Patterns of tasks, patterns of talk: L2 literacy building in university Spanish classes

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Patterns of tasks, patterns of talk: L2 literacy building in university Spanish classes

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ABSTRACT

Second language (L2) classroom research has sought to shed light on the processes and practices that develop L2 learners’ abilities [Nunan, D. 2004. Task-based language teaching. London: Continuum; Verplaetse, L. 2014. Using big questions to apprentice students into language-rich classroom practices. TESOL Quarterly, 179, 632–641; Zeungler, J., & Mori, J. 2002. Microanalyses of classroom discourse: A critical consideration of method. Applied Linguistics, 23(3), 283–288]. Honing in on the micro-level of classroom tasks and even further into the language of the tasks can help to reveal the patterns in teacher- and student-talk that help scaffold students’ academic literacy. Literacy, from a systemic functional view of language learning, entails having the tools to function in the social contexts that are valued in students’ lives. This study illustrates how grounded ethnography was used in conjunction with functional discourse analysis to illuminate bi-literacy development in two third-year university Spanish writing classes. Findings uncovered unique patterns of tasks and oral interactions that helped build students’ academic bi-literacy. While grammar tasks helped build students’ knowledge of wording–meaning relationships, culture and writing tasks supported their evolving understanding of how language construes content. This study puts forth a systemic functional curricular model for literacy-based tasks that aims to bridge the previously observed language-content gap.

ARTICLE HISTORY

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KEYWORDS

Language learning tasks; classroom discourse; academic literacy; systemic functional linguistics; third-year Spanish courses; blended learning

Introduction

As foreign language learners move through courses at the university level, they often need help unpacking the types of knowledge and language that will be used in successive language learning environments (Byrnes, 2002; Gleason, 2014; Schleppegrell & Colombi, 2002). Certain language teaching methods, such as task-based, content-based, and text-based language teaching, emphasise the importance of learning language in context-rich, purposeful ways (Nunan, 2004; Richards & Rodgers, 2014; Schleppegrell, Achugar, & Oteiza, 2004). By focusing on the construct of task as a functional unit of classroom practice, we can delve into greater delicacy to the classroom micro-processes that make learning language, and learning through language, successful. The present study focuses on the third-year Spanish course. Scholars have argued that the language-content or language-
literature ‘gap’ that exists between courses in the basic-intermediate and upper-level course sequences often makes third-year language learning problematic (Brandes & Rettig, 1986; Brown, Bown, & Egget, 2009; Kraemer, 2008; Lord, 2014; Paesani, 2011). Students who are used to learning the grammatical and lexical patterns in beginning and intermediate courses need help learning to function in upper-level courses, which tend to focus primarily on content, typically literature (Zyzik & Polio, 2008). Examining third-year foreign language (FL) courses thus presents an opportunity to discover the ways that language-learning tasks can be effectively integrated across these sequences. Insight is needed specifically into what types of tasks, and what language features of those tasks, are most beneficial for helping students build their academic bi-literacy at the third-year level. Understanding this can help teachers move students successfully into the more advanced language study encountered in senior courses. Paesani (2011) calls for further empirical research on ‘best practices for integrated language-literature instruction that moves students toward advanced-level FL abilities’ (p. 174) and the potential contribution of technology in this instruction. The current paper responds to this call by detailing four patterns of tasks that teachers can focus on to facilitate this transition and suggesting how these tasks fit into third-year FL curricula. Before describing these tasks, however, we will position our study in previous work on the use of tasks in language education.

Classrooms, tasks, and literacy development

Gaining in popularity since the 1980s, L2 classroom research has helped shed light on the processes and practices that develop learners’ language ability (Tsui, 2012). Ethnographic classroom studies

are often adopted in conjunction with discourse analysis methodologies, to investigate how educational processes and practices are co-constructed by the teacher and the students and how discourse processes and practices shape learning, what opportunities for learning are opened up, and what is being learnt. (Tsui, 2012, p. 386)

Analysis of language teaching methods and language-learning tasks are often the focus of such research, in addition to the actual language that learners produce. The following sections will focus on the research on learning tasks, beginning with studies that have been carried out on communicative teaching methods, classroom task typologies, and the language of academic settings.

Communicative language teaching methods: focus on meaning

In the 1980s, early versions of communicative language teaching (CLT) began to emphasise the importance of increasing language learners’ meaning-making ability (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). This could be seen in contrast to previous methods with behaviouristic underpinnings that emphasised a focus on accuracy and form. Three methods seen as falling under the CLT umbrella are content-based instruction, text-based (genre) pedagogy, and task-based language teaching.

Content-based instruction

Content-based instruction (CBI) aims to integrate the teaching of subject matter and academic language skills development (Brinton, 2003; Dalton-Puffer, 2007, 2011; Mohan, 1986;
Academic content may come from other subjects in the curriculum, such as science, history, or social studies, or it may be created based upon students’ interests or needs. With a CBI approach comes the belief that language learning and content learning cannot and should not be separate (Mohan, 1986). A content-based approach to tasks is one where the subject matter is learned along with and through language. In this way, CBI takes into account the real contexts in which users will be asked to produce language. It helps learners use language to master content and helps them do so in an integrated way, providing a context in which learners can achieve sustained engagement of both content and language form. Numerous studies address the importance of learning language through content (Stoller & Grabe, 1997), and a growing amount of research on CBI for language learning in particular, initiated by Mohan (1986) in western Canada, looks to use a linguistics-based framework called the Knowledge Framework to organise content-based lessons so that students get a well-rounded exposure to content and language form.

**Genre pedagogy**

Genre, or text-based pedagogy, involves the integration of authentic texts, both written and spoken (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Genre pedagogy expects teachers to set aside time for writing on a daily basis in line with the belief that people learn to write by engaging in the writing process. Teachers help students write by first engaging in the deconstruction of a target genre, followed by a joint construction stage, and finally, an individual construction stage. The genre-based curriculum builds on thematic clusters of texts (macro-genres), each organised around a theme. Genres are present in a variety of modalities and instruction explicitly focuses on language, drawing a clear relationship between texts as they are realised at the level of lexis and grammar. Colombi (2009) described the pedagogy as one that ‘focuses on the text in terms of content while attending to how the lexicogrammatical features of the text help in the very realization of textual content’ (p. 43). All this is accomplished by interacting with the text in an iterative fashion that uses the model text as a guide. Students deconstruct and later reconstruct genres, working first jointly with the teacher and finally towards independent authorship.

**Task-based language teaching**

Task-based language teaching (TBLT) ‘involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing, or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on mobilising their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning, and in which the intention is to convey meaning rather than to manipulate form’ (Nunan, 2004, p. 4). Research on TBLT has aimed to discover the tasks that are most beneficial for language learning (Nunan, 2001; Pica, Kanagy, & Falodun, 1993). Because this paper examines patterns of tasks in a third-year Spanish class that aims to transition students from the more communicative lower-level courses to the more literature/content-based upper-level classes, the research on tasks will be further described in the next section.

**Research on classroom tasks**

In their typology of communication tasks, Pica et al. (1993) outlined five task types that can be used for language instruction and research. These include jigsaw, info gap, problem-solving, decision-making, and opinion-exchange tasks. An outline of these tasks and
their goals can be seen in Table 1. The authors concluded that only jigsaw and info-gap tasks require interaction between students. In problem-solving, decision-making, and opinion-exchange tasks, one student may end up making an unequal contribution to the interaction, leading the authors to conclude that the first two types of tasks are superior for promoting similar student-to-student involvement. Commonly practised in communicative classrooms in lower-level language courses, this type of language learning may differ significantly from that which tends to occur at the upper levels of language study. Advanced language classrooms, for example, may use tasks that focus mainly on content without teachers bringing attention to language, such as the problem-solving or opinion-exchanging tasks often carried out in traditional university courses. A critical question is how bridge courses connect these types of tasks and the language associated with them to facilitate the transition from lower- to higher-level foreign language classes.

All of the tasks in the Pica et al. (1993) typology occur between or among students, as pair work or small-group work. Nunan (2001) provided a task classification that may also involve an instructor. As shown in Table 2, ‘pedagogical tasks’ include problem-posing interaction with students working primarily towards some non-linguistic outcome. Other types of student work include rehearsal tasks, activation tasks, enabling skills, language exercises, and communication activities.

While the above classifications describe the nature and goals of the tasks, the student and teacher behaviours within such tasks deserve further study. Brooks and Donato (1994) viewed language-learning tasks from a Vygotskian perspective. The authors argued that L2 acquisition entails more than mere encoding and decoding of messages; rather, it involves what many interactionist studies fail to examine: learners’ verbal production during meaningful tasks, which offers a window into the role of speaking as cognitive activity. The findings of their study suggest that only a small percentage of speech activity in the language classroom involves encoding and decoding the target language, whereas a fairly large quantity of interaction is spent on other activities, such as (a) undergoing metatalk to sustain and initiate subsequent discourse, (b) talking about the task in order to understand

### Table 1. A typology of communication tasks, adapted from Pica et al. (1993).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task type</th>
<th>Who has the information? In what direction does information flow?</th>
<th>Goals/outcomes?</th>
<th>Required interaction?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jigsaw</td>
<td>Both students have different pieces of information. Each student lacks some information that the other person possesses. Both must cooperate to reach a goal (obtain their partner’s information)</td>
<td>Students must cooperate to achieve one possible outcome</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information gap</td>
<td>Student A has the information that Student B lacks. Student B must request the information and Student A must provide the information. The information flows from Student A to Student B</td>
<td>Students must cooperate to achieve one possible outcome</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem-solving</td>
<td>Both students have access to the same information about the task but work together to resolve a problem</td>
<td>Students must cooperate to achieve one possible outcome</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision-making</td>
<td>Both students have access to the same information about the task but work together to make one or more decisions</td>
<td>Students must decide one or more different outcomes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opinion-exchange</td>
<td>Both students have access to the same information about the task, but share their own views in order to exchange opinions</td>
<td>Students do not converge on an outcome. There may be none, one, or more than one outcome</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
its procedures, and (c) speaking in order to externalise task objectives. The authors stated that a language-learning task is most appropriately viewed not as a mere rehearsal and acquisition of linguistic forms, but rather as a cognitive activity among learners who must be allowed to take control over classroom tasks and given the opportunity to maintain their individuality as speakers in a shared social world.

Verplaetse (2014) examined a middle school bilingual English/Spanish language arts teacher who helped to promote collaboration among emergent bilingual students in an urban elementary school and to foment their linguistic output and critical thinking ability. Several behaviours exhibited by this exemplary teacher to promote dialogic, active participation included (a) asking big questions, (b) providing abundant opportunities for students to produce and practise extended output, (c) structuring extensive, small-group preparation, and (d) managing student behaviours consistently and respectfully. Specifically, the teacher scaffolded big questions into yes/no questions … asked questions which linked to students’ own lives … allowed students to respond in Spanish when needed … modeled answers in the face of extended silence … persisted in asking big, open-ended questions, modeling his expectations for his language-rich classroom. (p. 638)

Research that further investigates the interactional patterns of these ‘language-rich’ tasks provides a clearer picture of tasks, interaction, and academic discourse development.

Dalton-Puffer (2007), in her book on content and language integrated learning (CLIL), listed six principal activity types used in instruction, in order of their observed frequency of occurrence: whole-class interaction, student-led group or pair work (PW), individual work, student monologue, teacher monologue, and teacher-led group work (p. 31). The author observed that the dominance of teacher-led whole-class interaction limited other types of interaction that can promote the development of language, and that the other interaction patterns in CLIL-based teaching are commonly found only within the context of whole-class talk. Just what the features are of this talk and how the talk connects to tasks in third-year (bridge) foreign language classes are worthy of further study.

Features of academic discourse

The following section details the features of academic discourse that may be used to construct different language-learning tasks. Academic discourse\(^2\) refers to the forms and

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Practice type</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Real world or target task</td>
<td>A communicative act we achieve through language in the real world outside the classroom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pedagogical task</td>
<td>Classroom work involving learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing, or interacting in the language; attention is paid primarily to meaning rather than forms; outcome is non-linguistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rehearsal task</td>
<td>Classroom work in which learners rehearse a communicative act they will carry out outside of class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activation task</td>
<td>Classroom work involving communicative interaction, but not one that entails rehearsing for out-of-class communication, designed instead to activate the acquisition process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enabling skills</td>
<td>Mastery of language systems, such as grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary which permit (or ‘enable’) learners to carry our communicative tasks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language exercise</td>
<td>Classroom work focusing on a specific aspect of the linguistic system, such as grammar practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication activity</td>
<td>Classroom work focusing not only on a particular linguistic feature, but also involving a genuine exchange of meaning, such as true communication</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
functions of language that are necessary for participating in various schooling contexts. It has been shown that certain features of academic language, such as those shown in Table 3, benefit from explicit and contextualised classroom instruction (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014; Mohan, 2007; Schleppegrell, 2004).

From the perspective of systemic functional linguistics, academic discourse in English is characterised by a set of lexical and grammatical features such as lexical density and nominalisation. *Lexical density* can be defined as the expression of the number of content words (nouns, adjectives, verbs, and some adverbs) as a total proportion of all words in the text (Eggins, 1994). In English, connectives such as causal and adversarial conjunctions like *because* and *although* allow for ideas to be subsumed, facilitating the lexical density of a text (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). Academic discourse is often characterised as having much in common with written language in that it is lexically dense and characterised by less congruent language and higher instances of grammatical metaphor and nominalisation (Ryshina-Pankova, 2010). *Nominalisation* refers to the process of converting verbs and adjectives into nouns and noun phrases (Schleppegrell, 2004).

While descriptions of academic language have been useful in many studies on classroom discourse, few studies have examined the academic language demands of tasks that occur in third-year foreign language courses. As bridges from the lower-level to the upper-level language sequence, it is essential that the types of language and tasks being produced and practised in these courses mirror both the familiar (e.g. what students have been asked to do in their first- and second-year courses) and the anticipated (e.g. what they will be required to do in their fourth-year courses). The types of task patterns across lesson types as well as the features of classroom discourse that help to enact these tasks are the foci of the present work.

**Overview of the study and research questions**

This study aims to investigate students' academic bi-literacy in two technology-imbued third-year Spanish writing courses. As a part of a larger study on technology, tasks, and literacy development in third-year Spanish courses, the overarching questions were: What tasks were used in third-year Spanish writing courses? How might these tasks serve to develop academic discourse during in-class learning tasks?

### Table 3. Linguistic features of academic discourse.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Discourse function</th>
<th>Linguistic and discourse features</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To present ideas</td>
<td>Knowledge structures: classification, description, principles, sequence, evaluation and choice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Noun phrases/nominal groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Verb types</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prepositional phrases, adverbal adjuncts, and other resources for information about time, place, manner, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Logical connectors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To take a stance</td>
<td>Mood (statements, questions, demands)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Modality (modal verbs and adverbs)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Intonation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Evaluative and attitudinal lexis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To structure a text</td>
<td>Cohesive devices, including conjunctions and connectors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Clause-combining strategies, including embedding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Thematic organisation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Methods

This section illustrates how classroom ethnography was used in conjunction with systemic functional discourse analysis to uncover important patterns of tasks and academic discourse. It includes an overview of the study and research questions, the methodological choices, the setting, participants, researcher’s role, data collection, analysis, and trustworthiness.

Methodological choices for the study

The present study uses qualitative, grounded ethnographic methods in conjunction with discourse analysis. Its epistemological position is based on the premise that we gain knowledge of the world by observing and interacting in real-life contexts. Ethnographic classroom observations involve researchers facilitating data generation in schooled contexts. Research on technology-enhanced or blended language learning will benefit from additional research that views evidence as socially knowable.

This study prioritises qualitative data collection, participant observation, and key informant interpretation (Mason, 1996). Conceptual categories were constructed using grounded ethnographic methods and cross-referenced using functional discourse analysis. This precipitated insight into how language helped construct and enact classroom social practices. Discourse analysis was not imposed on the data from the beginning, but was used after the fact to throw light on literacy practices. During the coding, we interpreted data and remained open to new conceptual categories. We used discourse analysis throughout category generation in order to better appreciate language’s role in classroom knowledge building.

Setting, participants, and the researcher’s role

Research sites and context

Data for this study were collected in two sections of a third-year Spanish grammar and writing course at a medium-sized North American university. This course emphasised the development of reading and writing skills through the use of different tasks, including those that harnessed technology. The instructor of these courses, ‘Doctora (Dra) Clemente’ and one of the researchers, Jesse Gleason, met before the course began in order to redesign the course to meet specific challenges. During these meetings, they decided to use specific technologies that would help them meet certain goals for the course. These technologies included (a) an online word processing Internet application (Google Docs) and (b) classroom management software that allowed the teacher to instruct, monitor, and interact with students individually and as a whole class (Netsupport). Classroom tasks were designed with technology in mind, with the goal of enabling students to support each other in their writing and improve their editing skills.

The materials for the course included two textbooks: one that focused on student reading of authentic cultural texts (Steigler & Jimenez, 2007) and another which focused on lexicogrammar (Iguina & Dozier, 2008) and which also included an online workbook. Although the course did not explicitly follow a genre-based curriculum, authentic textual genres were modelled and assigned. Students were required to submit a total of
four essays of the following genres: report, narration, exposition, and argumentation. Peer review was required of all essays. Readings for the course included topics such as (a) what is cultural heritage as defined and preserved by UNESCO, (b) the historical underpinnings of democracy in the Spanish-speaking world, and (c) the role of the Hispanic female in the workplace. As one can see from the example topics, the cultural content covered in this bridge course was a step up from what students might be exposed to in their 100- and 200-level language courses, but the texts were not as complex as what they may be expected to read in their upper-level literature courses.

In addition to the four composition types, over the course of the semester, students engaged in assignments that integrated the four skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking), such as the process-oriented compositions, web-based homework using the online workbook, and in-depth cultural class discussions that explored the complex topics mentioned above. Although complex grammatical structures were discussed, in particular during grammar days in the language laboratory, they were discussed as grammatical features and patterns that students were expected to need in order to make meaning in their academic essays. Examples of grammatical structures included the importance and use of (a) the imperfect and preterit aspect for narrative essay writing and (b) the subjunctive mood for developing arguments and supporting claims in expository essay writing. As such, these structures were more complex and textually embedded than the structures typically showcased in lower-level language courses. Class dynamics included collaborative small-group and PW for technology-enhanced grammar and composition activities in the language laboratory. An in-depth examination of these task features will be shown in the next section.

Participants

Dra. Clemente was the teacher of both sections of the third-year Spanish course and also a key informant in the study. With over 20 years of teaching experience, she had taught the course 5 times previously and had a keen interest in improving the course to better prepare her students for upper-level Spanish courses. Dra. Clemente maintained a high level of rapport with students, as evidenced by her exceedingly positive end-of-semester course evaluations. During student interviews, many students conveyed their enjoyment of her teaching style and appreciation for her skill and devotion to the class.

There were 44 students in the 2 sections of the course, of which 31 agreed to participate in the study. These were 30 undergraduates, 8 of whom were pursuing a Spanish major or minor. There was also one graduate student, Jack, who was pursuing a graduate degree in Bilingual Education. All participants spoke English as their first language and 4 were Spanish heritage language speakers. Ages ranged from 18 to 42 years old with an average age of 20 years. Among the students who agreed to participate, nine became key informants and participated in multiple in-depth interviews throughout the semester. Table 4 exhibits additional information about key student informants.

The researcher’s role

This section outlines the role of one of the researchers, Dr Jesse Gleason (hereafter ‘Jesse’), as an active participant in the third-year Spanish courses. During the semester of data collection, she attended 42 out of the 50 classes and integrated herself into the course as co-teacher, consultant, and researcher. While Dra Clemente planned and carried out all tasks
in the classes, Jesse observed and was there to support her in any way that she could. Her role included that of (a) co- and substitute-teacher (e.g. during class, students often asked her questions about language; she also taught several classes while Dra Clemente was away at conferences), (b) consultant (e.g. when Dra Clemente required technological expertise or support), and (c) researcher. The relationship of mutual trust and respect between Dra Clemente and Jesse is what facilitated data collection and knowledge generation in this study. This relationship formed the foundation for ethical ethnographic research, in which the goals aligned with Dra Clemente’s goals and those of the department.

**Data collection and analysis**

Data collection and analysis for the present study involving two third-year Spanish writing courses are presented here, including sampling, data collection, and analysis procedures.

**Sampling**

Both initial and theoretical sampling were used, starting with convenience sampling (De Veaux, Velleman, & Bock, 2012) and followed by theoretical sampling (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) to fill out emerging categories. ‘Initial sampling … is where you start whereas theoretical sampling directs you where to go’ (Charmaz, 2006, p. 100). A key component of grounded ethnography, theoretical sampling was used throughout the cycle of data collection and analysis to construct emergent categories and increase their validity.

**Data collection**

Observations of the Spanish courses, in-depth participant interviews, and gathering of textual documents were the primary data collection procedures in this study, as outlined in Table 5.

**Observations.** Throughout the semester, 84 class observations were conducted, including 12 that Jesse taught while Dra Clemente was away. These observations were audio-recorded using three devices set up throughout the classroom and later transcribed, totaling over 70 h of data. To supplement recordings, Jesse took detailed field notes during class observations, sketching the classroom, and noting which students worked together. She also collected screen recordings of online tasks using online screen capturing software. A screenshot of an online writing task using Google Docs can be seen in Figure 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pseudonym</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Sem of Spanish</th>
<th>Status</th>
<th>L1</th>
<th>Major/minor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dra. Clemente</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Instructor</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andy</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Freshman</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Engineering/Spanish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caleb</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Freshman</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Engineering/Spanish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cerise</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Sophomore</td>
<td>English/Spanish</td>
<td>Global systems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Craig</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Sophomore</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Engineering/Spanish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Isla</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Junior</td>
<td>English/Spanish</td>
<td>Design</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jack</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Graduate</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Education/Spanish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kerry</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Sophomore</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Business/Spanish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mary</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Freshman</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Engineering/Spanish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mike</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>Freshman</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Computers/Spanish</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 4.** Key informant information.
Observations focused on events and participant behaviours in the classroom, including teacher–student and student–student interactions, task types, and online and face-to-face feedback.

**Interviews.** Adopting Talmy’s (2010) definition of the interview as a social practice, interviews were process-oriented. They were opportunities for speakers to reflect upon both what they knew and what they did. This process allowed access to participants’ values, beliefs, perceptions, attitudes, and experiences. Ten planning interviews were conducted with Dra Clemente before the course began, followed by eight bimonthly interviews during the semester, and two follow-up interviews after the course ended.

Student interviews began after several weeks of in-class participation and went on periodically throughout the semester with the nine key informants. Information on the number and duration of interviews can be seen in Table 6. An interview protocol seen in Appendix C shows how interviews were open and more-or-less unscripted, focusing on what Dra Clemente and her students found important about tasks, technology, and language learning in the third-year courses. The different lengths of interviews can be attributed to this open-endedness.

**Textual documents.** The textual documents used in this study consisted of Dra Clemente’s PowerPoint presentations, assignment criteria, and end-of-semester student course evaluations. These documents were used to compare the ways in which content was presented to students, how the types of tasks were carried out, and what students’ reactions to the course were in general.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5. The database.</th>
<th>Observations</th>
<th>Interviews</th>
<th>Text documents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Third-year Spanish (1)</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Classroom texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third-year Spanish (2)</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Classroom texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dra Clemente</td>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>~70 h</td>
<td>~50 h</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Observations focused on events and participant behaviours in the classroom, including teacher–student and student–student interactions, task types, and online and face-to-face feedback.

**Interviews.** Adopting Talmy’s (2010) definition of the interview as a social practice, interviews were process-oriented. They were opportunities for speakers to reflect upon both what they knew and what they did. This process allowed access to participants’ values, beliefs, perceptions, attitudes, and experiences. Ten planning interviews were conducted with Dra Clemente before the course began, followed by eight bimonthly interviews during the semester, and two follow-up interviews after the course ended.

Student interviews began after several weeks of in-class participation and went on periodically throughout the semester with the nine key informants. Information on the number and duration of interviews can be seen in Table 6. An interview protocol seen in Appendix C shows how interviews were open and more-or-less unscripted, focusing on what Dra Clemente and her students found important about tasks, technology, and language learning in the third-year courses. The different lengths of interviews can be attributed to this open-endedness.

**Textual documents.** The textual documents used in this study consisted of Dra Clemente’s PowerPoint presentations, assignment criteria, and end-of-semester student course evaluations. These documents were used to compare the ways in which content was presented to students, how the types of tasks were carried out, and what students’ reactions to the course were in general.

![Figure 1. Screenshot of one writing task carried out in Google Docs. (Google and the Google logo are registered trademarks of Google Inc., used with permission.)](image-url)
Data analysis
Systematic coding is the hallmark of grounded ethnographic analysis (Charmaz, 2006; Glaser & Strauss, 1967). This consisted of initial coding of field notes, interview transcripts, and textual documents; focused coding of emergent categories and theoretical sampling and re-coding compared emergent categories to see how they held up against subsequent data. Observations of tasks, language, and technology use led to revisions of the interview protocol. Rather than forcing data into predetermined categories, theoretical sampling permitted flexibility and open access to emit perspectives. Grounded ethnographic analysis emphasised reflexivity. Examples were chosen to support emerging theories, where close attention was paid to participants’ language during interviews. As soon as a potential theme was identified, further examples were sought to fill out a category. Theoretical sampling was undertaken later on in the semester, once middle theories had been constructed. Member checks asked participants for their opinions and approval of emergent themes. A re-evaluation of Institutional Review Board protocol permitted the incorporation of additional interview questions.

Trustworthiness
Trustworthiness, or validity, was maximised in the present study by carefully documenting all steps of the research process. The strategies used to increase the study’s trustworthiness included (a) prolonged engagement, (b) data triangulation, (c) theoretical sampling, and (d) member checks. Prolonged field engagement entailed daily observation in almost all of the classes during the 16-week semester. Data triangulation (Creswell, 2007) consisted of participant observation, in-depth interviews with key informants, and document analysis. Theoretical sampling (Charmaz, 2006; Glaser & Strauss, 1967) facilitated robust categories based upon multiple viewpoints and interpretations. Member checks increased the validity of interpretations based on careful data analysis.

Results
Here we present the results of our analysis of the classroom discourse to respond to our focus questions. The first section addresses the patterns of interactional tasks that surfaced within the three types of lessons that made up the course – culture lessons, grammar lessons, and writing. We then provide further details of these tasks by offering discourse
examples that help illustrate the language teaching strategies that the instructor implemented with the aim of developing her students’ academic language ability in Spanish.

**Patterns of task interaction during culture, grammar, and writing lessons**

Throughout the third-year Spanish courses, each type of lesson revealed together a total of four primary interactional task patterns – big group (BG), PW, work along (WA), and one-on-one (1on1) tasks. While BG and PW tasks were carried out during all three types of lessons, WA tasks only occurred on grammar days and 1on1 tasks only on writing days. BG tasks were defined as those in which the whole class was involved together, usually with Dra Clemente leading the discussion (as observed also in Dalton-Puffer, 2007). These tended to be accompanied by PW tasks, in which students worked with other students to discuss an issue or solve a problem. On grammar days, WA tasks emerged as a special type of task, where technology mediated students’ classroom experiences as they followed along with Dra Clemente using their computers, while she used Netsupport to project and work along with students on particularly challenging, open-ended grammar tasks. On writing days, 1on1 tasks emerged as tasks in which students could work individually using Google Docs, while Dra Clemente and Jesse circulated offering their personalised oral feedback on students’ writing. Table 7 shows how similar task patterns occurred across lessons.

On culture days, Dra Clemente tended to lead the discussion around a conference table, highlighting points from the readings and sharing opinions. The absence of technology during culture lessons shaped the task patterns that emerged. Two primary interactional patterns could be seen as prevalent on these days: BG paired to PW, which required students to use primarily oral language to communicate both in a large group discussion and during smaller paired conversations. For this task type, Dra Clemente usually elicited students’ knowledge and provided additional input, much of which included her personal stories and contextualised examples. During the PW portion of these tasks, students collaborated, brainstormed, and shared information, after which Dra Clemente brought them back together for a follow-up BG task. Within this BG task, she often asked students to share their conversations with the rest of the class.

Tasks on grammar days in the language laboratory primarily involved three interactional patterns: BG, PW, and WA. Most tasks were mediated by existing classroom technology as students worked along with Dra Clemente. While BG tasks were similar in

<p>| Table 7. Task classification by interactional pattern, activity, and lesson. |
|--------------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-----|</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interactional task pattern</th>
<th>Task activity</th>
<th>Culture</th>
<th>Grammar</th>
<th>Writing</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BG</td>
<td>Teacher input</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Input/Initiation-response-feedback</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PW</td>
<td>Sharing ideas</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>HW check</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Online workbook</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WA</td>
<td>Online workbook</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
<td></td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1on1</td>
<td>Revision</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Student feedback</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher feedback</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>56</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>173</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
structure to those carried out on culture days, PW tasks included technology, which mediated students’ discussions as they worked together at the computer to create joint texts.

The WA tasks typically involved Dra Clemente projecting an activity from the online workbook, while students simultaneously worked alongside her on their own computers. Common activities that Dra Clemente facilitated were open-ended instructor-graded activities from the online workbook. Together, Dra Clemente and Jesse reasoned that students could get feedback about the automatically graded activities at home, but they would still need feedback related to activities that require them to produce more extended discourse. WA tasks were mediated by Netsupport, allowing Dra Clemente to summon students’ screens to the front of the classroom for collective observation. The WA tasks allowed Dra Clemente to access and correct common mistakes using student-generated texts and rewrite portions of their texts as a BG task. Such technology-enhanced text deconstruction and joint construction were typical during both BG-PW and WA grammar tasks.

Tasks in writing lessons involved three interactional patterns: BG, PW, and the task type we refer to as 1on1 tasks. During these latter tasks, students focused on their writing assignments and had free access to instructor and researcher feedback. Usually students brought their written drafts from home and revised them during class, where they worked in silence alongside their fellow classmates while we walked around the lab or monitored students’ work through Google Docs, helping them to rewrite and restructure their discourse. Students could raise their hands and receive teacher feedback at any point during the class. These 1on1 tasks afforded students opportunities to ask specific questions about their own writing, resulting in a very personalised form of feedback.

**Patterns of student- and teacher-talk**

Along with the patterns of tasks during culture, grammar, and writing days, patterns of talk also emerged out of the oral classroom discourse. These discourse patterns provided help for students to develop their academic language. The primary key patterns that were revealed throughout the four interactional patterns involved functional recasting, translanguaging, the dominant use of the knowledge structures of classification and evaluation, and the interpersonal resources of mood and modality. Examples will show how these provided opportunities and models for learning during the four interactional task patterns: (a) a BG culture task, (b) a WA grammar task, (c) a BG-PW writing task, and (d) a 1on1 writing task.

**A BG culture task**

The excerpt below shows how the instructor aimed to build knowledge during a BG culture task. The task began with Dra. Clemente asking an open question about how individuals’ socio-economic position impacts their view of their culture. Here, she presented a hypothetical scenario asking students to imagine the difference between how a Mexican female housekeeper and a Mexican female engineer might differ in the way each views her own culture. After letting students discuss the question in pairs, she asked them to share their ideas as a large group.
Dra Clemente: ¿cuál es la relación entre el dinero y expresar tu propia cultura? 
Cerise: puedes (1) comprar más (2) cosas como, I don’t know, artesanías o cosas así que no, I don’t know 
Dra Clemente: okay, muy bien, puedes (3) tener un poco más acceso a consumir (4) bienes artísticos 
[Cerise: what is the relationship between money and expressing your own culture? 
you can (1) buy more (2) things like, I don’t know, handicrafts or things like that 
Dra Clemente: okay, very good, you can (3) have a little more access to consume (4) artistic goods]

The example above shows how Dra Clemente used a functional recasting to paraphrase what Cerise said using more sophisticated language. Using functional recasting, Dra Clemente modelled more technical language, including more complex verbal processes (tener más acceso a consumir), and technical language (bienes artísticos). By including a more lexically dense utterance in response to the students’ contribution, the above example shows how Dra Clemente was able to model more academic ways of meaning-making, drawing explicit links between wording and meaning. By first eliciting answers and then providing oral feedback, Dra Clemente attempted to build up students’ knowledge of form–meaning relationships.

A WA grammar task

The excerpt below shows how the WA task allowed students to work along with Dra Clemente in order to deconstruct extended discourse using open-ended activities from their online workbooks. This example shows how WA tasks offered students opportunities to build up their metacognitive knowledge about language using their L1 as an alternate meaning-making system. One of the linguistic features of these tasks was a pronounced use of translanguaging using students’ first language as an alternative meaning-making system as shown in bold:

Dra Clemente: okay ‘veo mi vecina por esta ventana’ ¿cuál es el objeto directo? 
Mary: vecina 
Dra Clemente: a mi vecina ¿sí? (1) now I do have an ‘a’ personal, but still the object within this sentence, the object that receives directly the action is (2) a mi vecina ¿sí? I’m not giving her anything, she’s not being impacted on a second level of a previous action of me giving her something or doing something for her, right? directly I’m looking at her (3) entonces ¿cómo voy a escribirlo? a ver, por esta ventana, (4) how do I rewrite that, is that possible? no (5) ¿por qué? entonces la veo por la ventana 
[Dr. Clemente: okay, ‘I see my neighbor through the window’ what’s the direct object? 
Mary: neighbor 
Dra Clemente: to my neighbor, right? (1) now I do have an ‘a’ personal, but still the object within this sentence, the object that receives directly the action is (2) to my neighbor, right? I’m not giving her anything, she’s not being impacted on a second level of a previous action of me giving her something or doing something for her, right? directly I’m looking at her (3) so, how am I going to write it? let’s see, through this window (4) how do I rewrite that, is that possible? no (5) why? so I see her through the window]
The use of translanguaging (García & Wei, 2014), mixing the L1 and L2 in highly creative ways, played an important role during WA tasks. As one can observe in the example, Dra Clemente made certain that students understood tricky grammar concepts such as the one shown in the example above by using a mixture of their L1 and L2. Using multiple semiotic systems, she made certain that students understood key grammatical patterns, which they might not otherwise have understood had she explained them completely in Spanish. Dra Clemente used students’ L1 selectively during WA tasks; as one student wrote in a course evaluation, ‘she [Dra Clemente] speaks to us in English only when explaining very important dates and concepts that we CAN’T mix up. Then she will speak in English only for that little bit’. Here, we can see that the use of the L1 was limited to very particular situations and fulfilled the purpose of ensuring student understanding. Translanguaging, or multisemiosis, allowed Dra Clemente to scaffold students’ understanding of metalinguistic principles. The shift from English to Spanish during grammar lessons where difficult grammatical concepts were presented served the purpose of ensuring students’ understanding of complex grammar patterns.

**A BG-PW writing task**

The BG-PW writing tasks offered students the opportunity to better understand discourse conventions in Spanish. During these tasks, the teacher used specific knowledge structures to help draw students’ attention to how academic discourse is constructed. Specifically, classification and evaluation could be seen during these tasks. In the following illustration, classification language that groups items was used to confer specific organisational expectations of the thesis statement genre. Organisational expectations, such as what to include in a thesis statement and how to arrange the information into subsequent paragraphs, was the topic. For this task, Dra Clemente first established several categories that connoted a ‘good’ thesis statement, including (a) clarity, (b) focus, and (c) connection of ideas. She then used these categories to evaluate students’ thesis statements, as in the following example.

Dra Clemente:  
[Reading Caleb’s thesis statement projected for the class] ‘la educación para las indígenas es muy limitada por muchos factores, particularmente la discriminación y el racismo hacia ellos y su situación económica’ en pares, dime pros y contras de esta tesis… (1) ¿Hay información enfocada y específica en esta tesis? a ver, que es lo que sabemos, de qué se va a tratar este ensayo?

Jack:  
educación de niños

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

Isla:  
no se sabe

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

[Reading one student’s thesis statement projected for the class] ‘Education for indigenous people is very limited because of many factors, particularly discrimination and racism toward them and their economic situation’ in pairs, tell me the pros and cons of this thesis … (1) **is there focused and specific information in this thesis?** Let’s see, what is it that we know, what’s this essay going to be about?
We can see that Dra Clemente first uses the language of classification to ask the question (¿Hay información enfocada y específica en esta tesis?). This is apparent by her use of existential process (hay). Later, in (2), she draws on the language of evaluation, specifically mental processes and evaluative lexis (no está mal), to draw students’ attention to what is lacking in their thesis statement. Finally, in (3), Dra Clemente uses classification again, with a relational process (‘you’re going to have at least one paragraph about…and another about racism, and another about their economic situation’) to help Caleb break down his essay into parts according to subtopics and coordinate each within his thesis statement.

Dra Clemente’s use of key knowledge structures (KSs), such as classification and evaluation, during BG-PW writing tasks gave students opportunities to reflect on discourse patterns in their essays. These moments provided opportunities for text deconstruction and joint-reconstruction, allowing students to draw conclusions about, for example, the discourse features of the thesis statement as a subgenre of academic writing. Directly using these KSs to draw students’ attention to the rhetorical features of the thesis statement using their own writing as an example allowed the teacher to help students become aware of how knowledge is constructed in the thesis statement subgenre.

**A 1on1 writing task**

The final example focuses on a ‘one-on-one’ writing task in the language laboratory, a task that encouraged students to do complex cognitive work in the target language.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dra Clemente:</th>
<th>Mary:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) tú puedes tomar los resultados de ese estudio, las explicaciones de por qué hay más incidencia de psicopatía entre los hispanos y puedes integrar tu contribución vas a ver los resultados de ese estudio con este ejemplo específico ¿si? (2) Dime si es verdad o no</td>
<td>(3) entonces ¿ya a decir si lo [que] pienso es la verdad?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dra Clemente: si basado en este ejemplo, o (4) puedes dar varios ejemplos porque tú tienes varios ejemplos, tal vez tú ves que este hombre tiene algunos de las características de las cuales se explican en ese estudio, a lo mejor Francisco tiene ciertas características y luego alguien de otro tiene otras características</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[Dra Clemente: (1) you can take the results of this study, the explanations why there is more incidence of psychosis among Hispanics and you can integrate your contribution, you’re going to see the results of this study with a specific example, right? (2) Tell me if it’s true or not</td>
<td>Mary: (3) so it’s going to say if I think it’s the truth?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dra Clemente: yes, based on this example, or you (4) can give various examples because you have various examples, maybe you see that this man has some of the characteristics that are explained in that study, or maybe Francisco has some of the characteristics and later someone from another has other characteristics]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The interaction above depicts a variety of moods that Dra Clemente and Mary use to negotiate this interaction. In (1), Dra Clemente uses the declarative mood with modalised processes (puedes tomar, puedes integrar, vas a ver) to provide Mary with choices regarding what she can do to improve her writing. In (2), Dra Clemente switches to the imperative mood (dime). By closing down options, the imperative mood indicates to Mary exactly what she must do to accomplish Dra Clemente’s advice. In (3), Mary uses the interrogative mood to check her understanding of Dra Clemente’s suggestions. Finally, Dra Clemente confirms Mary’s question and in (4), she moves back to the declarative mood with modalised processes and modal adjuncts (puedes dar, tal vez tú ves, a lo mejor ...), reopening the discussion of how to accomplish her original suggestions.

**Discussion**

An examination of the different task patterns across culture, grammar, and writing lessons and the linguistic features present in these patterns allows us to trace how participants used language across the various task types that can lead to literacy building in third-year Spanish courses. As we could see from the examples, different task types invariably produced different types of teacher–student talk patterns. While BG and PW tasks used language to build up students’ knowledge of culture, grammar, and writing content, WA tasks used translanguaging to build up students’ knowledge about language. The linguistic features of teacher and student talk as they were highlighted during different tasks are shown in Table 8.

Drawing on the idea of genre pedagogy (Martin, 2009), we have mapped the tasks we have observed in our study onto Stage 2 (joint construction) of the genre-based cycle. Figure 2 shows how the three different sub-tasks carried out over the semester and described are positioned on this genre continuum.

The BG-PW writing task in which the students worked together with Dra Clemente and their peers to explore the rhetorical features of a thesis statement falls towards the more ‘scaffolded’ end of the genre continuum (e.g. towards deconstruction). The WA grammar task in which students discussed and applied the principles of language that they might later apply to their essays with Dra Clemente is placed towards the middle of the stage. The 1on1 writing task, in which Dra Clemente actively worked scaffolding Mary’s writing, could fall towards the final stage of Independent Construction. As the most student-centred and autonomous types of tasks, 1on1 tasks might be placed near the end of the Joint Construction phase, or even in the beginning phase of the Independent Construction, given that they offered students the flexibility of receiving differential amounts of teacher feedback depending on their personal needs.

**Enhancing content knowledge through BG, PW, and 1on1 tasks**

As we could see from the discourse samples, BG, PW, and 1on1 tasks were special opportunities for the teacher to orally discuss issues with the students in Spanish and for

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BG-PW tasks</th>
<th>1on1 tasks</th>
<th>WA tasks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Functional recasts, modality, key knowledge structures</td>
<td>Changes in MOOD (declarative, imperative, interrogative), modality</td>
<td>Translanguaging/multisemiosis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8. Linguistic features highlighted in different task types.
students to learn content, using the Spanish language to mediate their thought. Although
the different lessons focused on variable content, these tasks carried the bulk of the
responsibility for constructing knowledge, while attempting to build students’ bi-literacy.
Specific lexicogrammatical patterns surfaced during these oral exchanges: functional
recasts, mood/modality, and the KSs of classification and evaluation.

**Functional recasts**
As other studies have found (e.g. Luo, 2005; Mohan & Beckett, 2003), functional recasts are
important ways that teachers can highlight form–meaning relationships. Functional
recasts were a source of linguistic innovation during BG, PW, and 1on1 tasks. As oral col-
laboration during culture days formed the majority of the classroom activity, functional
recasting became the primary vehicle for students’ language development, from
simpler wording to more academic, sophisticated wording. The recasts were sources of
this development as exemplified in several ways, including instances of modality and
key knowledge structures.

**Mood and modality**
Mood and modality have been the topics of focus in many studies that use the Appraisal
network (Martin & White, 2005). As a feature of the engagement subsystem, Martin and
White describe modality as a resource of intersubjective positioning, a way for speakers
to adopt a particular stance towards the value positions of a text. In the BG culture task,
Dra Clemente functionally recasted Cerise’s oral text using modality features, specifically
modal processes and adjuncts, to help Cerise effectively align her stance in appropriate
and effective academic ways. In the 1on1 writing task, Dra Clemente used declarative
and imperative moods to help Mary understand the rhetorical features needed to form a convincing argument. These findings build on Hood (2004), who used APPRAISAL to help her students better understand the evaluative stance adopted in published research papers. By using modality and other interpersonal features to align one’s self appropriately with one’s opinions and attitudes of cultural practices and peoples, changes in mood and modality resources allowed Dra Clemente to help her students understand how to appropriately use language to intersubjectively position themselves as knowledgeable speakers and writers.

**Knowledge structures**

The knowledge structures of *classification* and *evaluation* were key discourse patterns present during BG-PW sub-tasks. During the BG-PW writing task, Dra Clemente used classification and evaluation to help students understand the features of the thesis statement subgenre. This builds on a number of studies that have emphasised the importance of key KSs for knowledge building (e.g. Early, Thew, & Wakefield, 1986; Slater & Mohan, 2010). Classification plays a fundamental role in experiential learning, helping learners to expand their repertoires of knowledge by subsuming meanings into categories and classes (Piaget, 1926). In particular, classification and evaluation were used to increase students’ awareness of how to effectively structure a thesis statement.

**Building students’ meta-linguistic awareness through WA tasks**

Similar to symbols used to represent the knowledge of math or key visuals to teach concepts of classification, *multisemiosis* is an important part of the language that students are expected to use to construct schooled knowledge (Schleppegrell, 2006). Several studies have emphasised the importance of using L1 in the FL classroom. Brooks and Donato (1994) found that L1 use among students played an important role, such as undergoing a metatalk in order to sustain and initiate subsequent discourse, talking about the task, and speaking to externalise task objectives. O’Halloran (2000) showed how math understandings in secondary school classrooms were complicated by the disjunction between the teacher’s oral explanations and the textbook’s written ones.

In this study, Dra Clemente used English as an alternate semiotic system that enabled her to explain complex grammatical principles. By translanguaging, switching back and forth between English and Spanish, she made sure that students were able to understand these concepts. The example taken from a WA grammar task showed that using the students’ L1 in order to increase their metalinguistic awareness is a beneficial and context-embedded way to build students’ understanding of language–meaning relationships in third-year classrooms. Many students in the class reiterated the importance of receiving explicit knowledge about challenging grammatical concepts. Not only were WA tasks instances to gain conceptual knowledge about language patterns, but they also offered opportunities for students to apply those concepts directly using the contextualised examples in the online grammar workbooks. Here, the knowing–doing duality of WA grammar tasks enabled students to gain immediate practice with grammar principles as they worked along with Dra Clemente in the online mode.
A curricular model for third-year FL writing courses

Using the results of this study, we have generated a curricular model that we believe will be useful for developing grounded, theoretically informed curricula in third-year FL classrooms. This model has emerged from painstaking observation and analysis in which the authors have attempted to show evidence of effective practices for the third-year bridge course. As such, it is one model upon which a successful bridge course can be designed and implemented. Certainly with any course, the context and participants will vary and future users of this model will need to keep the goals and stakeholders of their own institutions in mind. As Figure 3 depicts, this model includes four essential tasks that were needed to strengthen and support students’ transition to upper-level FL courses.

As previously mentioned, whereas beginning and intermediate foreign language courses often focus on patterns of language, sometimes at the expense of content, courses at the higher levels tend to focus mainly on content, sometimes excluding any focus on language patterns. Teachers and curriculum designers need to pull these two ends together. Language courses throughout a four-year sequence should prioritise language-and-content connections that will help students become skilled language users in academic contexts.

While the four task types depicted by the columns in Figure 3 are seen as supporting the third-year bridge course, we argue that some are particularly effective for bi-literacy development. As illustrated above, BG and 1on1 task types are represented by thicker columns than the PW and WA task columns, suggesting their heightened effectiveness for bi-literacy building (Schleppegrell & Colombi, 2002). While PW tasks are seen as supportive of bi-literacy development by offering students the means to negotiate meaning with their peers, BG and 1on1 tasks are ‘language-rich’ tasks (Verplaetse, 2014), containing linguistic features such as functional recasts (Mohan & Beckett, 2003), modality (Hood, 2010), key knowledge structures (Mohan, 2007), and changes in mood (Martin & White, 2005), which scaffolded students’ content knowledge in the target language, enhancing students’ opportunities for bi-literacy development. These reflect overall tendencies in the foreign language programme. While WA tasks and PW tasks support students’ transition and provide continuity from lower-level language courses that frequently focus on form and emphasise communicative PW, BG and 1on1 tasks can be seen as carrying the bulk of the academic discourse load, mirroring what students will likely encounter in their
upper-level foreign language courses. In moderation, WA tasks provide a context-embedded way to focus on the functional features of language and should be tailored to fit students’ pre-existing level of metalinguistic knowledge, perhaps as measured by a diagnostic exam at the beginning of the term.

As the major pillars of the third-year curriculum, BG and 1on1 tasks provide students with access to more sophisticated ways of making meaning with language. While PW tasks provide opportunities for brainstorming and planning with their peers, BG and 1on1 tasks expose students to the types of advanced linguistic features (e.g. modality, key knowledge structures, changes in \textit{mood}) that they will need to use in advanced language use domains. As such, BG and 1on1 tasks in third-year foreign language writing courses allot students expert input via functional recasts, helping to strengthen form–meaning relationships which serve as the basis for meaning-making in the upper levels of language study (Byrnes, 2009; Colombi, 2009; Huang & Mohan, 2009; Martin, 2009; Mohan & Beckett, 2003; Ryshina-Pankova, 2010). Teacher scaffolding during 1on1 writing tasks helps students independently construct written genres and subgenres. At the university level, where students must gain experience constructing the texts that are valued in their lives, this type of one-to-one scaffolding that focuses on building meaning is extremely valuable for bi-literacy development.

\section*{Conclusion}

Researchers have noted that literature courses such as those that make up the senior levels of foreign language programmes have little if any systematic focus on language development (Paesani, 2011), while lower-level courses typically focus on the development of oral communicative competence and grammar/vocabulary (form). Such a divide suggests that transition courses need to address tasks that not only are familiar to freshman and sophomores, but that also help socialise undergraduates into the types of tasks they will be required to undertake in more advanced content/literature classes. Our study set out to describe the patterns of tasks that arose from a third-year Spanish class in which the instructor wished to bridge this divide for her students. Using ethnography and functional discourse analysis, we uncovered four general task patterns, each with its own unique patterns of classroom talk. Task patterns and linguistic/discourse features were linked within the teaching–learning cycle, providing insight into why certain tasks could be seen as ‘language rich’ and thus particularly suitable for bi-literacy development. Future research will also focus on written language; but for now our study makes a contribution to the body of research on academic bi-literacy development by offering an example of a task-based foreign language curricular model that takes into account the functional language features that support students’ academic bi-literacy development, thus helping to scaffold their transition towards advanced academic study of the target language.

\section*{Notes}

1. Also referred to as content-based language teaching or content-and-language-integrated learning.
2. Also referred to as advanced literacy (Christie, 2002), academic language (Crosson, Matsumura, Correnti, & Arlotta-Guerrero, 2012), Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency, or CALP (Cummins, 2013), and the language of schooling (Schleppegrell, 2004).

3. All names except that of the researcher/co-author of the study are pseudonyms, which do not necessarily reflect the cultural heritage of the participants.

4. Appendix A summarises data from the end-of-semester course evaluations.

5. Appendix B summarises students’ exceedingly positive comments about the course and instructor taken from interview excerpts.

6. Mohan and Beckett (2003) distinguish a functional from a formal recast in that while the latter’s main purpose is grammatical error repair, the former ‘paraphrases meaning in discourse and thus raises the question of relations between form and meaning in discourse’ (p. 424).

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

8. Although some research argues no use of L1 in the language classroom, other work shows that some L1 use plays an important role (Brooks & Donato, 1994).

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

10. Classification is depicted here with bold text and evaluation with underlined text, as consistent with this type of research (e.g. Mohan & Slater, 2006; Slater & Mohan, 2010).

11. According to SFL researchers, construction and joint construction of genres or subgenres are two of the necessary steps in helping students to write effectively (Christie & Martin, 2007; Martin, 2009; Veel, 2006).

12. In this example, bold text indicates the declarative mood, underlined text depicts the interrogative mood, and text in bold italics indicates the use of the imperative mood.

13. The mood network includes options such as the declarative, interrogative, and imperative moods (Derewianka, 2001). Imperatives are monoglossic in that they do not provide alternatives for alternative actions (Martin & White, 2005), whereas declarative and interrogative open up the conversation to multiple voices and alternatives.

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Disclosure statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

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References


### Appendix A: End-of-semester course evaluations

#### Quantitative data

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#### Qualitative data (selected comments)
Appendix B: Student comments about the course and instructor from interviews

Kerry (Interview 3)

Kerry: I think I learned a lot grammar-wise and vocabulary-wise from writing … I can transition into whether it’s my other classes or lessons I’ve been doing for Spanish speaking, I have found myself transferring things into those classes, so I do think I’ve learned a lot from the writing

Interviewer: Has there been a progression from first to final composition?

Kerry: yeah, and I think I’ve gotten better, as Profe said, about thinking in Spanish while I’m writing, I can say I was really in my head in the beginning translating what I wanted to say
in English into Spanish and as we’ve gotten to this essay, it’s a lot easier because it’s more just saying it in Spanish and not worrying about how I would say the same thing in English.

**Mike (Interview 2)**

Interviewer: Do you think that you’ve improved?

M: yeah, I’ve just gotten a lot better at organisation, mapping my ideas out in an outline … I thought the pair work was really helpful

**Cerise (Interview 2)**

Interviewer: What do you think about these types of tasks? Are they effective for you for language learning? What do you like or don’t like about the whole idea of technology use?

Cerise: Well, first, I like culture just in general … it’s something that you would genuinely think about but not really into depth, cuz I mean, with the domestic worker, you think about that you know the basis about that, but you don’t really think to compare it to somebody who’s in school in Mexico and how that effects our perspective on it, maybe their perspective on it, and just other people’s perspectives on it, just speaking in class about it, and seeing what other people have to say, is really interesting, and it all kinda goes with the language I feel like, I mean in a way it helps you speak it because obviously in class we’re expressing ourselves in Spanish, it’s not like we’re stating our ideas in English so it kinda makes you think about what you’re gonna say and how to say it in Spanish, and in a way for people to understand because you’re gonna speak in front of the whole class, so I think that’s essential, I mean for me I think it’s beneficial putting your ideas and speaking them out loud instead of just keeping them to yourself, and especially starting out talking with a partner and then talking in front of the class

**Andy (Interview 3)**

Andy: This class really prepared me to take upper-level courses and work by myself, it’s really good to have some time where if you have questions the teacher is there, but you can also just focus on your paper, but I also like the group days where you can talk with the people around you, talking I feel is important in Spanish too, cuz you don’t want to just write and you don’t want to just speak, so I was glad to see that we could do both in this class and have it be relevant to culture … You need to know your grammar to be able to efficiently and fluently speak the language, a lot of it was review, there were a couple of new things that came up

Interviewer: How do the work-along tasks compare to pair work?

A: I like them both, it’s nice to switch them up, big group and working with a partner versus working along is kinda the same process

**Isla (Interview 1)**

Interviewer: So what do you think of the tasks that we’ve done in class so far, do you have any that you like?

Isla: I really like watching videos and then the feedback and I also like the creating scenarios with grammar usage, like the one we had to do today where she gave us several subjuntivos, like the ‘aunque’ and then ‘en cuanto’ and then we had to create our own scenarios, I really liked that but the one thing I don’t like is that this class is too short,
when you’re barely getting into it, it’s done, go, it should be like a two-hour long if it’s grammar, it’s way too short.

**Appendix C: Interview protocol**

**Selected questions for students:**
- What do you think about the language-learning task/s we have done in class so far? Possible task types we’ve done so far:
  - YouTube videos and class discussion
  - Quia grammar activities
  - Summarising sources, outlines in Google Docs
- What was your favourite task/s?
- What was your least favourite task/s?
- How would you improve the task/s?
- How do the tasks in face-to-face differ from those online?
- Which day do you prefer: Mon. culture, Wed. grammar, or Fri. writing?
- What does the teacher mean when she asks you to take risks, use more sophisticated language, etc.?
- What types of tasks do you feel best allow you to take risks, use more sophisticated language?
- Tell me about your experiences with language learning with technology in this course in general.
- Has technology ever interfered with your language learning?
- How do you feel about the feedback provided in the course? Is it enough?
- Does the writing feedback help F2F or would you prefer in Googledocs?

**Selected questions for instructor:**
- Tell me about your experiences with language learning with technology in this course in general.
- How does technology help students complete the language-learning tasks?
- Do you feel that you receive enough support, technical or otherwise, when you have technology questions or problems?
- Describe some of the differences in the ways that students respond to tasks involving technology versus those that are carried out face to face.
- What, if any, problems have you or your students encountered, with online tasks?
- What role does technology play in the language learning of Spanish students?
- What have been some of the consequences of incorporating increased amounts of technology into these courses?
- How have students reacted to increased incorporation of technology?
- Have you had any special issues with technology in these courses that stand out in your mind?