller, to represent this interplay between leadership and teacher beliefs.

Hannah Ke had been teaching in Riverstone prior to the transition to dual language. As mentioned previously she did not have prior knowledge of or

experience in DLBE. She did not seem to understand the goals of the program, stating that they had changed from the previous administration.

Hannah Ke: I think it was pretty new... The thing is I feel like they had a different goal. Like I think our past principal or two principals? One principal ago. When he started it. I feel like his goal was to raise the scores of the ESOL students like the low, English language learners....So I feel like the dual language was just a program he was trying to start. But now it's the goal has kind of changed to helping them retain their first, their native language. Yeah. So that's kind of shifted.

(Interview, 02/24/2023)

She also did not believe that the program met the needs of all students, and that students in a dual language program would not be able to adequately develop their language skills in English. Although she herself was a near descendant of immigrants and used that to connect with her students, she also drew upon her own family's experience of social distance to explain why she did not feel that DLBE would help students develop English.

Hannah Ke [00:18:29] Yes, I just personally feel like the program is not a great fit for all students. I think some kids suffer in the program. Especially the ones who speak Mam at home and don't get a lot of support. And for some reason, their parents said that they speak Spanish at home initially and they get put into the program. And then they're learning three languages. Some kids do great with that. But other ones, even the ones who don't speak Mam at

home and speak Spanish at home, sometimes they just struggle to pick up both languages. So it seems like they're not retaining anything.

(Interview, 02/24/2023)

I triangulated Ms. Ke's interview with a quote from the current DLBE coordinator, Ms. Yanez. As I mentioned previously, Ms. Yanez had been identified as a great support for teachers and an advocate of the DLBE program, however she was the only administrator truly tasked with supporting it. Ms. Yanez shared that in her first year, she had to share about the mission and vision of the DLBE program to both teachers and administrators, because they did not know what they were.

Serena Yanez: So our goals are [to] develop bilingual, biliterate and bicultural students. So my first year here...I started by printing the mission and vision of the program to the teachers so they know about it because a lot of them, they didn't know about [the mission and vision]. What was the vision and mission of the program? And he estado hablando mucho de los beneficios que tiene nuestro programa, las grandes oportunidades que le brinda a los estudiantes que un programa regular no le brinda e. Y comparto esa misma información que comparto con el equipo. La comparto también con el grupo de admin.

Serena Yanez: So our goals are [to] develop bilingual, biliterate and bicultural students. So my first year here...I started by printing the mission and vision of the program to the teachers, so they know about it because a lot of them, they didn't know about [the mission and vision]. What was the vision and mission of the program? And I have been talking a lot about the benefits that our program has, the great opportunities that it presents for the students

that a regular program does not give them. I shared this same information that I shared with the team. I share it also with the administration.

(Interview, 06/08/2023)

Ms. Ke's case demonstrates the importance of teacher belief in the DLBE program and goals in order to develop a DLBE teacher identity. Ms. Ke never fully understood the program goals; she also didn't believe that the program was a fit for all students. Ms. Ke's case is also important because of her longevity at the school; she had been there since before the DLBE program started. As new programs open across the country, it is imperative that school leaders recognize the importance of teacher investment and belief in DLBE. Many teachers, especially monolingual English teachers, feel hesitant about DLBE programs because they fear for their jobs (Choi et al., 2022). If school leaders and teachers do not believe in the goals of the program, then they will not be able to successfully support students.

In contrast to Ms. Ke, Mr. Miller, from Barnaby Jones, demonstrated his belief in the power of a DLBE program. He acknowledged the role that DLBE plays in the maintenance and development of the Spanish language for Spanish speaking families and uses the word 'builds' to describe the role of English. Similar to Ms. Ke, he mentioned having students who speak a language other than English or Spanish. However, he did not position the student's Russian or Kazakh languages as problematic.

Brad Miller: I love being in a dual language environment for many reasons. One, you know, for our Spanish speaking kids...it elevates their home

language, makes them fully literate in their home language and then builds English on top of that, rather than sort of ignoring their home language and trying to replace it with English. And I think that's really powerful. But all the kids benefit from this. And even last year I had a bilingual kid who spoke Russian and Kazakh and no Spanish or English. And I think he really benefited from the environment because it's the same thing. He's walking into an environment where we're all trying to figure each other out. He had a much steeper hill to climb than everyone else, but because everyone was doing the same thing, I think he... It made it better for him, you know, and now he's doing great.

(Interview, 06/23/2023)

In contrast to Ms. Ke, Mr. Miller sees the program as an environment that allows students to experience together trying to 'figure each other out' and believes that the program has made the experience 'better' for the student.

I found that the belief in children's ability to learn bilingually or multilingually, is connected to the role of leadership when thinking about the formation of a DLBE teacher identity. In an interview with the school's assistant principal, Bettina Rubio, she talked about the importance of teacher belief and how she takes that into consideration when hiring. She acknowledged that she could coach teachers in the 'practices' or the 'mechanics' of teaching. However, she cannot teach teachers to 'think differently.' If teachers do not believe deeply in the ability of children to learn multilingually, then according to her, there is no place for them at Barnaby Jones.

Bettina Rubio: We can teach practices, become better at A, B, or C, the mechanics, but your belief system is your belief system. ...You believe in those children. You believe in them. I can teach you, I'm a coach! But I cannot teach you to think differently.... It's about the belief system. Cree profundamente en nuestros niños.

Bettina Rubio: We can teach practices, become better at A, B, or C, the mechanics, but your belief system is your belief system. ...You believe in those children. You believe in them. I can teach you, I'm a coach! But I cannot teach you to think differently.... It's about the belief system. *Believe deeply in our children.*

(Interview, 01/12/2024)

While these two examples highlight a strong connection between teacher beliefs and leadership, it is prudent to recognize the nuances in the contextual influences at play in the individual cases. Riverstone and Barnaby Jones are different DLBE programs. Riverstone, as a maintenance bilingual, has a “homogenous” population of mostly Latinx students. Barnaby Jones, as a two-way immersion, has a more heterogeneous mix of students. Therefore, another contextual influence that could contribute to this belief is that one school encourages and celebrates diversity and differences because ‘everyone is a language learner.’ At a maintenance program, ‘everyone is a language learner’ as well but it is unidirectional. The purpose of the maintenance program is to maintain the students’ first language, and that is why some educators (including school leaders) might struggle with the concept of students attending who speak a third language, such as Mam. I also want to acknowledge a

critical perspective that the students who speak a third language at Riverstone are from indigenous cultures in Central America, while the ones mentioned at Barnaby Jones come from Euro-Asiatic backgrounds, whose languages are typically more elevated than those of indigenous cultures.

4.3 RQ3 How do teachers' understandings of their professional identity (RQ1) and factors mentioned in RQ2 shape their instructional practices?

In my third research question, I examined how teachers' understandings of their professional identity and the factors mentioned in RQ2 shaped their instructional practices. For this dissertation, I define instructional practices as teaching strategies in DLBE that support the integration of content and language or provide support for language acquisition. Examples of instructional practices that I coded for based on the DLI rubric were "Scaffolding for Production," "Scaffolding for Comprehension," "Content and Language Integration" and "Cross-linguistic Connections." I found that the understandings and factors from RQs 1 and 2 shaped instructional practices such as teachers' use of translanguaging, making connections across languages, language scaffolding, and aligned instruction across languages.

4.3.1 Translanguaging/Use of Bilingualism

I found that the bilingual English teachers engaged in translanguaging and used their bilingualism while teaching. Teachers' use of translanguaging was related to their own biographies and school and district contexts (coded as contextual influences). Both English teachers were dual language program alumni, identified as bilingual, *and* used their language skills in their classes. However, there were marked

differences that I observed in how they engaged in translanguaging practices, which I attributed to the contextual influence of their teaching environment and DLBE program.

Faith Castle, at Riverstone Elementary, drew upon her bilingualism when teaching. However, she was a teacher in a district with a long history of one-way foreign language immersion that valued and emphasized language separation. Per district policy, she was not supposed to talk in Spanish in her classroom. Faith saw herself as a dual language teacher and her bilingualism was part of her identity, which I had already found was due to her own background as a student in DLBE.

Faith recognized the importance of using Spanish to ‘make connections’ for students, and would therefore use Spanish for that purpose, defying the district and program’s edicts.

Faith Castle: I’m a dual language teacher. And I use Spanish some of the time in my class. A lot of times we use it to make connections... like soup and soap and jabón like making the connections there...

(Interview, 12/12/2022)

In her interview, Ms. Castle asserts that she is a dual language teacher, and then follows that sentence with the statement that she uses her Spanish language skills to make connections for her students. When I observed Ms. Castle use Spanish in the classroom, she mostly used it to translate what she was saying for students. By translate, I mean that I observed her say something in English and then repeat the same word or phrase in Spanish. For example, one time she told students that they were doing something tomorrow, then said “mañana,” and repeated the word

‘tomorrow.’ In the example below, she spoke with a student in small group about the chapter in his book:

Faith Castle: How many chapters, capítulos? What is it? ¿Qué significa? It’s part of a book, parte de un libro.

Student: página

FC: Not a página, es una sección, a part of the book

(Fieldnotes, 01/17/2023)

On one occasion, I observed her recasting a student’s answer from Spanish to English during whole group instruction. The purpose was unclear, as she did not have the student repeat what she recast to try their answer in English. She simply restated what they said. On another occasion, she asked students about the differences in capitalization between Spanish and English as a way to make connections across languages. However, the majority of time that I observed her using Spanish, she used it to translate, not bridge. Translating is when a teacher says something in one language and repeats the exact phrase in the other language. Bridging is when teachers make a bridge, or connection, between two languages. The strict language separation policy of the school and district prohibited teachers from using strategies such as bridging and did not provide opportunities for teachers to learn how to bridge. Therefore, when Faith attempted to use her bilingualism to make these connections for students, she used her language in the way she knew how, which was to translate.

Blake Anderson stated in an interview that because he is bilingual, it is important to him that the language learners in his class, regardless of their home language, “can practice that [bilingualism]. I think I allow space for them to do that.”

One way that I observed him providing that space was by modeling his own bilingualism through translanguaging. He would dynamically code-switch between Spanish and English, using transitional words such as “primero” or “último” when talking, telling students to “dáme cinco” (give a high five),” and asking particular students if they were listening before calling the whole class to attention (Fieldnotes, 05/18/2023). He would sometimes use Spanish as a scaffold to call in students as well. He mentioned in his interview that he is familiar with bridging and translanguaging and does those strategies in class. Although a bridging lesson was not observed, there was a moment captured in a small group literacy lesson observation. Blake was reviewing vocabulary with students and said the word “similar” in English. A student, unprompted, observed that it sounded like *similar* in Spanish. Blake responded in Spanish to prompt, “Es un...” while pointing to the poster with cognates listed behind him, so he and the students together said “cognado” (Fieldnotes, 05/02/2023). This moment demonstrates both Blake’s use of translanguaging and the existence of bridging in the classroom; the students had a resource to refer to (cognates anchor chart) when identifying words that looked or sounded the same. This is where the contextual influences come into play, as bridging and translanguaging are strategies that Barnaby Jones prioritizes as part of DLBE instruction and has provided PD on these strategies in the past. As a result, although Blake is an English teacher, he felt confident to use Spanish in class as a way to model bilingualism and make connections for the students.

In summary, the two bilingual English teachers drew upon their backgrounds as DLBE alumni and used their bilingualism as a teaching tool, however the language

policy of the school and district, which I operationalize as contextual influences at the micro and macro levels respectively, influenced the ways in which the teachers used their bilingualism.

4.3.2 Language Scaffolding

The second finding for RQ3 draws upon the factors of contextual influences and the act of teaching language learners which influenced how teachers scaffolded for language.

Across the observations for English teachers, I observed all of the English teachers using a variety of different scaffolding strategies for language comprehension and production. However, the place where I noted the most difference was in teaching in Spanish.

In Riverstone, 98% of the students were Latinx with the dominant language being Spanish. However, Ms. Martinez, the 5th grade Spanish teacher, acknowledged that by 5th grade, English hegemony was taking hold in students. In an earlier quote from RQ1, she perceived her role as “a la refuerzo a los chicos que están perdiendo el idioma,” or for the reinforcement of students who are losing the language of Spanish. She acknowledged again the reality of students losing the language by 5th grade in the above quote, saying that she has students whose Spanish dominance is only at 48%, and the rest is in English, therefore she needs to give them vocabulary to increase their language and support for developing conversation skills. However, in both observations of literacy lessons, scaffolding for language development was not observed. The lessons were very focused on literacy skills such as point of view and author’s tone. However, interactions were mostly kept between the teacher and the

students, and there was very little evidence of scaffolds for student language production, such as sentence stems or visuals. In the excerpt below, Sra. Martinez wanted students to determine the author's tone from a scene at the end of a chapter of the book *Wonder* in which she was doing a shared reading with the class (meaning everyone had a copy of the book). This excerpt is a shortened version of a much longer frame of time in which Sra. Martinez was searching for the answer of envy, or envious, from students, but they could not quite get there. She repeated the question multiple times, prompted them to return and re-read the paragraph multiple times, and gave some other examples. Beyond that, she provided no additional scaffolds for students' language development. She had not previewed feeling words with them or activated prior knowledge. The students were trying and offered several other emotions (and then some genres) to answer the question, but ultimately Sra. Martinez had to provide the answer on her own.

Vanessa: ¿Cual es el sentimiento de la persona en este momento?

Estudiantes: Miedo, asustado, fantasia, misterio.

((Vanessa lee otra vez las 3 oraciones)) Piensa.

Estudiante: estaba curiosa

....

Vanessa: hay un sentimiento. recuerde que sentimiento es orgullo, coraje, amor

¿Cual es el sentimiento del autor a este personaje al final?

Estudiantes: horror, suspenso

Vanessa: EN-

Estudiantes: asusto, miedo, evidente.

Vanessa: Envidia

Clase: ooooooh

Vanessa Martinez: What is the feeling of the person in this moment?

Students: Fear, afraid, fantasy, mystery

((Vanessa again reads the three sentences)) Think.

Student: She was curious.

...

Vanessa Martinez: There is a feeling. Remember a feeling is pride, courage, love. What is the feeling from the author about this character at the end?

Students: horror, suspense

Vanessa Martinez: EN-

Students: frightened, fear, evident

Vanessa Martinez: Envy

Class: Ooooooh.

(Fieldnotes, 04/19/2023)

The lack of language scaffolds was also observed in the classroom of Ms. Diaz, the first grade Spanish teacher. However, this could also have been attributed to Ms. Diaz's being a novice teacher. In this example, I chose to focus on Sra. Martinez, a veteran teacher with prior immersion experience, to note the juxtaposition between acknowledging students' need for language development and the observed lack of language scaffolds. Both the Riverstone English teachers, Ms. Castle and Ms. Ke, used a variety of scaffolding strategies in their classrooms which included visuals,

sentence stems, and realia. In their classes, the students are in English and are therefore all considered language learners, hence the use of scaffolding.

At Barnaby Jones, the program is a two-way program meaning the students come from a background of both English (or other language) and Spanish speaking families. In RQ 1, Simón Jimenez and Laura Estrada both understand their roles as DLBE teachers as sharing their language (Simón) and teaching Spanish as another language (Laura).

Laura Estrada: [Un maestro bilingüe tiene que] ponerse en su lugar - entender que cada uno lleva su proceso de aprender un nuevo idioma

Laura Estrada: [A bilingual teacher has to] put themselves in their [students'] place – understand that each one has their own process of learning a new language.

(Interview, 07/31/2023)

Although teachers of both Spanish and English-speaking students, their focus was on the language learners in their class. In both of their interviews, they spoke of the challenge of receiving students in 2nd grade with no prior knowledge of or instruction in Spanish.

Simón: en cuanto al uso de español – la mayoría del tiempo – uso español
Entre ellos alguna tendencia de hablar en inglés. Con toda la clase o conmigo en español...Para mí, el desafío más grande es ese, especialmente cuando recibo estudiantes que son nuevos al programa y no tienen ningún

conocimiento del idioma español, pero están dentro de una clase que ya lleva varios años desarrollando el lenguaje.

Simón: Regarding the use of Spanish – most of the time – I use Spanish.

Among them some tendency to speak in English. With the whole class or with me in Spanish...For me, the biggest challenge is that, especially when I receive students who are new to the program and do not have any knowledge of the Spanish language, but they are in a class that has already been developing the language for several years.

(Interview, 06/21/2023)

As a result, their classes included a lot of scaffolds typically seen for language learners, such as Total Physical Response, the use of visual aids, and sentence starters. The excerpt below is taken from a Spanish language arts lesson on poetry. Simón introduced the vocabulary word “lagarto.” He drew upon student knowledge, had a visual aid (not pictured), and included multiple turn-and-talks throughout the lesson.

Simon: Hay 4 palabras que tenemos que aprendernos. La primera palabra es lagarto. ¿Alguien sabe que es un lagarto?

((Saca un palito))

¿Qué es un lagarto?

Estudiante: Es un animal

Simón: Voy a buscar otro amigo. Elvis.

Elvis: Es un reptile.

Simón: Es un animal, un reptil. Algún dato más.

Estudiante: It's a lizard.

Simón: Yo no sé que es un lagarto en inglés. Es animal, es reptil.

((Ellos hacen el movimiento de lagarto))

Simón: Es la primera palabra, lagarto.

Simón: There are four words that we have to learn. The first word is lizard.

Does anyone know what is a lizard?

((He pulls out an equity stick.))

What is a lizard?

Student: It's an animal.

Simón: I'm going to look for another student. Elvis.

Elvis: It's a reptile.

Simón: It's an animal, it's a reptile. One more fact.

Student: It's a "lizard" ((says in English))

Simón: I don't know what is a lizard in English. It's an animal, it's a reptile.

((They do the movement of a lizard.))

Simón: That's the first word, lizard.

(Fieldnotes, 05/02/2023)

In the English classrooms, scaffolds such as visuals, anchor charts, and cognates were used to help students understand the language. At Barnaby Jones, there is also clear messaging that "Everyone is a language teacher," which means all teachers are expected to teach language in their classes and show evidence of language acquisition strategies. This was evident in all the teachers' practices; I

observed multiple instances of comprehensible input and language acquisition strategies, including an emphasis on oral language development and production.

In summary, the population of students, or *who* are considered language learners in the program, influenced the ways that the teachers scaffolded for language development in their classes.

4.3.3 Aligned Instruction Across Languages

The third finding for RQ3 revealed how school structures and curriculum (which I coded as contextual influences) influenced teacher practice with a focus on language. At Barnaby Jones, teachers met to collaborate once a week in a dedicated, extra-long planning block, facilitated by a coach. Each week alternated planning for Humanities (language arts) and then planning for math and science. In the weeks dedicated to humanities, the teachers planned upcoming units using a paired literacy document. Units were thematically based and shared a common theme between languages. The paired literacy document included side-by-side columns where teachers outlined the standards that were going to be taught in the unit, essential questions, knowledge, and skills, vocabulary words, and the end of unit project. Teachers used this time and this document to co-plan, identify connections, and create common strategies. Drawing upon the CoP framework, I conceptualized shared planning time as mutual engagement for teachers and the paired literacy documents as a tool for shared repertoire (discussed in RQ2). All four Barnaby Jones teachers spoke about this process and referred to planning across languages as an essential component to teaching in DLBE. Laura Estrada and Brad Miller refer to how they

were “reinforcing a strategy in the other language,” “helping to make connections between Spanish and English,” comparing “which standards we’re going to share” and how they might be taught differently in the two classrooms.

Laura Estrada: Es importante dar espacio que los dos [idiomas] son importantes. No hay una competencia de cual es más importante... Creo que entender esa parte que estamos trabajando juntos en una escuela bilingüe, que necesitan colaborar, no como, si él está enseñando una estrategia de lectura, yo puedo reforzarlo en el otro idioma... Por ejemplo, informational texts - el niño ya sabe que es un subtítulo, ayudar hacer la conexión entre ingles y espanol ...esto es super importante ...fortalece el programa...entender las transferencias.

Laura Estrada: *It is important to make space that treats both languages as important. There is no competition about which is more important... I think understanding that part that we are working together in a bilingual school, that you need to collaborate, like, if he [Brad] is teaching a reading strategy, I can reinforce that strategy in the other language... For example, information texts – the child already know what a caption is, it helps make the connection between English and Spanish... this is super importante... it strengthens the program... to understand the transfers.*

(Interview, 07/31/2023)

Brad Miller: Well, I mean, the main way we do it is since they started [collaborative planning], [collaborative planning] time is great for that, you know...during that time it'll be a lot on like curriculum and how we're going

to structure a unit, who's going to cover what standards, which standards we're going to share and how we might do them differently.

(Interview, 06/23/2023)

I conducted observations during the second grade unit on folktales, fairytales and fables. The Spanish teachers focused on fables while the English teachers focused on folktales (specifically, different versions of the “3 Little Pigs.” In the paired literacy document, both units share the 2nd grade standard RL2.1 “Recount stories, including fables and folktales from diverse cultures, and determine their central message, lesson, or moral. The Spanish teachers focused on the second part of the standard “determining the central message”; it was highlighted on that side of the document. On the English side, the focus was on recounting and summarizing. This shared repertoire and alignment between languages was then observed in instruction.

I observed Mr. Miller and Sra. Estrada’s literacy lessons within two days of each other. In the above excerpts, you can see the alignment between the curriculum as a result of the co-planning between teachers. Mr. Miller taught a lesson on summarizing a different version of the “Three Little Pigs,” as part of the instruction of RL2.2, asking students to find the main events.

Mr. Miller: What is a folktale?

Mr. Miller: Turn and talk to your partner.

((students talk within their tables))

((Mr. Miller calls class back together))

Steven: a folktale is a story that’s been passed down generation to generation.

Mr. Miller: *How?*

Steven: and is TOLD

Mr. Miller: yes!

Student: different versions in different cultures

Mr. Miller: as [student] said, folktales are passed down over generations, telling your own version. We are going to find the main events in each story.

We did it with the first book – “The Three Little Pigs.”

Let’s review. It’s a big story, there are lots of details.

We just want the summary.

Who are the main characters in this book?

Tell your partners.

(Fieldnotes, 05/16/2023)

Two days later, Sra. Estrada taught a lesson on fables, in which students read a fable to identify the central message. She also focused on the structure of the story, and asked students “What does a fable have?” which included answers such as “main characters, animals that act like humans” as well as the parts of the fable.

Laura Estrada: ¿Qué tiene la fábula? Dile a tu amigo, ¿que tiene la fábula?

((Los estudiantes hablan entre ellos.))

2 niñas – una muy callada/timida. La otra le pregunta. Ella no responde

((Sra. Estrada les pregunta “qué es una fábula” y la más hablante responde))

-Personajes principales y animales que actúan como seres humanos

...

Laura Estrada: ¿Qué más tiene una fábula?

...

También tiene un principio

Steven

Laura Estrada: Nudo, desenlace, moraleja

Vamos con una práctica de personajes

Laura Estrada: What is in a fable? Tell your friend, what is in fable?

((Students talk between themselves))

2 girls – one is very quiet/shy. The other asks her the question. She doesn't respond.

((Sra. Estrada asks them "what is a fable?" and the more talkative one responds))

- *Main characters and animals that act like human beings*

...

Laura Estrada: What is in a fable?

...

There is also a beginning.

Steven

Laura Estrada: problem, outcome, moral

Let's practice with the characters.

(Fieldnotes, 05/18/2023)

Although in this example the teachers were teaching different stories and focusing on different skills (recounting vs. determining the central message), they were aligned because they were focused on the same *standard* which they had

discussed in their collaborative planning time and knew how each person was teaching that standard.

Therefore, the collaborative structures provided by the school of both dedicated time and a protocol (paired literacy document) provided a space for teachers to align their instruction and strengthen their teaching across languages. In essence, the teachers have a Community of Practice where they mutually engage in the work of planning language arts and utilize a shared repertoire (paired literacy document to guide their planning) toward the shared enterprise of biliteracy and academic achievement.

At Riverstone, the teachers also had a weekly meeting facilitated by an instructional leader. This meeting was departmentalized by subject: ELA or Math. Therefore, the English teachers always attended the ELA meetings, and the Spanish teachers always attended the math meetings. There was no such dedicated instructional meeting time for Spanish language arts. That also meant there was no common time for the ELA and SLA teachers to meet together with support or guidance from school leadership. This lack of collaborative planning structure affected the ways in which the DLBE teachers aligned, or rather did not align, instruction across languages. This lack of support was noted by Ms. Ke, who having been at the school since the launch of the DLBE program, noted that partner teachers were told they did not have to connect the curriculum at all. However, she and her partner teacher at the time recognized the importance of collaborating and *did it anyway*. With her current partner teacher, Ms. Diaz, Ms. Ke admits that she does not know what Ms. Diaz is doing in her classroom.

Hannah Ke [00:44:51] At the beginning they were saying, it doesn't matter where you are in the curriculum, like you don't have to connect it at all. But we [past partner] felt like it would be more beneficial if we did. So we talked to each other and made it work that way. Yeah. So being able to communicate about everything, behaviors, where we are in the curriculum. Like, I have no idea what Ms. Diaz is doing with writing, language arts, or anything. I don't know what she does at all. It'd be nice if we could, like, observe one another.

(Interview, 02/24/2023)

Ms. Diaz corroborated the surface type level of communication that Ms. Ke mentioned, which is relegated to alternating who sends home word lists for students, checking in about behaviors, and “sitting together on field trips.”

Helena Diaz [00:54:48]: Pues estamos ahora trabajando juntas en lo que es. Estamos haciendo unos diarios de palabras en lo que ellos una semana aprenden unas palabras en inglés. La llevan a su casa... Yo uso mis palabras de uso frecuente que me da el libro. Y después, una semana me toca a mí y una semana nos toca a ella. Usamos la misma libreta... Estamos haciendo eso juntas. También cuando se trata de conductas también trabajamos juntas.... También cuando vamos a field trips o algo así, pues también tratamos de sentarnos juntas. ¿Tiene-cuántos niños tiene ya? ¿Cuántos niños te faltan? Este. Y en ese tipo de cosas tratamos de ayudarnos.

Helena Diaz: Well right now we are working together in what is... We are doing word diaries that the students do one week in English. They take it to their house. I use the high frequency words that the book gives me. And after,

one week is my turn and one week is her turn. We use the same notebook... we are doing that together. Also, when we go on field trips or something like that, we also try to sit together. How many students do you have? How many students are missing? That. And in those types of things we try to help each other.

(Interview, 05/04/2023)

The lack of structured planning time with partner teachers was echoed by Ms. Castle and Sra. Martinez in their interviews as well. In summary, the Riverstone teachers recognize that the lack of structures to support collaborative planning result in missed opportunities to align instruction.

The first grade follows a bilingual curriculum in which the literacy units share the same themes and essential questions. In some cases, the Spanish and English classrooms even teach the same texts. There are opportunities for teachers to collaborate to make connections across languages. However, without the structures or shared repertoire (time, place, facilitation, tools) to mutually engage in co-planning, these opportunities are missed (even if they are wanted by teachers).

The missed opportunities for alignment across languages were harder to identify in practice, aside from noting in observations that the teachers were teaching two different lessons. The below excerpts are from back-to-back observations in the English and Spanish first grade classrooms. Both are examples of phonics instruction. On the left, Ms. Ke focused on CVC words in a small group. There was an opportunity for a cross-language connection when students misunderstood “pen” as “pin.” The vowel phonemes of /i/ and /e/ in English are frequently confusing to

language learners. Although Ms. Ke used a language acquisition strategy (realia) to demonstrate the meaning, she did not address the phonemic difference.

((Next word is pin))

Ms. Ke: /p/ /i/ /n/

Ms. Ke: Alright, let's make the sounds long, pinnnnn

Ms. Ke: Stretch it, piiiin, make it long.

Kevin: /pi/

Ms. Ke: /n/, say the sounds.

Ms. Ke: piinnn

Kevin: Pin.

Ms. Ke: Do you know what a pin is?

Yessica: Yes, you can click it.

Ms. Ke: That's pen ((shows a pen)).

((She gets up and shows a pin))

(Fieldnotes, 02/28/2023)

Sra. Diaz reviewed the syllables “ca, que, qui, co, cu” with students. Later, she pulled a small group to do a *dictado*, or dictation exercise, in which a focus was unclear.

02/27

Sra. Diaz: ¿Qué sonido tienen estas sílabas?

Todos: ca que qui co cu

((Dice a una estudiante distraída que tienen que recordar estos para leer más rápidos))

((Ella repite los sonidos con ellos.))

~~~~~

((Ella mueve ocho estudiantes en otra parte de la alfombra para empezar el dictado.))

Sra. Diaz: Primera palabra - jabalí

((Ella deja el grupo de dictado para apoyar el grupo terminando la escritura. Vuelve al grupo de dictado.))

Sra. Diaz: Segunda palabra - camisa

((Un estudiante en el grupo de dictado dice que terminó entonces ella le dice que escoja una palabra y tiene que escribir una oración.))

*Sra. Diaz: What sounds do these syllables have?*

*Everyone: ca que qui co cu*

*((She tells a distracted student that they need to remember this so that they can read more quickly))*

*((She repeats the sounds with the students)).*

~~~~~

((She moves eight students to another part of the carpet to begin the dictation activity.))

Sra. Diaz: First word - jabalí

((She leaves the dictation group to support the group finishing the writing activity. She returns to the dictation group.))

Sra. Diaz: Second word - camisa

((A student in the dictation group says she finished entonces Sra. Diaz tells her to choose a word and write a sentence.))

(Fieldnotes, 02/27/2023)

Other examples of missed opportunities for aligning curriculum and instruction were noted in interviews; Ms. Castle was particularly conscientious of the areas in the 4th grade curriculum that were not aligned, but in her opinion, should be.

4.3.4 Making Connections Across Languages

Making Connections Across Languages

A final finding arose around teachers making connections across languages. Across all classrooms, teachers' attention to language was evident through rich linguistic input via anchor charts and posters in their classroom. However, the practice of making connections across languages seemed both more intentional and implemented more frequently in Barnaby Jones than in Riverstone. Simon Jimenez

and Blake Anderson, partner teachers at Barnaby Jones, discussed how they collaboratively plan to make connections across languages.

Simon Jimenez: muchas veces en lo que hacemos es cuando se desarrolla un tema de qué conexiones podemos encontrar? O a veces, no sé, comenzando por palabras, ¿qué palabras? Seguramente vamos a ver que hay se van a repetir mucho en cada una de las dos. Es como poder hacer una traducción si es necesario, si es un cognado xx para que ellos puedan verla en los dos idiomas. En algunas partes también hemos intentado usar las mismas, por ejemplo organizadores de ideas para que ellos vean como se hacen los dos idiomas y puedan usar la misma herramienta en ambos idiomas.... De igual forma qué cosas se están haciendo en inglés, que nosotros podamos en español hacer un puente, bien sea por vocabulario o bien sea por un concepto específico.

Simón Jimenez: Many time what we do is we develop a theme and [ask] what connections can we find? Or sometimes, I don't know, we'll be starting with words, what words? Surely we are going to see that there are going to be a lot of repetitions in each of the two. It's like being able to make a translation if necessary, if it is a cognate xx so that they can see it in both languages. In some parts we have also tried to use the same tools, for example idea organizers so that they can see how the two languages are done and can use the same tool in both languages... In the same way, what things are being

done in English, we can make a bridge in Spanish, either through vocabulary or through a specific concept.

(Interview, 06/21/2023)

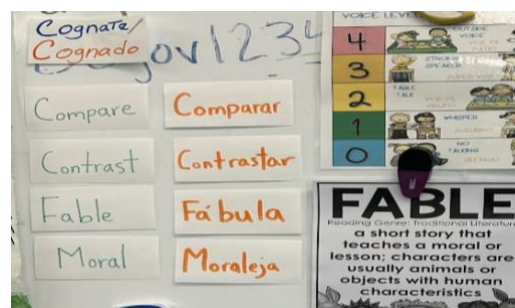
Blake Anderson: Talking about like, you know, what's the concept we're going over, what's you know, what's the unit on? What's the language we want to use across both like languages? What are like the, like cognates that we're going to use? What are the terms? And then what skill sets are we trying to like, emphasize in both languages. So. Like what? Like if Simón is going over, like, story structure in Spanish, what can I do in English to support him and vice versa? And those are always kind of fun to do.

(Interview, 05/31/2023)

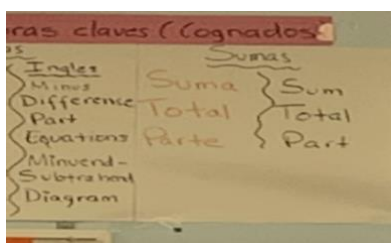
The emphasis on making connections between languages was evident across all four classrooms at Barnaby Jones through the use of cognate walls and bilingual vocabulary anchor charts. See the four photos below which were taken in each classroom.



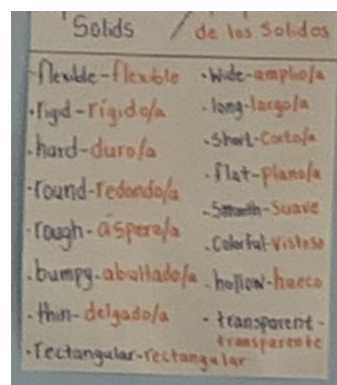
Cognate Wall, Spanish Classroom Simón Jimenez, 05/02/2023



Cognate Wall, English Classroom, Blake Anderson, 05/01/2023



Cognate Anchor Chart, Spanish Classroom, Laura Estrada, 05/18/2023



Bilingual Vocabulary Anchor Chart, English Classroom, Brad Miller, 05/17/2023

As illustrated previously, Blake Anderson referred to his cognate wall during instruction, when students pointed out that the word “similar” in English sounds like *similar* in Spanish. The interviews and artifacts demonstrate that teachers making connections across languages is an expectation and is valued across the school.

At Riverstone, the strict language separation policy meant teachers were not supposed to use the other language in class. As such, I did not observe evidence of cross-linguistic connections in the classroom environments. However, teachers

revealed evidence of making connections across languages in their interviews or I observed them doing so in their observations.

I illustrated previously the case of Faith Castle, who pushed back on this separation by using Spanish in her class anyway. There were two more instances where other Riverstone teachers made connections or referred to making connections across languages. First, Vanessa Martinez explained a project that spontaneously occurred with comparing sentences across languages.

Vanessa Martinez: ...hubo una vez que [la maestra de inglés] estaba trabajando lo que era estructura de la oración, entonces creó una como si fuera unos carteles como los libros. Entonces cada libro tenía una oración específica en inglés. Entonces yo le dije la parte de del lado estaba vacía y yo le dije <<Qué tú crees si hacemos esto muy grande, estos libros así muy grande, los colocamos al frente.>> Entonces los estudiantes que tenían la oración en inglés y el programa de español la iba a traducir en español, entonces ahí van a ver ambas estructuras que no es la misma en inglés ni en español, porque no es lo mismo decir por ejemplo, "My favorite color is red." Ok, decir, <<Mi color favorito es>>... La estructura del lenguaje cambia. Entonces la tenían ahí visualmente. Entonces me decían <<pues este es el adjetivo antes y aquí el adjetivo va después.>> Entonces la tenían visualmente y fue una actividad bien interesante.

Vanessa Martinez: ...there was a time that she [the English teacher] was working on sentence structure, so she created like book posters. So every book had a specific sentence in English. Then I said to her that the part next to it

was empty and I said, “What do you think if we do something very big, these books like this are very big, we put them out front.” Then the students that had a sentence in English, in the Spanish program they translated it to Spanish, then from there they see both structures that are not the same in English nor in Spanish, because it’s not the same to say, for example, “My favorite color is red.” Ok, you would say “Mi color favorito es” ... The structure of the language changes. So they had that visually. And they told me, “So this is the adjective before and here the adjective goes after.” So they had it visually and it was a very interesting activity.

(Interview, 03/15/2023)

Hannah Ke also made connections across languages. As noted in the first research question, she stated that since becoming a DLBE teacher, she has been more intentional in making connections across languages. I observed her make a connection during a science lesson comparing and contrasting baby and adult eagles:

Hannah Ke: Okay, so we have our sentence starters over here. ((Points to anchor chart)) I put “Parent eagles and their babies are... do you know what this word is?”

Students: Similar!

Hannah Ke: Similar. ((makes gesture with hands)) That means like *similar* (said in Spanish), it’s similar. So I put that in green and this green sentence is a sentence starter for how we can say how they are similar ((Makes gesture again))

(Fieldnotes, 04/24/2023)

This final finding brings us full circle to the first finding in RQ1. DLBE teachers recognize that DLBE programs are a unique place to work and teach because of the emphasis on language pedagogy. This was a common finding between all the teachers. However, due to the contextual influences such as district and school language policy, language instruction that emphasized making connections across languages looked vastly different. At Barnaby Jones, teachers were expected to make connections across languages, and their classroom environments and instruction reflected this expectation. At Riverstone, language isolation was the name of the game. Teachers found opportunities to make connections for students, such as comparing sentence structures or acknowledging cognates; these instances largely happened in isolation and appeared to be more spur-of-the-moment connections rather than reflections of intentional and thoughtful planning.

Chapter 5: Discussion

In this study, I examined how DLBE teachers understood their professional identities, which factors contribute to a language teacher identity, and how that identity shows up in teacher practice. In this chapter, I will discuss each of my findings and its relevance to the literature in the field. I will end with implications for the field in both research and practice.

5.1 Discussion

DLBE Teacher Identity: Language and More

I found that DLBE professional identity reflects the goals of DLBE: bilingualism and biliteracy, academic achievement in both languages, and sociocultural competence. DLBE teachers acknowledge the emphasis on teaching language in DLBE programs. In other words, all of the teachers described the importance or necessity of having pedagogical language knowledge (Bunch, 2013; Cammarata & Tedick, 2012) when teaching in a DLBE program, similar to the findings of other studies in which DLBE teachers identify linguistic proficiency, specialized training, and sociocultural competency as requirements for DLBE teachers (Franco-Fuenmayor et al., 2015; Hood, 2020; Lachance, 2017b). This would place them on my original continuum firmly in the territory of “language teachers.”

However, the subsequent findings to RQ1 revealed that my original continuum was a rather narrow conceptualization of DLBE teacher and ignored the depth and complexity that is DLBE teacher identity, which I will attempt to explain in the following paragraphs.

First, although all of the teachers acknowledged that teaching in DLBE is different due to the focus on language, their understanding of the role of language in their teaching varied according to both their backgrounds and their beliefs. I understand that using the phrase ‘the role of language’ may come across as a rather vague statement; with the high number of participants (for a qualitative study), the DLBE teachers had varied understandings about how language connected to their teaching and their roles as language teachers. The English teachers shared a common thread around the use of language to make connections; even within that common thread, there were strands of variation. For example, the bilingual English teachers in both schools connected being bilingual to their role as dual language teachers. They were both alumni of DLBE elementary schools and used their bilingual skills in their teaching to create bilingual spaces for students and to make connections; their bilingualism connected strongly to their DLBE teacher identities. The two English teachers who did not identify as bilingual in English and Spanish, also had varied understandings of the role of language in their teaching and their role as language teachers. Brad Miller viewed language as a way to build relationships between people, which he conceptualized as creating opportunities and expectations for students to use their full linguistic abilities, their “Bilingual Brains,” during class discussions. Hannah Ke focused on the more heuristic view of language in her teaching; she viewed knowledge of the other (program) language as valuable to her teaching and a tool that could be used to help students “make connections.”

The Spanish language teachers understood the role of language in their teaching as language development for their students, however even this

conceptualization varied between the two schools, which had very different student populations. The Spanish language teachers at Barnaby Jones, a TWI school, viewed the role of language in their teaching as language development for Spanish language learners. The challenge of supporting Spanish language learners, especially students who had recently joined the school in second grade, was a common concern voiced by Simón Jimenez and Laura Estrada. Simón saw language as something to share along with his roots and culture. Laura focused on second language acquisition as an important process for DLBE teachers to understand. At Riverstone, a one-way maintenance program, Vanessa Martinez and Helena Diaz acknowledged the challenge of English hegemony in their classrooms and understood their role as language teachers as maintaining and protecting the Spanish space and providing Spanish language instruction for the “refuerzo,” or reinforcement, of the language. This finding revealed that for all the DLBE teachers, language matters. This finding is significant because it shows the multitude of ways that DLBE teachers view the role of language in their classroom as well as the possibilities that emerge about how to support current and future DLBE teachers in connecting the role of language to the goals and purpose of DLBE. One example connected to the findings would be how to address the inequality when DLBE teachers focus on the needs of (predominantly English-speaking) Spanish learners in a TWI program (Oliveira et al., 2020). Another example could be to support teachers in creating a common language about making connections across languages (Howard & Simpson, 2023). Ultimately, the aim would be to build upon teachers’ language awareness to provide the tools for them to

become advocates and language policymakers within their DLBE classrooms (Babino & Stewart, 2018), in order to teach DLBE pedagogies related to the DLBE goals.

Finally, all teachers recognized the importance of sociocultural competence in their teaching. Sociocultural competence was not part of my original curriculum; however, it is one of the Pillars of DLBE and emerged as a common theme in the teachers' understanding of their DLBE professional identity. Sociocultural competence is grounded in "identity development, cross-cultural competence, and multicultural appreciation" (Howard et al., 2018). In prior editions of the Guiding Principles of Dual Language Education, the third pillar was named "cross-cultural competence," however scholars found that term to be limiting and a denial of the rich linguistic and cultural backgrounds that students bring and that DLBE should sustain. Therefore, the Pillar was updated in 2018 to include identity development and renamed "sociocultural competence."

I provide this history because I found parallels between the progression of the third pillar outlined above and teachers' understanding of sociocultural competence in this dissertation study. In this study, teachers demonstrated a nuanced understanding of sociocultural competence that ranged from 'knowing' about the cultures of the students to modeling and teaching a respect for different cultures among the students. Laura Estrada touched upon the indelibly interwoven relationship between language and culture when she said "Ser bilingüe no es solo hablar español, es entender una cultura" (*Being bilingual is not only speaking Spanish, it is understanding a culture*). Sonia Nieto (2022) defined culture as

...the ever-changing values, traditions, social and political relationships, and worldview created, shared, and transformed by a group of people bound together by a combination of factors that can include a common history, geographic location, language, social class, and religion” (p. 129).

Nieto (2022) also claimed that culture is dynamic, moving, changing; in essence, culture is a verb (Arvizu, 1994). In this dissertation study, several of the teachers (Faith Castle, Vanessa Martinez, and Helena Diaz) mentioned empathy or knowledge of students’ cultures as something to ‘have.” These responses demonstrate two things about the knowledge of students’ cultures: first, that it is a static thing that can be used as a tool in teaching, and the second is that it is something that is centered on what teachers have, rather than the students. In contrast, other teachers (Brad Miller, Blake Anderson, Simón Jimenez) used action-oriented words such as “living respectfully,” “interacting with other people,” and respecting students’ “diversity and [promoting] that diversity.” Their responses reveal an understanding of the DLBE teacher’s active role in modeling and teaching sociocultural competence with students. This distinction in responses connects to the ongoing tension in the discourse around the purpose of DLBE (Bernstein et al., 2020), with the knowledge of cultures as something to have representing instrumentalism (Wee, 2003; Kubota, 2011) and the action of modeling and living sociocultural competence representing the perspective of equity and social justice (Cervantes-Soon et al., 2017), which involves critical consciousness (Freire, 1970; Palmer et al., 2019). As scholars have started to focus on sociocultural competence in DLBE (Freire & Valdez, 2017; Freire, 2020), I believe this study raises larger questions connected to teachers’ use of

Culturally Responsive Pedagogy (Ladson-Billings, 2006), Culturally Sustaining Pedagogy (Paris, 2012; Paris & Alim, 2014), and critical consciousness in the DLBE classroom.

Recent research has called attention to critical consciousness conceptualized as a fourth Pillar (Palmer et al., 2019), and has been described as “the foundation that propels all work in DLBE” (Heiman et al., 2023, pp. 51-52). In this study, I found little observable evidence or explicit mention of critical consciousness among the teachers, with the exception of Brad Miller, who recognized DLBE’s purpose of maintaining students’ home languages and valuing minoritized students’ linguistic knowledge with a social justice orientation. Critical consciousness could potentially be an important part of DLBE teacher identity and how a teacher understands the mission and vision of DLBE (which I found to be an important part of DL teacher identity in relation to RQ2). Future research is needed to further examine the role of critical consciousness in DLBE teacher identity.

Findings related to teachers’ understanding of sociocultural competence as a central DLBE goal leads to questions about how and why the teachers arrived at these conceptualizations, as their responses were divided by school. Although I did not explore this nuanced understanding of sociocultural competence further in RQ2, I believe that some of the contextual factors identified in the findings for RQ2 could contribute to these understandings and are worthy of further exploration.

As I reflect on the continuum I used in the beginning of my study and compare it to the findings that emerged, I found that although language awareness is an essential and core part of DLBE teacher identity, other aspects such as

sociocultural competence must be acknowledged and included when considering what constitutes a DLBE professional teacher identity. Additionally, while content and language may not necessarily reside on a continuum of opposite ends in DLBE teacher identity, language and sociocultural competence are likewise more complex than a simple dichotomy as teachers demonstrated nuanced and varied understandings of how language and sociocultural competence related to their role as DLBE teachers.

5.1.2 The Complex Strands that Contribute to DLBE Language Teacher Identity

DLBE teachers' understanding of their professional identity was informed by a variety of factors which interacted with each other in multiple and complex ways. I will explain how these factors interacted in this section.

The factors that I found included their backgrounds and experiences, multiple contextual influences such as school community, communities of practice, and leadership, and teacher beliefs. For the English language teachers, past personal or professional experiences with bilingualism and DLBE fostered an awareness of and interest in teaching in DLBE programs, as in the cases of Faith Castle, Blake Anderson, and Brad Miller. Faith Castle and Blake Anderson were alumni of DLBE programs. On the one hand, it's heartening to see the flowers of the seeds that were planted years ago when many DLBE programs were beginning in the country; those students are now becoming teachers. On the other hand, both of these teachers came from English-speaking families and learned Spanish as a second language. It is important to recognize that there is still a need and a shortage of bilingual, Latinx teachers. DLBE programs are intended as a solution to the monoglossic English

education that MLs experience. As teacher educators and researchers work to strengthen the bilingual teacher pipeline, we must continue to be mindful of who is being represented and who remains invisible in DLBE and teacher education programs.

Brad Miller taught in a monolingual school previously and learned about DLBE during his graduate studies in teacher education, which suggests the importance of including DLBE in language teacher education programs. As teacher education programs consider how to prepare PSTs to teach MLs, this finding reveals the importance of exposing PSTs to the possibilities of bilingual education through coursework and field experiences. This finding builds on the work of scholars who have noted that teachers lack DLBE-specific training (Amanti, 2019; Lachance, 2017b) while simultaneously acknowledging the work of scholars and teacher educators who have been advocating for more DLBE-specific training in teacher education (Dantas-Whitney & Dugan Waldschmidt, 2009; de Jong & Barko-Alva, 2015; Hood, 2020; Varghese & Snyder, 2018).

Contextual influences at both the micro and macro levels also contributed to language teacher identity, in particular school community, communities of practice, and leadership. In this discussion, I will explain each of these influences and show how they contributed to language teacher identity. Both Faith Castle and Blake Anderson identified students, families, and colleagues as members of the school community that motivated them to stay teaching in their DLBE program. Communities of practice and leadership also played significant roles. These two factors manifested very differently in each of their schools and influenced the

teachers' emotions, with one choosing to stay and one opting to leave. Blake Anderson felt supported as a new teacher in his role due to collaborative structures, guiding documents, and supportive leadership at his school. Faith Castle, on the other hand, described "collaborative planning meetings" as times where she was told what to do. She felt largely unheard and acknowledged by leadership, and therefore felt 'burnt out;' leading to her departure from teaching in the program.

Drawing upon the Communities of Practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998) framework, teachers at Barnaby Jones were able to utilize a shared repertoire and mutually engage in working toward a joint enterprise (the goals of DLBE). Three of the four teachers in this study had been teaching at Barnaby Jones for over ten years; the fourth teacher was an alumnus of the program, demonstrating teachers' connection to and desire to remain teaching in the school. In comparison, the Riverstone teachers had less opportunities to mutually engage with fellow teachers within the DLBE strand or with their partner teacher, had little shared repertoire, and ultimately did not share a common understanding of the goals of DLBE. Two teachers in this study reported feeling burnt out and ultimately left Riverstone. This finding reveals that communities of practice can provide an opportunity for both DLBE teacher learning and retention.

Teacher beliefs and the role of leadership in fostering those beliefs also emerged as key factors in the development of a language teacher identity. Hannah Ke presented a complex case as a teacher who had been with the school through its transition from a monolingual to a DLBE program. Hannah understood the difference between monolingual programs and DLBE via the emphasis on language instruction

and demonstrated an awareness of the PLK that teachers need to teach in a DLBE program; she also used multiple language scaffolding strategies in her instruction to support students' language development in her English classroom. However, she admitted to having concerns about multilingual students being in the program as well as the ability of the program to teach students' English. In short, although she could state the goals of DLBE, she did not appear to believe in them, echoing Henderson's (2020) findings about the assimilationist ideologies of English teachers in DLBE. Although Hannah voiced doubts about the program, her disbelief in the goals did not seem to connect to her teaching practice as she exhibited strong language scaffolding strategies. Hannah's case leads to additional questions about the connections between teachers' beliefs, teacher identity, and teacher practice in DLBE, which is a direction I would like to explore further in future research.

The role of leadership in communicating and supporting the goals of teachers also emerged as a finding. At Riverstone, Hannah revealed that she felt that the goals had shifted between administrators since the start of the program; this was triangulated by the DLBE coordinator admitting that she had to communicate the goals to both teachers and administrators as they had been unaware of them previously. In comparison, teachers identified the leadership at Barnaby Jones as supportive; teachers were also clear on what the goals of DLBE were and believed in the goals. I too triangulated this with an interview with the school leader in which she clarified that she specifically hires people who believe in the goals of DLBE over teaching knowledge or skills. Research on leadership in DLBE has shown that knowledgeable leaders are essential to the success of DLBE programs, however only

recently have scholars begun to examine how to develop DLBE leaders (Alanís & Rodriguez, 2008; Bernstein, 2020; Chestnut & Morita-Mullaney, 2023; DeMatthews & Izquierdo, 2016; 2018; Menken, 2017).

5.1.3 Teacher Practice

Finally, teacher understandings of their professional identity as well as the aforementioned factors shaped the instructional practices of teachers in their use of translanguageing and bilingualism, the way that they scaffolded for language acquisition, how they aligned their instruction, and how they made connections across languages for students. Contextual influences at the district and school level around language policy played a large role in teacher instruction. The teachers at Barnaby Jones were encouraged to bridge between the languages and make connections through collaborative structures and tools that prioritized teachers' planning to make the connections. This was evident through Blake Anderson's dynamic use of bilingualism in class and the evidence of cognate word walls or bilingual vocabulary anchor charts in all of the classrooms. Riverstone was a relatively new DLBE program in a district with a long history of one-way immersion that prioritized the strict separation of languages. Although teachers at Riverstone recognized the value of making connections across languages, the school did not have many structures or tools to support making connections across languages. Teachers made agentic moves to push back on language separation and make connections when they felt it was appropriate (Babino & Stewart, 2018), however this largely occurred as in-the-moment supports rather than intentionally planned teaching points to facilitate student language comprehension and development. This finding points to the ongoing tension

that DLBE programs grapple with around translanguaging and dynamic bilingualism (Palmer et al., 2014; Esquinca et al., 2014; Gort & Sembiente, 2015; Pratt & Ernst-Slavit, 2019; Sanchez et al., 2018).

The act of teaching language learners also illustrated the complexity and connections between DLBE teacher identity and practice. Due to demographics in a two-way immersion program, everyone at some point in the day is a language learner. Therefore, “every teacher is a language teacher,” a phrase that was often said by leadership at Barnaby Jones. The teachers at Barnaby Jones stated the importance of language and bilingualism in their roles as DLBE teachers. They also acknowledged the importance of sociocultural competence as something that teachers must model and be responsible for cultivating in their students. This awareness of all students as language learners was also evident in their instruction, as I observed scaffolding moves and evidence of cross-linguistic connections throughout their observations. All of the teachers were enthusiastic about teaching in a DLBE program, whether it was to share their own language and culture, teach a second language, or to model for students the power of bilingualism. Only one teacher at Barnaby Jones mentioned the benefits of DLBE as culturally and linguistically sustaining for students whose home language is Spanish. The majority of the responses represent a nonpolitical view of language teaching (Dantas-Whitney & Dugan Waldschmidt, 2009) that uplifts plurilingualism in all students, regardless of background (Council of Europe, 2001; MacSwan, 2017).

Riverstone, as a maintenance bilingual program, where the instruction was labeled as “one-way” Spanish to English, and the students were all considered

multilingual learners (MLs) of English. This was also evident in teacher identity in practice. Spanish teachers, such as Sra. Martinez, understood their role in supporting students' maintenance, or "refuerzo," of their home language. The English teachers, Ms. Castle and Ms. Ke, used several scaffolding strategies in their instruction. However, scaffolding strategies to support language comprehension were not observed in the Spanish classrooms, possibly due to the assumption that students do not need language scaffolding in their 'native language.' However, the prevailing dichotomy of Spanish dominant or Spanish as a native language vs. English dominant or English as a native language ignores the rich linguistic variation that students bring to the DLBE classroom. In the case of Riverstone, there were in fact several speakers of Mam enrolled in the program who were receiving their formal education in Spanish and English, thereby necessitating scaffolding in both languages. While Barnaby Jones as a school celebrated the diverse linguistic backgrounds of students, both Ms. Yanez and Ms. Ke expressed misgivings about having Mam-speaking students in the DLBE program at Riverstone. This finding leads to questions about how to support language learners in various types of DLBE programs. Additionally, this finding raises questions about how to support teachers in acknowledging the rich linguistic diversity of their students and teaching to students' linguistic strengths.

In conclusion, this study illuminates the complexity of DLBE teacher identity and the connection between DLBE teacher identity and practice. This dissertation marks what I hope is the beginning in continued research into DLBE teacher identity. Future research directions include teacher identity in DLBE with a raciolinguistic focus, examining DLBE teachers' motivation and investment in DLBE programs, and

continued exploration of the role of leadership in DLBE. A limitation of this study was that I did not include a raciolinguistic lens through which to examine teachers' professional identity and its relationship to practice. Although I had a diverse set of participants, I chose to focus more on their professional understandings of teaching DLBE related to language and content rather than through a critical lens of race and language. This is an area I would like to explore more fully in future research. A second direction for future research is the use of the lenses of motivation and investment to examine teachers' participation in DLBE programs. In the following section, I discuss implications for research and practice.

5.2 Implications

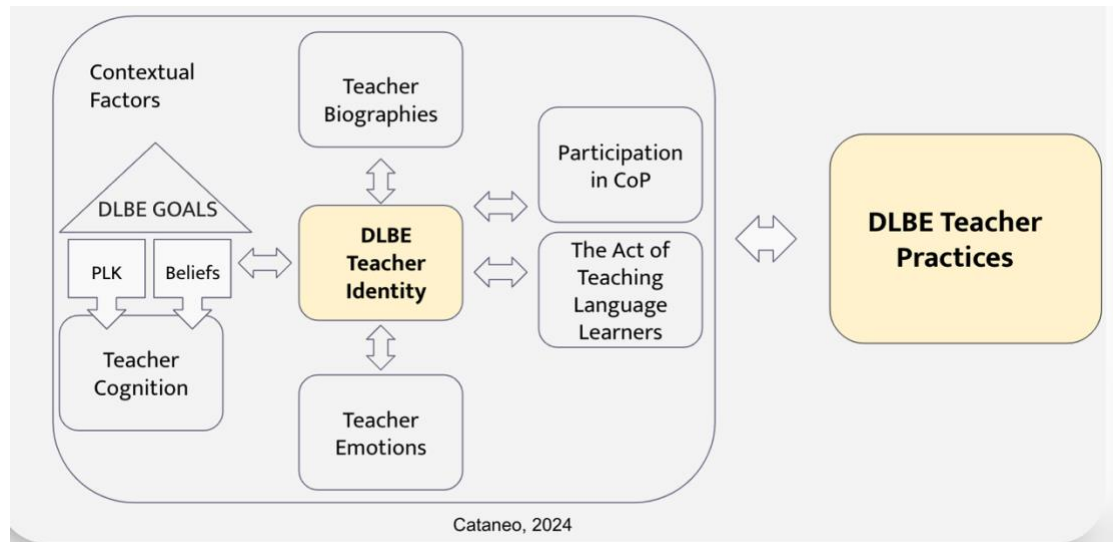
This study holds several implications for research and teacher education in DLBE.

5.2.1 Implications for Research

An implication for research is around the conceptualization of DLBE teacher identities. As I stated before, the continuum of content vs. language teacher does not adequately reflect the complexity of the DLBE teacher identities. However, language teacher identity research does not fully capture the development of experience of DLBE teacher identities, an area in which scholars call for more research (Morgan, 2004). While the field has started to focus on bilingual teacher identity in DLBE programs, questions remain about DLBE teachers with different backgrounds and experiences such as transnational teachers or monolingual English teachers in a program with a policy of one teacher/one language. In this dissertation I drew upon two frameworks to help bridge that gap in understanding the formation of DLBE teacher identity. First, I drew upon Yazan's (2018) framework for Language Teacher

Identity and then I brought in the linguistically responsive framework from Martin and Strom (2016) that drew upon the literature of mainstream teachers of multilingual learners to help conceptualize which factors contribute to the formation of a language teacher identity in DLBE teachers. Finally, I drew upon Bunch's (2013) pedagogical language knowledge to conceptualize the type of knowledge that DLBE teachers need to enact DLBE pedagogies. These frameworks helped to identify the salient factors that contribute to a DLBE teacher identity and identify gaps. The missing piece that I found was how the DLBE teachers' identities reflected or related to the core goals of DLBE (see Figure 5.1). Through my analysis, I was able to reconceptualize the original framework to include the DLBE goals above PLK, beliefs, and teacher cognition. I placed the goals here because of their connection to these components. DLBE teachers must have knowledge of the goals and belief in the goals of DLBE, however contextual factors such as leadership can influence teachers' understandings and beliefs in the goals, which is why the contextual factors remain surrounding the other components of DLBE teacher identity. I consider this conceptualization of DLBE teacher identity a work in progress. As I move forward in this work, questions remain about how teacher beliefs and understanding of the goals more directly relate to practice.

Figure 5.1 Revised Conceptual Framework for DLBE Teacher Identity



This framework can be used to further explore the differences in identities in DLBE teachers of different languages and in different program models. Scholarly research has often overlooked different types of in DLBE programs. This dissertation study began to explore those differences between Spanish language teachers and English language and teachers between two program models. Research should continue to examine how these different factors influence and inform DLBE teachers’ professional identities.

Just as I call for more research into the different profiles of DLBE teachers, this study also reveals the need for further research into teacher collaboration and how that affects teachers’ identities on a collective rather than individual basis. For example, research can example how collaboration informs identity as a team of dual language teachers as opposed to teams of English language teachers and Spanish language teachers and strand programs vs. whole-school programs. At Barnaby Jones, teachers identified as a team who were working together toward common goals and referenced collaborating with their same-language colleagues as well as with their

partner-language colleagues. The teachers held a collective identity as DLBE teachers which was reflected in the way that they referred to working with each other in relation to teaching their collective students. Future research can examine the ways in which DLBE teachers form this collective identity through collaboration or through the guidance of leadership, the latter of which I will discuss below.

A final implication for research is around the continued exploration of the role of leadership in DLBE and its impact on school structures and environment that foster DLBE teachers' professional identity and investment in teaching in the program. The findings from this study showed the interaction between school leaders and DLBE teachers' identities as well as their clarity on understanding the goals of DLBE. Scholars have noted that DLBE programs thrive with leaders who are knowledgeable about bilingualism, DLBE pedagogy, and about their school's community of multilingual learners (Menken, 2017). In addition, these school leaders also value the knowledge and linguistic assets of multilingual learners (DeMatthews & Izquierdo, 2018). School leaders play a pivotal role in a DLBE program's success through their appropriation of resources and navigation and negotiation of district language policies and collaborative relationships with teachers (Hunter, 2011; Palmer et al., 2016). This study builds upon this previous work through the inclusion of two school leaders as participants to illustrate the role school leaders play in the formation of a DLBE teacher identity. The findings from this study reveal the need for further research into these leaders' actions in cultivating an environment in which DLBE teachers demonstrate commitment to the DLBE goals and forge a DLBE professional teacher identity.

5.2.2. Implications for Teacher Education

This study has important implications for teacher education in DLBE and in the development of culturally and linguistically responsive mainstream teachers. As DLBE programs expand across the country, all teacher education programs should prepare pre-service teachers for the possibility of teaching in DLBE programs through coursework that emphasizes language awareness and second language acquisition pedagogies. In states with bilingual teacher certification, teacher education programs can create bilingual and DLBE teacher certification pathways that can specifically prepare current or future DLBE teachers. Courses in these pathways could include a focus on developing pedagogical language knowledge and literacy instruction in English and the program language.

Mainstream teacher education programs can help develop awareness of different kinds of language education, such as DLBE, so that teachers have a background knowledge of the way that DLBE benefits language learners. Teachers need to first know that DLBE exists and is a culturally and linguistically sustaining option for MLs, in comparison to other models of English language education. Two teachers in this study identified having prior exposure to DLBE during their teacher education program which led them to having a larger interest in second language acquisition and DLBE. This study calls for developing increased awareness during teacher preparation of different models of bilingual education including DLBE and opportunities to engage with those models via course readings, speakers, or student teaching placement opportunities. Through this early exposure, graduates of these

teacher education programs, especially bilingual graduates, may be more likely to seek out teaching positions in DLBE programs.

The second implication is the contribution that DLBE programs can make to the bilingual teacher pipeline; it was hard to ignore the influence of DLBE programs when a quarter of my participants were DLBE alumni! This finding reinforces the need to expand DLBE programs to grow future teachers to teach in bilingual programs. However, this finding also calls for a critical focus on elevating DLBE alumni who grew up speaking the program language as their home or first language as well as heritage language speakers who may be one or two generations removed from their family's home language. The two alumni in this study were English-dominant speakers. As research continues to examine the impact of DLBE on program alumni (Djuraeva et al., 2022), attention must be paid to which students are becoming future teachers and influencing the next generation.

In addition to the teachers, a third implication that my findings show is the importance of developing knowledgeable leaders who are committed to the goals of DLBE. My findings demonstrated clearly that knowledgeable leaders can have an impact on DLBE teacher identity. School leaders can determine hiring practices, resource allocation, and program structures that can strengthen or weaken a DLBE program (Menken, 2017) and influence a teacher's decision to stay or leave. Teacher education can support the development of knowledgeable leaders through DLBE leadership pathway programs for DLBE teachers interested in becoming school leaders and professional development and ongoing support for DLBE leaders through DLBE-specific coursework and mentoring opportunities.

Finally, I suggest the need to develop more partnerships with schools to support the development of collaborative structures that support co-planning and coordination across languages. This dissertation is connected to a larger ongoing research project that has highlighted the importance of partnerships as reciprocal learning opportunities. As DLBE programs grow, expand, and change, researchers and teacher educators must work responsively and collaboratively with school leaders and teachers to enact changes that will benefit and meet the needs of the students.

5.3 Conclusion and Significance

DLBE continues to be a space of transformation for teachers, students, and school communities. As DLBE programs continue to expand across the country, my research focuses on the transformation that happens within teachers as they enter into a relatively new model of teaching MLs. This study sheds light on the diverse profiles of teachers within the two-teacher model of DLBE programs and how they understand their role as DLBE teachers, the factors that contribute to the formation of a DLBE teacher identity, and how their understandings and the factors may inform their practice. This study is significant because it illuminates the nuanced level of understandings that teachers from a variety of culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds have about DLBE and how they came to see themselves as DLBE teachers. This study attempts to explain the interplay of factors that contribute to the formation of a DLBE teacher identity and their impact on teacher practice. Finally, this study is significant as it is a step toward conceptualizing DLBE teacher identity.

DLBE is a language program model that requires teachers to change how they view language learners and language teaching and to view themselves as language teachers. Through this dissertation study and my continued research, I hope to shed light on this transformation process and support teachers in developing their identity and practice to support all multilingual learners towards achieving the goals of DLBE.

Appendices

Appendix A

Demographic survey for DLBE teachers

1. Where did you attend elementary school (when you were age 5-10)
 - a. *City, state, country*
 - b. If you attended school in more than one country during elementary school, indicate age and change(s)

2. Where did you attend middle school (age 11-14)
City, state, country
 - a. If you attended school in more than one country during middle school, indicate age and change(s)

3. Where did you attend high school (age 15-19)
City, state, country
 - a. If you attended school in more than one country during high school, indicate age and change(s)

4. What was/were the primary language(s) of instruction in which you received your prior schooling?
 - a. Elementary
i.Circle all that apply---(Spanish, English, other...)
 - b. Middle---
i.Circle all that apply---(Spanish, English, other...)
 - c. Secondary
i.Circle all that apply---(Spanish, English, other...)
 - d. University (undergraduate)
i.Circle all that apply---(Spanish, English, other...)
 - e. University (graduate)
i.Circle all that apply---(Spanish, English, other...)
5. What was your undergraduate major/degree and where did you earn your undergraduate degree?
6. What (if any) graduate degree/certificate/education have you completed?
7. Where and when did you complete your teacher certification?
8. What is your certification and/or area of specialization?
9. How many years have you been teaching? (in any pre-K-12 setting)
10. How many years have you been teaching in a dual language/bilingual program?
11. Have you ever taught outside the U.S., if so where?
12. What subject areas do you teach?

13. What is the primary language of instruction you use to teach?
14. What is your age?
 - a. 20-29
 - b. 30-39
 - c. 40-49
 - d. 50-59
 - e. 60-69
 - f. 70-80+
15. How do you identify racially/ethnically? (check all that apply. E.g. You can identify as more than one)
 - a. Latinx/Hispanic
 - b. White
 - c. African American/Black
 - d. African
 - e. Caribbean
 - f. European
 - g. Asian
 - h. Native American/Indigenous
 - i. Central American
 - j. South American
16. How would you describe your cultural identity?
17. What is your gender identity? (e.g. female, male, non-binary, other)
18. Describe any other part of your identity that is important for you as a teacher in dual language bilingual education.

Appendix B

Identity Interview

1. In your own words, describe your job/teaching position.
 - a. How is your position similar to or different from the other educators that work with the same group of children (ESOL teacher?)
2. How would you identify yourself as a person and as a teacher?
3. What made you become a teacher, specifically a DLBE teacher?/ What attracted you to teaching at this school?
4. 4. Is your educational background in DLBE or have you switched from another profession?
 - a. Where/what did you teach before your current position?
5. What has made you stay teaching at a DLBE school?
6. Has your teaching changed since you have been in the DLBE classroom? How? If so, why? What experiences caused you to change your teaching?
7. Has your perception of teaching changed since you have been in the DLBE classroom? How?
 - a. Possible follow up: How has your professional identity changed over time? Professional identity?
8. Discuss any positive or negative experiences affecting the formation of your language teacher identity.
 - a. Professional development that has been good for you
 - b. future PD that interests you
9. What are 3 challenges you have experienced as a teacher in this school?
10. What are 3 successes you have experienced as a teacher in this school?
11. What qualities do you think make a good DLBE teacher?
 - a. How is that unique/different than a teacher in a monolingual school?
12. What defines you as a teacher, specifically a DLBE teacher?
13. What are some of your short/long term goals as a teacher? (this year, this semester, in this school vs other schools)
14. Describe your relationship with your co-teacher.
15. What would be your ideal relationship with your co-teacher?

Appendix C

End-of-Study Interview

1. Now that you have been participating in this study for a semester, can you tell me a little about your overall experience? What did you expect? Was it what you were expecting?
2. We began the study by talking about your experiences teaching in a DLBE program. Have you gained any new insights about your identity as a DLBE teacher in the past four months I have been here? Tell me more about them.
3. What about your practice? Have you gained any new insights about yourself as a language teacher in the past four months? Elaborate.
4. Questions about specific moments from the observations I want to discuss.
5. Questions about specific quotes from the interviews I want to discuss.
6. Do you have any questions or suggestions for me?

Appendix D

Inservice DLI-Specific Formative Assessment of Teaching Rubric

[Inservice DLI-Specific Formative Assessment of Teaching Rubric:](https://dliteachingrubrics.umn.edu/sites/dliteachingrubrics.umn.edu/files/2021-09/Inservice%20DLI-Specific%20Rubric.pdf)

<https://dliteachingrubrics.umn.edu/sites/dliteachingrubrics.umn.edu/files/2021-09/Inservice%20DLI-Specific%20Rubric.pdf>

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