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Meeting the Literacy Development Needs of Adolescent English Language Learners Through Content Area Learning - PART ONE: Focus on Motivation and Engagement

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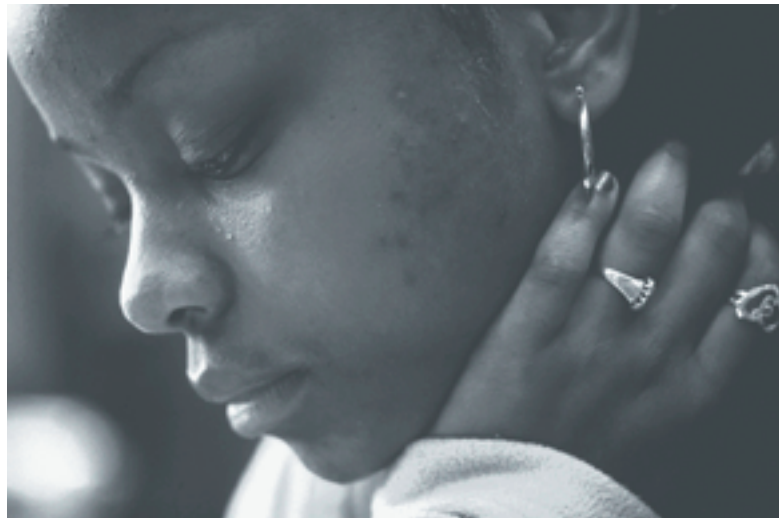02903

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PART ONE:
Focus on Motivation and Engagement

Julie Meltzer and Edmund T. Hamann

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Meeting the Literacy Development Needs of Adolescent English Language Learners Through Content Area Learning

Part One: Focus on Motivation and Engagement

This paper highlights the substantial overlap in recommended practices from two emerging areas of educational research: research on the academic literacy development of adolescents and research on English language learners (ELLs) in secondary schools. Specifically, this paper examines instructional principles related to the connection between students' motivation and engagement and their literacy development as supported by both bodies of literature. These principles include making connections to students' lives, creating responsive classrooms, and having students interact with each other and with text. This paper is the first of two papers based on the same reviews of the adolescent literacy and adolescent ELL literatures. The focus of the second paper is on content-area teaching and learning strategies that support literacy development (Meltzer & Hamann, under development). With increasing numbers of ELLs attending secondary schools across the country, more content-area teachers are responsible for teaching them, whether or not these teachers have been trained in best practices with ELLs. Our survey of the literature concludes that teacher professional development that focuses on promising practices for engaging adolescents with academic literacy tasks will provide some of the training that content-area secondary school teachers need in order to productively support the academic literacy development of their ELL students. Therefore, if secondary school content-area teachers implemented the promising practices suggested by the Adolescent Literacy Support Framework (Meltzer, 2001) with regard to motivation and engagement in ways supported by the literature on effective instructional practices for ELLs, teachers would be more effective in supporting the academic literacy development of all students.

Introduction

Education researchers have recognized a growing need to investigate the links among literacy, academic success, and postsecondary education and employment options. The literacy demands of the twenty-first century will far exceed what has been needed in the past (Moore, et al., 1999; Partnership for 21st Century Skills). Yet according to multiple indicators—ranging from flat NAEP scores (Campbell, Hombo, & Mazzeo, 2000; Grigg, Daane, Jin, & Campbell, 2003) to persistently high dropout rates (Steinberg & Almeida, 2004) to complaints of employers (Business Roundtable, 2004; Public Agenda, 2002)—schools are not yet adequately responding to the challenge of adolescent literacy support and development.

Adolescent literacy is defined here in this way: "Adolescents who are literate can use reading, writing, speaking, listening, and thinking to learn what they want/need to learn AND can communicate/demonstrate that learning to others who need/want to know" (Meltzer, 2002). This definition clarifies that adolescent literacy is more than a focus on reading comprehension and certainly more than decoding (Martin, 2003); it acknowledges that the literature on academic literacy development stresses the interdependence and synergy of reading, writing, speaking, listening, and thinking in the construction of knowledge. Nonetheless, in traditional definitions of literacy, reading and writing habits and skills are privileged; therefore, they are given greater weight here as well. Our definition of adolescent literacy does incorporate other academic literacies defined in the literature—such as information literacy, technological literacy, mathematical literacy, scientific literacy, and so forth—but these each suggest more specificity than our more encompassing idea of adolescent literacy. Our investigation is based on the following premises: (1) the ability to effectively use reading and writing to learn is essential to academic, workplace, and lifelong success; (2) speaking, listening, and thinking are intimately linked with reading and writing; and (3) students who are motivated and engaged with reading, discussing, and/or producing text are developing essential academic literacy skills.

There is also increased awareness that secondary school is not a welcoming or successful environment for many adolescents. One area of recognized difficulty is literacy; two other closely linked areas are motivation and engagement. Many adolescents, native English speakers, and English language learners (ELLs) encounter difficulties in middle and high school because the academic literacy demands of standards-based curricula exceed their levels of literacy development (Haycock, 2001; Joftus, 2002; Moore, Bean, Birdyshaw, & Rycik, 1999; Snow & Biancarosa, 2003). Adolescent literacy is attracting increased focus because it is becoming increasingly evident that student success as measured by standards-based accountability measures will require specific support for academic literacy development within and across the secondary school curriculum (Snow & Biancarosa, 2003). The motivation and the

engagement of students are part of and prerequisite conditions for adolescents' further literacy development (see, for example, Alvermann, 2001; Kamil, 2003). Therefore, classroom practices that support adolescents' engagement with academic literacy tasks within the context of content-area instruction warrant more attention. (Pedagogical factors beyond motivation and engagement for adolescent literacy development are further discussed in Meltzer and Hamann [under development].)

Noting and acting on the connections between motivation, engagement, and literacy becomes even more important when we acknowledge that these links are not currently occurring in many high school classrooms (see, for example, Langer, 1999). Helping teachers implement such strategies using various types of professional development support, including teacher workshops, in-class modeling and coaching, and peer coaching, will require concerted effort. This task would be a substantive challenge if we were restricting the discussion to native English-speaking students. In urban, suburban, and rural areas, significant percentages of students are entering high school with weak academic literacy habits and skills and then are not making adequate progress. Dropout rates in some urban areas are as high as 50% (e.g., *The Detroit News*, 2004; Greene, 2002).

Clearly, we are not serving even monolingual native English speakers well. The reality is, however, that the number of ELLs attending secondary schools across the U.S. is large and growing fast, and how best to develop and extend their literacy skills is an underexplored issue (Snow & Biancarosa, 2003; Kamil, 2003). A quick look at the demographics and needs of this population offers insight into the complexity of the issue. In 2002, there were 1,146,154 "limited English proficient" students attending grades 7-12 in U.S. public schools. (There are more if one includes Puerto Rico and other outlying jurisdictions.) This 1.146 million represented 5.6% of all public secondary school enrollment and 29.3% of the total K-12 ELL enrollment in public schools (Kindler, 2002). Moreover, additional students not counted as ELLs struggle in school because of issues related to linguistic access to the curriculum. The General Accounting Office (2001) acknowledges that students exited from English as a second language (ESL) and bilingual programs are not necessarily as proficient in academic English as native speakers, and Thomas and Collier (2002) have found that exited students often fare less well on standardized tests across the content areas than their native English-speaking peers. Other studies (e.g., Ruiz-de-Velasco and Fix, 2000) have noted that students eligible for ELL or bilingual education support are sometimes not identified and thus are not counted in formal tallies. Whether under the legal definition of ELL or a more encompassing one, strong evidence exists that many ELLs fare poorly, drop out of school, or finish unprepared for the workforce or postsecondary study (Bennici & Strang, 1995; Fitzgerald, 1993; National Center for Education Statistics, 1997; Ochoa & Cadeiro-Kaplan, 2004; Ruiz-de-Velasco & Fix, 2000; Snow & Biancarosa, 2003; Suárez-Orozco & Suárez-Orozco, 2001; Waggoner, 1999; Zehler, et al., 2003).

Increasingly, ELLs are enrolled for much or all of their day in so-called mainstream classes (General Accounting Office, 2001; Ochoa & Cadeiro-Kaplan, 2004; Thomas & Collier, 2001). Almost 43% of all teachers have at least one ELL in their class (Zehler, et al., 2003). But many content-area teachers have little training in how to support ELLs in general or how to support their content-area learning and literacy development in particular (Fillmore & Snow, 2000; Fix & Passell, 2003; Olsen & Jaramillo, 2000; National Center for Education Statistics, 1996; 2001; Padron, Waxman, Brown, & Powers, 2000; Ruiz-de-Velasco & Fix, 2001; Zehler, et al., 2003; see also Marcelo Súarez-Orozco's comments in Zhao, 2002).

These ELLs come to secondary school with a wide range of L1 (native language) and L2 (second language) literacy habits and skills. This is as true of the almost 80% who are native Spanish-speakers (National Research Council, 1997) as of speakers of other native languages. They also have uneven content area backgrounds and vastly different family and schooling experiences (Abedi, 2004; Colombi & Schleppegrell, 2002; Freeman & Freeman, 2001; Gándara, 1997; Mace-Matluck, Alexander-Kasparik, & Queen, 1998; Olsen & Jaramillo, 2000; Peregoy & Boyle, 2000; Sarroub, 2001; Suárez-Orozco & Suárez-Orozco, 2001; Valdés, 2001). Many have already attended U.S. schools in earlier grades (Fix & Passel, 2003). Fix and Passel (2003) note, "[Although] immigrant children make up a larger share of the secondary than elementary school population: 6.4% vs. 3.8%, secondary schools are typically less equipped to teach content, language, and literacy [to such students] than elementary schools" (p. 3). As a consequence, secondary schools across the nation are struggling with how to help these learners succeed.

A growing number of secondary school content-area teachers have responsibility for teaching ELLs as well as improving the academic literacy development of *all* of their students within the context of the content-area classroom. But many of these teachers are professionally ill-prepared to effectively respond to either responsibility. Clearly this presents a double challenge that cannot be answered on an either/or basis if our goal is to support the academic success of all students. Thus one important question is whether helping teachers to better respond to adolescent literacy needs might also help them to better respond to adolescent ELLs. The same question can be asked in the converse: Does training teachers to better respond to adolescent ELLs also equip them to better tend to literacy development needs generally? A very basic question underlies both of these: Do the motivation and engagement strategies recommended for improving the academic literacy development of adolescents in general also apply to ELLs and, if so, how and with what modification for supporting the academic literacy development of ELLs within content-focused classrooms? In a survey administered to 1,326 California secondary school teachers after Proposition 227 accelerated the pace for mainstreaming ELLs, teachers identified communicating with mainstreamed ELLs as their most common new challenge, with motivating and encouraging academic participation as the second

most common (Gándara, 2004). LaCelle-Peterson and Rivera (1994) caution that it is often unsafe to presume that what works for monolingual mainstream students also works for ELLs. For this reason, we looked at both bodies of research to see if and where findings overlap.

This paper reports the common findings concerning student motivation and engagement from both the research on the academic literacy development of adolescents and the research on the schooling of adolescent ELLs. Our conclusions: although the recommended literacy practices do not on their own form the entire recipe for successful classroom interaction with ELLs, we found no examples where these strategies for promoting motivation and engagement with academic literacy tasks contradicted the recommendations for developing content-area literacy for secondary school ELLs. This was the case in reference to all three of the related promising practices identified through the review of the adolescent literacy literature on student motivation and engagement: (1) making connections to students' lives, (2) creating responsive classrooms, and (3) having students interact with each other and with text. Creating a context that actively supports student engagement with academic literacy tasks does not just happen, but requires intentionality on the part of the teacher to be fully realized. (See, for example, Ruddell & Unrau, 1996.)

The direct audiences for this paper are the two groups of researchers who are studying either adolescent literacy or the schooling of secondary-level ELLs. We want to focus their attention on the congruence between these two growing bodies of research. Ultimately, however, our larger purpose is to provide the research grounding for professional development efforts with secondary school instructors who increasingly need to meet a substantive professional challenge: to become explicit teachers of academic literacy and to attend to the issues (and opportunities) that accompany having ELLs in their classes.

Methodology

This paper is the product of two overlapping research reviews: one on the research on academic literacy development of adolescents and one on the educational experiences and learning needs of adolescent ELLs. Both of these areas of inquiry are relatively new and to some extent underdeveloped, with longitudinal studies, studies using experimental designs, and research reviews particularly scarce (Alvermann, 2001; Curtis, 2002; Kamil, 2003; Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 2004). When available, we have been careful to look at such studies (e.g., Fitzgerald, 1995; Henderson & Landesman, 1992; Thomas & Collier, 2002). We have also read broadly across both academic content areas and disciplines of educational research, making for substantially triangulated reviews.

The adolescent literacy review was initially carried out in 2001. Because the intent was to look at literacy within the context of schooling, and because literacy is larger than just reading, the review included literature from the fields of reading, writing, motivation, cognition, English language arts, secondary school content-area instruction, and secondary school reform. The review included several types of research: case studies of teacher action research, meta-analyses of many studies relative to a particular strategy, theoretical frameworks based on a body of research, review of research, sets of strategies and approaches along with the research upon which they are based, and single large-scale research studies. That review paid some attention to the extant research related to second language acquisition and instruction of secondary school ELLs as well. The purpose of the review was to ascertain what we know about how to effectively support academic literacy development for adolescents. It was designed to generate research-grounded recommendations for secondary school educators related to content-area literacy development within the context of standards-based educational reform.

The literature review was instrumental in the development of a four-component Adolescent Literacy Support Framework (Meltzer, 2001) in which student motivation and student engagement with reading and writing were together identified as the first component.[1] The literacy review did not include the literature related to reading and learning disabilities and special education. Therefore, the adolescent literacy support

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[1] Two additional components related specifically to content area pedagogy—research-grounded literacy support strategies and discipline-specific literacy concerns—are focused upon in the second paper of this series [Meltzer & Hamann, in development]. For those interested in the overlap between the two literatures related to the fourth component of the Adolescent Literacy Support Framework—organizational supports—we recommend Coady, et al., 2003; also, Davidson & Koppenhaver (1993), Langer (1999), Miramontes, Nadeau, and Commins (1997), and Adger and Peyton (1999) are good starting points for linking organizational support for adolescent literacy development and the research on schooling adolescent ELLs.

strategies advocated within four key components are strategies that the research suggests would apply to the general population of adolescent students and their teachers with regard to academic literacy development, not recommendations for those requiring intensive intervention or remediation. Since 2001 the original review of approximately 250 literature citations has been summarized (Meltzer, 2002) and updated. The recommended research-grounded practices of each component have been re-examined and ultimately reinforced. For example, recent reviews of the literature by others (e.g., Kamil, 2003; Reed, Schallert, Beth, & Woodruff, 2004) have reiterated the claims regarding the centrality of student literacy motivation and engagement for academic literacy development that were depicted in the 2001 framework.

This first literature review examined school and classroom contexts that supported and promoted the academic literacy development of adolescents at the secondary school level. As part of this review, motivation and engagement emerged as a key foundational component for promoting adolescents' literacy skill improvement. Therefore, one dimension of that review—the one focused on here—describes the classroom contexts, instructional principles, and instructional practices that promoted student engagement and motivation with academic literacy tasks. Because the adolescent literacy literature rather than other educational research literatures were the core of this review, this first review did not lend itself to a thorough explication of the various types of motivation, all of the relevant subconstructs of motivation (attribution theory, self-efficacy, attitudes toward reading, literacy identity, intrinsic vs. extrinsic, self-regulation, variability, etc.), or an in-depth explanation of how motivation explicitly relates to learning, literacy, or reading development (brain-based learning theory). The best coverage of topics in motivation theory occurs in sources not reviewed here, although some of the sources referenced in this paper go into substantive detail about some of these concepts (see, for example, Dörnyei, 2001a; 2001b; McKenna, 2001; Van den Broek & Kremer, 2000; Verhoeven & Snow, 2001). However, based upon our limited familiarity with these literatures, we conclude that nothing we identify in this paper as a promising practice is in substantive contradiction with these subfields of motivation theory.

One of the challenges of exploring the constructs of motivation and engagement as related to academic literacy development is the complexity and synergy of the models proposed to explain this critical aspect of literacy. These models encompass both affective and cognitive aspects (see, for example, Dörnyei, 2001a, 2001b; Guthrie, 2001; Guthrie & Knowles, 2001; McKenna, 2001; Ruddell & Unrau, 1996) and are based directly upon empirical work and/or substantive reviews of constructs known to be associated with literacy development and motivation and engagement issues within classroom and literacy contexts. Upon reviewing these models and the associated literature reviews, we saw repeating patterns in the researchers' lists of critical factors and associated instructional recommendations related to the goal of understanding and promoting engaged literacy acts that lead to academic literacy development. Many

of these models are therefore built upon systematic exploration of the effectiveness of their subcomponents, but it would be challenging to implement experimental studies of these models because of their interdependent nature. However, their value as diagnostic guides and support for the intentional design of certain types of learning experiences and classroom environments to promote engaged literacy learning is the basis for their inclusion and prominent status in the original review and framework (Meltzer, 2002).

The second literature review was conducted during the spring of 2004. The authors reviewed the research on the schooling of adolescent ELLs to look for congruence or discrepancy with the recommended practices of the first review. Faltis (1999), Garcia and Godina (2004), Walquí (2004), and others have noted that the educational research on ELLs in secondary education is quite limited. Nonetheless, the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory (NWREL) (2004) in its report *English Language Learner Programs at the Secondary Level in Relation to Student Performance* was able to identify and create an annotated bibliography of 73 studies on this topic. That list was the starting point for this second literature review. It included some titles that had also been part of the first review (e.g., Reyhner & Davidson, 1992; Thomas & Collier, 1997). Like the first review, this one did not specifically examine the special education literature. The second review focused on identifying what the literature on secondary-level schooling and ELLs said about student motivation and engagement for academic literacy support and development.

For the second review we searched for additional studies from the secondary-level ELL literature that incorporated sociocultural and ecological perspectives, because these were particularly relevant to the consideration of students' motivation and engagement and because they detailed teacher/student interaction and students' comprehension strategies in the first and second language (e.g., Hajer, 2000; Harklau, 2002; Martin, 2003; Nagy, et al., 1993; 1997; Sarroub, 2001; Valdés, 2001; 2003, Verplaetse, 2000a). We also consciously sought out studies that addressed ELLs' performance in other academic content areas (e.g., Ballenger, 1997; Gutierrez, 2002; Quiroz, 2001; Warren, et al., 2001), because the research on ELLs has been largely concerned with language acquisition (Casanova & Arias, 1993). Because ELLs have been academically successful in a variety of different secondary school organizational structures (Darling-Hammond, Ancess, & Falk, 1995; Lucas, 1997; Lucas, et al., 1990; Walquí, 2000), we did not exclude research from any given type of institution (e.g., a newcomer academy or dual-immersion school) or any instructional model, be it mainstream or supported (e.g., transitional bilingual education, the sheltered immersion operation protocol). Thus, the initial body of research identified by NWREL (2004) was extended in several ways. However, although we explored some of the literature regarding motivation and engagement from second and foreign language classrooms (e.g., Arnold, 1999; Dörnyei, 2001a), we did not explicitly include a review of competing theories of second language acquisition—e.g., Krashen's (1985) five-part theory, Cummins' (1989)

distinction between Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALPs), and Gass's (1997) interactive model.

Methodologically both reviews can be characterized as "reviews of multivocal literatures" (Ogawa & Malen, 1991). To date, there have been few experimental or quasi-experimental studies, meta-analyses, or research reviews on these broad topics. Instead, we employed the cumulative logic of ethnologies wherein the evidentiary warrant for certain assertions is built by citing the studies available and identifying on what basis they are grounded. According to this strategy, studies that support an assertion are identified, but then an equal effort to identify studies that are contrary to the assertion is also made (Erickson, 1986; Noblit & Hare, 1995; Osborne, 1996). Such a strategy is supported by the recommendations of the National Research Council's (2002) *Scientific Research in Education*, whose authors noted, "Rarely does one study produce an unequivocal and durable result; multiple methods, applied over time and tied to evidentiary standards, are essential to establishing scientific knowledge" (p. 2). The convergence of findings from very different research methods and types of evidence was noteworthy in both reviews. Despite our commitment to examine disconfirming evidence, little of it was found.

The next section provides a general discussion of the connections between academic literacy development and motivation and engagement. The purpose is to contextualize the three promising practices related to literacy motivation and engagement described in the Adolescent Literacy Support Framework (Meltzer, 2001). Each of the three subsequent sections focuses on one of these instructional practices: (1) making connections to student lives, (2) creating safe and responsive classrooms, and (3) having students interact with each other and with text. In each of those three instructional practice sections, we begin with a brief summary of the adolescent literacy literature undergirding that promising practice. This is followed by a discussion of our findings related to the use of that practice across the ELL literature describing effective instruction for adolescent ELLs. The pedagogical implications of the two literatures' overlap are highlighted throughout each section.

Adolescent Literacy and Motivation and Engagement

Considerable consensus exists in the literature on adolescent literacy that motivation and engagement play a key role in adolescents' academic literacy development (see, for example, Alvermann, 2001; Biancarosa & Snow, 2004; Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000; Kamil, 2003; Peterson et al., 2000). After all, if students are not motivated to read, write, and think and do not become substantively engaged with reading, writing, and thinking over time, it is unlikely that academic literacy habits and skills will improve. Verhoeven & Snow note that "literacy, thinking, and motivation cannot be easily separated" (2001, p. 5). Many researchers agree that motivation to read and positive attitudes toward reading generally decline as students get to the higher grades (see, for example, Guthrie & Knowles, 2001; McKenna, 2001). This finding increases the imperative to better understand the potential role of classroom environments to reverse that trend.

Motivation is typically seen as a precursor or covalent of engagement. That is, students may be motivated, internally or externally, and thus be willing to engage, in this case, with reading and writing tasks. As many researchers note, literacy motivation is a multi-faceted construct incorporating and related to attribution theory, self-efficacy, literacy identity, situational and motivational interest, task values, attitudes toward reading, self-direction, and self-regulation (see, for example, Baker & Wigfield, 1999; Dörnyei, 2001a; Guthrie & Knowles, 2001; Jetton & Alexander, 2004; McKenna, 2001; Ruddell & Unrau, 1996). With regard to learning and engaging in academic tasks, general motivation research has explored the differences and consequences of two goal orientations: a mastery orientation and a performance orientation (see, for example, Dörnyei, 2001a). A mastery orientation is one in which individuals seek to improve skills, accept new challenges, and understand concepts, and it is generally seen as more intrinsic. In contrast, a performance orientation, generally seen as more extrinsic, is one in which an individual is more concerned with favorable evaluation of his/her ability than with learning something from the task at hand. Although both broad goal orientations have implications for motivation, a mastery orientation is generally seen as more likely to foster long-term engagement and learning than a performance orientation (e.g., Guthrie, 2001 Guthrie & Knowles, 2001; Pintrich & Schunk, 2001). However, this not always the case, and one orientation can influence the other (see, for example, Gambrell & Marinak, 1997; Whitehead, 2003).

It is long-term engagement with literacy, regardless of the source of motivation, that leads to literacy development. Literacy engagement here refers to persistence in and absorption with reading, writing, speaking, listening, and thinking even when there are other choices available. Guthrie & Knowles (2001) define *engaged reading* as "the fusion of cognitive strategies, conceptual knowledge, and motivational goals

during reading" (p. 159). Engagement with reading has been described variously as flow (e.g., Smith & Wilhelm, 2002) and involvement (e.g., Reed, Schallert, Beth, & Woodruff, 2004). According to Guthrie (2001), engaged readers comprehend text because they *can* (have the requisite strategic reading habits and skills) and because they *are motivated* to engage. Baker & Wigfield (1999) describe reading engagement as encompassing reading motivation and as composed of three primary activities: constructing meaning, using metacognitive strategies, and participating in literacy-based social interactions. It is engagement with reading that is directly related to reading achievement (Guthrie, 2001).

Motivation and engagement are thus highly interrelated and are often presented as a connected construct throughout the literature. Alvermann (2001) sums it up this way: "Adolescents' perceptions of how competent they are as readers and writers, generally speaking, will affect how motivated they are to learn in their subject area classes (e.g., the sciences, social studies, mathematics and literature). Thus, if academic literacy instruction is to be effective, it must address issues of self-efficacy and engagement" (p. 6). Self-efficacy is strongly related to motivation; that is, the more competent one feels to address a specific task, the more likely one will attempt to complete or engage with that task. This applies to reading and writing just as it does to anything else (Schunk & Zimmerman, 2000). And, of course, the opposite is also true. Therefore, learning strategies that improve reading comprehension can be in themselves motivating and can lead to students' wanting to engage more enthusiastically in reading and writing tasks that develop deeper content-area understanding. This relationship is expressed by Roe (2001) as a cycle of engagement and enablement. Much recent attention in the field of adolescent literacy development has been focused on establishing the effectiveness of particular reading comprehension strategies. However, Kamil (2003), like others, stresses, "Motivation and engagement are critical for adolescent readers. If students are not motivated to read, research shows that they will simply not benefit from reading instruction" (p.8). In other words, adolescents will only take on the task of learning how to read better (or write better) if they have a sufficiently compelling reason for doing so.

Adolescent motivation in general is highly variable and is often dependent upon purpose and context, including relationships with peers, parents, teachers, and others (e.g., McCombs & Barton, 1998; Reed et al., 2004). This factor highlights the importance of creating classrooms that focus on student engagement as a key strategy for assisting students to develop positive literacy identities and strengthened literacy skills, because the level of engagement over time is the vehicle through which classroom instruction mediates student outcomes (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000). Based on an extensive review of the empirical literature and a three year study of K-12 classroom events that prompted sustained literacy interactions, Guthrie & Knowles (2001) outline seven principles for promoting reading motivation: (1) use of conceptual

themes to guide inquiry, (2) real-world interactions as springboards for further inquiry, (3) encouragement of self-direction, (4) the existence of a variety of texts, (5) supports for the use of cognitive strategies, (6) social collaboration, and (7) opportunities for self-expression. They see these as a "network of variables that is likely to spark and sustain the long-term motivation required for students to become full members in the world of engaged readers" (p. 173) and stress the connections between the affective, social, and cognitive aspects of reading.

Certainly attitudes toward reading and one's perception of oneself as a reader impact the motivation to read. McKenna's model of reading attitude acquisition describes three principle interdependent factors in the acquisition of attitudes toward reading: (1) direct impact from episodes of reading; (2) beliefs about the outcomes of reading; and (3) beliefs about the cultural norms concerning reading (conditioned by one's desire to conform to those norms). He notes that attitudes toward reading are shaped by these influences over an extended period and that the effects are ongoing and cumulative. In his review of empirical studies, McKenna notes the prevalence of reading attitudes to become less positive as students age, even among "good" readers. "If we are to be successful in changing children's attitudes toward reading, we must target the factors that affect those attitudes" (p. 139). Among the techniques and materials for which he cites evidence of effectiveness are using questions to activate prior knowledge, making available varied high quality texts, habitually linking literature and the lives of children, and facilitating collaborative interaction with text. Many of these are about intentionally shaping the environment for literacy instruction. Reviewing the works of Guthrie, McKenna, and others in the field reinforces the idea that motivation and engagement are malleable and that the classroom context within which the instruction of a strategy takes place can be as important as the instruction itself.

According to our review of the adolescent literacy research, community, school, and classroom cultures can thus play a strong role in either supporting or undermining the development of positive literacy identities in adolescents (e.g., Foley, 1990; Ivey, 1999; Langer, 1999; McCombs & Barton, 1998; Ruddell & Unrau, 1996; Van den Broek & Kremer, 2000). It makes sense that students who have experienced repeated failure at reading are often unwilling to participate as readers or writers (McKenna, 2001). On the other hand, students can become engaged readers when school and classroom cultures actively and successfully promote the development of adolescent literacy skills (Guthrie, 2001; Guthrie et al., 1996; Guthrie & Anderson, 1998; Ruddell & Unrau, 1996). However, to do this, instruction must "build on elements of both formal and informal literacies…by taking into account students' interests and needs while at the same time attending to the challenges of living in an information-based economy where the bar has been raised significantly for literacy achievement" (Alvermann, 2001, p. 5).

Reed, Schallert, Beth, and Woodruff (2004) agree that motivation to engage in academic literacy tasks is a multifaceted endeavor not easily understood, and they note a need to

understand more than cognitive factors in order to successfully engage adolescents in academic literacy tasks:

> In order to understand students' complex motivations for reading and writing in classrooms, one must also consider a variety of contextual factors, including student backgrounds and motivational histories (Baker & Wigfield, 1999; Gee, 2000; Smagorinsky & O'Donnell-Allen, 1998) and social relationships among members of the class, both students and teachers (Heron, 2003; Ivey & Broaddus, 2001; Smagorinsky & O'Donnell-Allen, 1998). (p. 270)

Secondary school content-area instructors who seek to promote academic literacy development therefore need to understand and address the social and emotional needs of adolescents within the context of the content-area classroom. Those students who will not read (because they cannot read well, because they associate reading poorly with public embarrassment, because they do not feel like they are valued members of the classroom community, or because they do not like to read) can learn that becoming a proficient reader and writer is possible, desirable, meaningful, and safe. In the case of ELLs, the issue of language becomes explicitly relevant because ELL students must also believe that they can become proficient readers in this new language (i.e., English), a feat they may or may not have accomplished in their native language.

If we want adolescents to be able to competently use reading, writing, and speaking in English to learn, to define themselves and their worlds, and to develop their voice (goals identified by Cushman, 2003; Kamil, 2003; Moore, Bean, Birdyshaw, & Rycik, 1999; Rycik & Irvin, 2001; and Verplaetse, 2003; among others), they need learning environments in which they are actively engaged in dialogue and with text and where we scaffold their growing abilities so they can successfully use academic language (e.g., Greenleaf, Schoenbach, Cziko, & Mueller, 2001). These conditional requirements are as relevant to ELLs as to any other secondary school students (Hall & Verplaetse, 2000). If ELLs are embarrassed, if tasks are too far above or below their proximal zone of development, or if teachers do not provide frequent opportunities and strategies for ELLs to successfully develop as readers and writers, then ELLs will disengage just like other adolescents confronting learning environments stacked against them (Ballenger, 1997; Verplaetse, 2000a; 2000b; 2003). It is difficult to become better at something if one refuses to engage with it (Erickson, 1987). Therefore, it is essential that teachers be able to successfully motivate ELLs to engage with academic texts written in English through reading, writing, and speaking. Only then can the dual aims of academic literacy development and content area learning be met.

Based on our review of the adolescent literacy research, we concluded that there are three primary instructional practices guiding the facilitation of student-centered classrooms that promote student motivation to read, write, discuss, and strengthen literacy skills: (1) making connections to students' lives, thereby connecting background knowledge to the text to be read (e.g., Alvermann & Phelps, 1998; Davidson &

Koppenhaver, 1993; Langer, 2001; Simonsen & Singer, 1992); (2) creating responsive classrooms where students are acknowledged, have voice, and are given choices in learning tasks, reading assignments, and topics of inquiry that then strengthen their literacy skills (e.g., Alvermann, 2001; Collins, 1996; Curtis, 2002; McCombs & Barton, 1998; Schoenbach, et al., 1999; Smith & Wilhelm, 2002); and (3) having students interact with each other about text and with text in ways that stimulate questioning, predicting, visualizing, summarizing, and clarifying (e.g., Alvermann & Moore, 1991; Langer, 2001; Palincsar & Brown, 1985; Schoenbach, et al., 1999; Wilhelm, 1995). These three became the research-grounded promising instructional practices comprising the first key component of the Adolescent Literacy Support Framework: motivation and engagement (Meltzer, 2001).[2]

The need to recognize the affective and motivational dimensions of academic literacy development in schools beyond a narrow focus on reading, decoding, fluency, and comprehension is supported by growing numbers of researchers (e.g., Alvermann, 2001; Dörnyei, 2001a, 2001b; Guthrie & Knowles, 2001; Verhoeven & Snow, 2001). Grady (2002) and others point out:

> A number of reading researchers and theorists believe the reading process to be much more complex, including not only the cognitive dimension addressed by schema theory and many existing reading strategies, but including a social dimension as well (e.g., Bloome, 1986; Goodman, 1996; Greenleaf, et al., 2001; Harste, 1994). The extent to which readers are able to construct meaning with texts is also based on the personal, interpersonal, and institutional contexts in which reading events occur. (pp. 2-3)

Therefore, the classroom environments within which academic literacy tasks take place must effectively sponsor and encourage motivation to read and engagement with text. Our review of the literature presents a heuristic of practices for doing that with adolescents within the context of content-area middle school and high school classrooms.

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[2] Figure 1 (p. 61) illustrates all four components. In addition to motivation and engagement (Component A), other components of the Adolescent Literacy Support Framework include (B) the role of research-grounded teaching and learning strategies in promoting content area literacy development, (C) the importance of attending to literacy within and across the content areas, focusing on discipline-specific vocabulary, text structures, and discourses, for example, and (D) the imperative that organizational structures support the deployment and honing of literacy development strategies. These latter dimensions need to be referenced so readers can see that we know motivation and engagement are not the only key dimensions to promoting adolescent literacy. However, these other dimensions are only incidentally referred to in this paper, despite their synergy with motivation and engagement. An examination of the overlap in the adolescent literacy and ELL literatures related to the classroom pedagogical implications of strategy use and content area literacy development are examined in the next paper in this series (see Meltzer & Hamann, in development).

Making Connections to Students' Lives

From the Adolescent Literacy Support Framework:

> *Teachers continually make connections between the life experiences of students and texts, texts and films, texts and other texts, previous school experiences, and the topic at hand. The making and sharing of connections is an expectation in written and spoken communication. This expectation fosters an inclusive climate for literacy development and can make an important difference in educating diverse learners such as students with disabilities or special needs, English language learners, and gifted and talented students.* –Meltzer (2001)

To support literacy development, teachers must find ways to motivate learners to substantively engage with text. The literature consistently points to the efficacy, and, indeed, the importance of two strategies that motivate students to engage: (1) activating and building upon background knowledge and (2) making text-text, text-self, and text-world connections. Van den Broek and Kremer (2000) talk about how the mind is in action when reading—how reading comprehension depends upon creating a mental representation of the text through the development of referential and causal/logical relations. Referential relationships depend upon the activation of background knowledge; causal/logical relationships depend upon one's ability to make wide-ranging and continuous connections to text. Both of these are strategies that good readers use that simultaneously support reading comprehension and increase engagement. This concept is an example of the synergy of the affective and cognitive issues vital to supporting literacy development for secondary learners.

Activating background knowledge is seen throughout the literature as a primary strategy, and, for struggling or reluctant readers, serves as a prerequisite for increasing engagement and improving reading comprehension of content-area texts (see, for example, Alvermann, 2001; Kamil, 2003; Curtis, 2002). Although typically situated as a reading comprehension strategy in the literature, it also defines one of the primary ways to engage students with text. This overlap of positioning in the literature is evidence of the necessity to situate reading comprehension within larger mediating contexts for learning. Schoenbach et al. (1999) discuss the interdependence and simultaneity of the social, personal, cognitive, and knowledge-building dimensions of building academic literacy habits and skills. As Grady (2002) points out, "The work of sociolinguists, cultural anthropologists, and critical theorists has shown that it is not possible to separate classroom practices such as strategies for activating background knowledge from the larger social and cultural contexts in which the practices are enacted (e.g., Heath, 1983; Gee, 1996)" (p. 3).

The classroom strategy of fostering deliberate connections with text overlaps with, but is not synonymous with, activating background knowledge. Making text connections includes connections to other content, world knowledge, and self-knowledge and is therefore not limited by personal experience relevant to the topic or content under discussion or in the text. Further, the strategy of making connections occurs during and after reading, not just before reading, which is how the strategy of activating background knowledge is usually discussed.

Activating background knowledge and making text-to-self, text-to-text, and text-to-world connections serves three literacy support objectives—each provides a purpose for reading, sustains engagement with text, and improves reading comprehension, which in turn increases students' content-area knowledge and improves their achievement. Establishing a purpose for reading motivates students to read and is related to improved reading comprehension. Sustained engagement with text is therefore supported through having a purpose for reading, having adequate background knowledge, and making personal connections to the text. These factors enable students to persevere through challenging text. (See, for example, Jetton & Alexander, 2000; Alvermann, 2001; Davidson & Koppenhaver, 1993; Guthrie, 2001; Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000; Langer, 2001; McCombs & Barton, 1998; Moje & Hinchman, 2004; Moore, Alvermann & Hinchman, 2000; Swan, 2004.)

Texts therefore become tools for constructing knowledge as opposed to authoritative repositories of facts, and the active connections students make to text become the vehicle for learning (e.g., Alvermann, 2001; Smith & Wilhelm, 2002). This transactional view of reading assumes that the cognitive aspects of schema theory and the motivational aspects of personal interest and relevance actively combine to support a given reader's ability to negotiate meaning from/with text (e.g., Ruddell & Unrau, 1996).

Helping students to make these connections is key because student engagement is determined by personal purpose for reading, the particular texts being read, and the links between the texts and students' personal circumstance (Ivey, 1999). Helping students make connections between their own goals as readers and their choices of texts and strategies is also important for how students develop abilities and use text to learn (Guthrie, 2001; Swan, 2004). Engaging students in making connections through the use of the arts is another way that teachers can inspire involvement with text (see, for example, Wilhelm, 1995).

Relevance of This Promising Practice for ELLs

The research literature on best practices with secondary school ELLs includes markedly similar recommendations. We found that there were overlaps in the ELL literature regarding making connections to students' lives that could be summarized as building upon the familiar, scaffolding the unfamiliar, and honoring and responding to student input.

Building Upon the Familiar

According to the literature we reviewed, if ELLs are going to be successful at using reading and writing in U.S. schools to learn in supported (ESL or bilingual) and/or mainstream classrooms, their teachers must consciously activate learners' background knowledge to support the comprehension of challenging texts. In general, reading comprehension is positively supported to the extent to which the reader is familiar with the topics, objects, and events described in the text (e.g., Anderson, 1994). Studies indicate that comprehension is higher for second language learners when they are working with texts (e.g., Carrell, 1987; Fitzgerald, 1995) and content (e.g., Garcia, 1991; Godina, 1998) that are more familiar. Comprehension of content area concepts can therefore be enhanced by using culturally familiar contexts and building on students' prior knowledge.

ELLs are more likely to achieve when their teachers use multiple languages and contexts for teaching content (Lucas, 1993). Several studies (e.g., Fernandez & Nielsen, 1986; Kamil, 2003; Royer & Carlo, 1991; Tse, 2001) have found that when adolescent ELLs were first able to review content in their native language, they were able to write more about it in English and to comprehend more from subsequent reading in English. Not surprisingly, when ELLs' have limited prior academic content knowledge, it correlates with poor performance (Waxman & Tellez, 2002). Background knowledge is therefore "doubly important in second language reading because it interacts with language proficiency during reading, alleviating the comprehension difficulties stemming from language proficiency limitations. Building background knowledge on a text topic, through first hand experiences such as science experiments, museum visits, and manipulatives can facilitate success in reading" (Peregoy & Boyle, 2000, p. 239).

Research with secondary school ELLs who have little conventional literacy background in any language shows that untrained teachers can mistakenly assume that, if students lack basic decoding skills and rudimentary writing skills, then they also lack background knowledge that can be built from in literacy tasks (Garcia, 1999). However, as Walsh (1999) illustrates at length in her case study of the bilingual Haitian Literacy Program at Hyde Park High School in Boston and as Martin (2003) describes in his study of two limited-literacy Spanish-speakers, such students do bring to the classroom familiarity with storytelling conventions, genres of presentation, and so on. Heath (1983) and Lee (2004) make a similar observation regarding speakers of nonmainstream

dialects of English. The existence of these more advanced literacy skills must not be overlooked, especially for students who risk frustration for not yet having developed rudimentary literacy skills. Identifying and acknowledging these skills may be a key route for gaining student engagement (Ballenger, 1997).

Acknowledging students' particular extrinsic motivations for engaging with literacy can also be particularly productive with second language learners. Valdés (2003) has explored the cognitive complexity of students being used as interpreters by their families and the related skill development that this invites. Similarly, working with refugee adolescents, Hamayan (1994) also notes that even though the developed English literacy skills of these students is relatively modest, it may be a key and frequently used family resource as a student's family adapts to their new circumstances. Many ELLs do not play interpreting roles for their families, but some do, and for such students, English reading, speaking, and listening are crucially relevant.

Cultural and linguistic differences can also be reasons for a divide between teachers and students and can contribute to students being skeptical and underengaged in academic tasks (Erickson, 1987). According to Fillmore and Snow (2000, p. 3), "Too few teachers share or know about their students' cultural and linguistic backgrounds, or understand the challenges inherent in learning to speak and read Standard English." When this is the case, teachers might not know the relevant background knowledge that ELLs bring to reading, writing, and learning tasks. This gap in teachers' knowledge, however, can become an invitation to solicit and respond to ELLs' input.

Teachers can get ideas about what might be most familiar by interviewing students and parents or making visits to their students' communities and homes. One example of this is the Funds of Knowledge work carried out at the University of Arizona for more than a decade. This project has involved preservice and inservice teacher visits to the Spanish-speaking households of Latino students in Tucson. During the visits, teachers inventory examples of the funds of knowledge (that is, topics and experiences known by members of the household) and uses of literacy in out-of-school contexts. Later, in their teaching, these instructors can make reference to these topics, experiences, and uses of literacy to make the content of lessons more familiar. (See, for example, Gonzalez et al., 1995 and Moll et al., 1992.) As Hamann (2003) has noted in reference to a Funds of Knowledge-like innovative program that sent U.S. teachers to Mexico to learn more about their immigrant students' backgrounds, these types of programs need to carefully preserve an asset orientation, emphasizing what students bring rather than what they do not have. More recently, Lee (2004) has explicitly tied the Funds of Knowledge work to the domain of adolescent literacy, using it as the grounding for the second of two parts of her cultural modeling framework. She explains that her framework provides a path for linking students' culturally informed frames of reference and academic literacies. Langer (1997) applies the Funds of Knowledge concept to her study of Dominican students by having middle-school students participate in a book-writing project focusing on stories

from home. Moje et al. (2004) have also used this concept for longitudinal school and community ethnographic work with Latino middle school students, using it to frame their recommendations regarding literacy teaching.

Ensuring that students' identities and cultural backgrounds are attended to in the content of the curriculum needs to avoid the hazards of defining cultural identities as homogeneous and unchanging (Gonzalez, 1999; Lucas, 1993). Engaging in home visits or community research allows teachers to see the diversity within the group that they are learning more about. This knowledge lessens the chance that people of good intentions but differing backgrounds will assume that sharing a nationality or ethnicity with a literary character, for example, assures that character's cultural relevance (e.g., Freeman and Freeman, 2001). As exciting and useful as it might be to include Sandra Cisneros' novel *Caramelo* in either a language arts or social studies class, it would be inappropriate to assume all Mexican newcomer students would find it relevant (or that all students from Puerto Rican, Bosnian, or Filipino backgrounds would not). From a mental health standpoint, if students feel that teachers are not seeing *them*, but rather a stereotypic template of their type, such students will not feel safe and responded to. The salient consideration here is not what a teacher intends, but how a student understands the actions precipitated by the teacher's intent. Given the heterogeneity among ELLs (Gándara, 1997; Garcia, 1999; Sturtevant, 1998), it is important to note that, as is the case with their monolingual peers, different ELLs, even from a common culture, will bring varying background knowledge to new learning tasks.

Scaffolding the Unfamiliar

Sometimes teachers cannot or should not adapt or limit content to the more familiar. Indeed, an important task of secondary school instructors is to teach students the genres and idioms that students have not previously had access to (Christie, 1997; Delpit, 1995). To engage students with the unfamiliar, teachers can build purposeful bridges that help students connect their own experiences to the unit of study and specifically to the assigned reading (Ballenger, 1997). This practice can include timing the explicit introduction of an unfamiliar theme/topic to overlap students' engagement with that topic in text. It can also mean overtly engaging in compare/contrast activities so that students are positioned to see how their mental schema for an activity/topic match and differ from that intended by an author.

Students tend to be willing to grapple with difficult text if it seems related to their interests or can be made relevant to their experience, even if the context or setting is unfamiliar (e.g., Laliberty, 2001; Maldonado, 2001). Teachers may, for instance, demonstrate how the text is relevant to students' interests through inquiry-based exploration of the text at hand or through the use of arts-based interpretations of the same book or similar theme. Maldonado recounts having success getting her high school ELLs to engage with Victor Hugo's *Les Misérables* by scaffolding that reading through attendance at a theatrical performance and multiple classroom conversations

about the book's topics of good and bad choices, moral arguments, and personal integrity. Tapping students' interest thus can lead to engagement with a text that is beyond their independent reading level. This creates both an internal impetus on the students' part for further skill development (to get access to "the interesting stuff") and the opportunity for teacher/student and peer/peer dialogue that makes the classroom environment itself more interesting.

In a different example, Steffensen et al. (1979) found that Indian students reading about North American weddings tended to have a distorted understanding of the described events; their understanding incorporated elements from the South Asian weddings with which they were familiar. A compare/contrast activity could use the familiar Indian wedding as an engaging starting point with such learners, while illustrating how North American weddings differ. With the North American context understood, the Indian-background readers would be better positioned to accurately comprehend a text about North American weddings. As another example, Valenzuela (1999) and Villenas (2001) have described at length how the Spanish word *educación* has moral implications regarding relationships and comportment that its English cognate *education* lacks. A compare and contrast activity around this cognate would not only clarify this specific example but also help second language learners gain perspective on the possibilities and hazards of using cognates to aid second language comprehension. Walsh (1999) also describes the successful use of compare and contrast activities with Haitian immigrant high schoolers with limited previous schooling.

Responding to Students' Input

Heath and McLaughlin (1993), Mahiri (1998), Moje (2000), and Sarroub (2001), are among the researchers who have established that various groups of young people employ powerful literacy practices outside of school that are unrecognized, untapped, and/or unvalued in school. Supporting students to construct authentic connections between these existing literacy habits and their learning needs can be an effective way to motivate engagement in academic literacy habits and skills as well.

A vivid illustration of making connections to students' lives and using student engagement as a springboard to improve academic achievement can be found in Olsen and Jaramillo's (2000) description of the experience of students' collecting, analyzing, and reporting data to teachers at Alisal High School. In the early 1990s, Alisal was a school of almost all Latino students situated in an agricultural community in California's Central Valley. More than half of the students were ELLs eligible for modified instruction. At the school, a team of six students, supported by a group of reform-oriented teachers, conducted a series of focus groups with a cross-section of classes at the school—from advanced placement to mainstream to ESL at all four grade levels. The student team presented a report of their findings and recommendations, which led to the schools' adoption of a block schedule, the creation of a tutorial block, and the

raising of academic standards in specific response to challenges and struggles that the students had articulated. Teacher collaboration time and twice-a-week heterogeneously grouped advisory sessions were also added. Each of these changes (and others) was consequential in changing instructional practice and improving student learning. The teachers' new strategies were grounded in an understanding of literacy development and collective acceptance of the need to integrate the development of literacy skills with their teaching of content. The student body's acceptance of the changes necessary to improve instruction was advanced by positioning students as central figures in both the problem diagnosis and the development of solutions. Students could see how their experience and recommendations mattered.

From an urban environment on the other side of the country, Darling-Hammond et al. (1995) describe a number of efforts at New York City's International High School that were created collaboratively by teachers and students. One of the efforts, the Beginnings program, uses students' autobiographies—where they are from and what their new circumstances are (all students at International High School are immigrants)—as the starting point for a number of academic activities, including goal setting and need assessing regarding English language acquisition. These efforts, too, have succeeded at using student input as a vehicle of engagement.

The literature on the schooling of adolescent ELLs emphasizes that context matters; what works with some ELLs in some places will not work as well elsewhere (e.g., Gándara, 1997; Hawkins, 2004; Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 2004). Teachers need to know specifically which literacy skills and which background knowledge their ELLs bring to the classroom, and they need to be able to adapt the promising practice recommendations that emerged from a review of the adolescent literacy literature to the specific needs and language capacities of the students in their classes. Teachers can engage ELLs with content-related texts, including advanced texts, by using a variety of strategies to activate background knowledge, help students make connections to text, and solicit and respond to students' input about their literacy and learning needs and interests.

Creating Safe and Responsive Classrooms

From the Adolescent Literacy Support Framework:

> *Teachers are responsive to adolescent students' needs for choice and flexibility and offer clear expectations and support for higher achievement. A variety of materials and resources are available for teaching and learning. Engagement can be the key to motivating learners previously caught in a cycle of failure in reading and writing. Teachers are also responsive to differing cultural perspectives, making these perspectives clear through their facilitation of discussion, choices of literature, structuring of assignments and assessment strategies. Teachers encourage students from all backgrounds and from diverse perspectives to participate in supportive classroom discussions.* – Meltzer (2001)

Based upon their research, Moje and Hinchman (2004) emphatically make the point that "All practice needs to be culturally responsive in order to be best practice" (p. 321). Further, they define *responsive teaching* as teaching that "*merges* the needs and interests of youth as persons with the needs and interests of youth as learners of new concepts, practices, and skills" (p. 323). They stress that since we are all cultural beings with multiple identities (e.g., student, son/daughter, sibling, peer, worker, male/female) who must navigate the world as bearers and enactors of these identities, responsive teaching is not an add-on for those from other than mainstream cultural backgrounds but rather a fundamental condition of effective classroom practice for all learners.

Responsiveness to literacy needs must, obviously, take place within the larger context of being responsive to the learning needs of adolescents. Roe (2001) refers to a cycle of "engagement and enablement." Motivation and engagement are enhanced as learning needs are met, and students' motivation and engagement support their improvement of academic habits and skills. It is therefore not surprising that adolescent literacy researchers, like those who examine effective instructional practices for adolescents more generally, identify the need for supporting choice, autonomy, purpose, voice, and authenticity as key features of responsive classroom pedagogy that supports adolescents' literacy development (e.g., Guthrie, 2001; Ivey & Broaddus, 2001; Reed, Schallert, Beth, & Woodruff, 2004; Roe, 2001; Ruddell & Unrau, 1996; Smith & Wilhelm, 2002; Swan, 2004).

If students are to develop their academic literacy habits and skills, they need to engage with reading and writing (Guthrie, 2001; Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000), but direct engagement with reading and writing is not necessarily the first or only

step. Developmentally, adolescents respond to opportunities to make choices, be independent, and have autonomy. These opportunities therefore become important supports of their development of healthy identities as readers, writers, and speakers (Moore et al., 1999; Reed et al., 2004; Swan, 2004). How students respond to opportunities for autonomy depends in part upon whether they carry a task or performance orientation and may require more modeling and mediation from the teacher for those students who typically bring a performance orientation to literacy tasks (Ruddell & Unrau, 1996).

For some students, goal setting and assessment will encourage or motivate engagement with reading and writing tasks (Guthrie, 2001; Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000; Schunk & Zimmerman, 1997). When teachers use multiple forms of assessment, it allows them to better modulate instruction to match students' literacy needs (Langer, 1999; Peterson et al., 2000). Ongoing formative assessment provides teacher and student alike with valid information about the student's literacy habits and skills and/or their content knowledge. (See, for example, Biancarosa & Snow, 2004.) Use of more than one form of assessment makes it possible for assessment to be responsive to student needs, learning styles, and strengths, greatly improving the chances that assessment will accurately reflect learning and signal areas for additional attention (Moore et al., 1999; Solano-Flores & Trumbull, 2003). Having students choose the assessment format they will use to show what they know and involving them with goal setting are additional vehicles for improving motivation and engagement (Guthrie, 2001). When teachers use multiple forms of assessment, it allows them to better modulate instruction to match students' literacy needs (Langer, 1999; Peterson et al., 2000). Involving students in rubric development is another way to respond to students' need for voice and input and to learn what they value and respect in high quality written work or presentations. This kind of formative and frequent assessment is different from that generated by large-scale, often high-stakes standardized tests. Whatever the merit of such tests, they do not provide the just-in-time, individualized, nuanced feedback that is being referred to here (Sarroub & Pearson, 1998).

Authenticity is another frequent theme in the literature related to motivation and engagement (e.g., Roe, 2001; Schoenbach et al., 1999; Smith & Wilhelm, 2002). Adolescents want to conduct inquiry for real purposes, not just to "pass it in to the teacher." They want their work to matter and they are more than willing to put effort into developing literacy habits and skills if they are convinced that it is important and/or that their work will help others. This is why having adolescents read with younger students, design Web sites, write newspaper articles, write books for younger readers, and conduct and report upon inquiries reflecting real societal concerns (e.g., neighborhood crime, pollution, teen issues, school or city policies that affect them) are often strategies that motivate and engage students to persist with challenging or extended reading and writing tasks (Alvermann, 2001).

Another key feature of fostering motivation and engagement with literacy should be safety and inclusion. One issue is the culture of the classroom and whether the collaboratively produced webs of meaning—marking what does and does not matter and who is included and how—is truly responsive to the needs of struggling readers and writers (Moore, Alvermann, & Hinchman, 2000; Ruddell & Unrau, 1996; Van den Broek & Kremer, 2000). For those who make it to high school without adequate literacy habits and skills, it is often scary to reveal this to others and to begin the hard work of addressing the issues. Relevant questions weighed by learners deciding whether to engage are numerous: Is it safe in this class to be a struggling reader or writer? Is it safe to make mistakes? Are all voices equally valued and listened to? Are spaces made for those who are slower to participate or fearful to speak or share? Are there texts that are responsive to learners' needs, texts that match varying interests and/or reading levels? Do students feel that the teacher knows them, is on their side, and is working with them to help them develop their literacy habits and skills? The negative consequences for learning and literacy development when students do not answer these questions affirmatively have been well documented (e.g., Foley, 1990).

For many students with low literacy self-esteem, the motivation to read and write depends on their judgments regarding whether a teacher will give up on them or believes that they are worth the investment of time and encouragement. This factor emerges again and again in the literature (e.g., Dillon, 1989; Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000; Krogness, 1995; Ruddell & Unrau, 1996; Smith & Wilhelm, 2002; Valenzuela, 1999) and underscores the importance of teacher and student relationships along with the importance of teacher understanding of adolescent literacy development and issues (e.g., Moore, Alvermann, & Hinchman, 2000; Moore et al., 1999; Ruddell & Unrau, 1996).

A classroom environment that responds to adolescents' need to feel competent and that provides feedback in a specific and supportive way can result in greater motivation to engage with literacy tasks (Smith & Wilhelm, 2002). Technology use can be of assistance here because many students feel competent with computers and may be more willing to engage with literacy tasks using them (Alvermann, 2001; Biancarosa & Snow, 2004; Kamil, 2003).

The adolescent literacy literature is also insistent that adolescents need and deserve access to a wide variety of types of texts and that the quality and diversity of reading material is related to motivation to read (Biancarosa & Snow, 2004; Curtis, 2002; Guthrie, 2001; Guthrie & Knowles, 2001; Ivey & Broaddus, 2001; McCombs & Barton, 1998; McKenna, 2001; Moore, et al., 1999). Although this may be seen as a resource or structural issue as opposed to a classroom culture or motivational issue, it is in fact both. The presence or absence of a wide variety of texts enables or undermines the potential for a literacy-rich environment within a school or classroom. The availability of texts that mirror students' social realities, interests, and reading levels makes clear that

student learning will be supported and student identities honored. Such a collection should include a wide selection of content-related fiction and nonfiction texts written by a variety of authors representing multiple perspectives, cultures, styles, genres, and time periods. Absent an abundant supply of texts, "It would be extremely difficult for students to engage in critical analysis—such as comparing and contrasting conflicting textual information, or interpreting and integrating differing viewpoints of a topic of study—without having access to multiple texts to read" (Guthrie, 2001, p. 6). Having access to a wide variety of literature to support content-area learning is therefore not a luxury but a key facet of creating and sustaining a motivating learning environment that supports academic literacy development. It supports students feeling tended to, enabling their engagement and their willingness to use texts to think and learn.

Relevance of This Promising Practice for ELLs

In surveying the secondary school ELL literature, three aspects of responsiveness emerge related to the psycho-emotional disposition of students to engage with academic literacy development and content-area learning. Although each has ramifications that go well beyond language learning and literacy development, it is these dimensions of each issue that are emphasized here:

- Feeling truly safe to participate even with less-than-perfect English.

- Having teachers who understand the typical varieties of spoken and written language produced by ELLs and how competencies and errors may vary by different language groups—that is, having teachers who can distinguish content comprehension problems from language comprehension problems and who can effectively address both.

- Seeing choices of texts and hearing examples and discussion of issues that reflect ELLs' social realities.

None of these are currently commonplace in most mainstream content-area classrooms. Yet with minor adjustments, teachers can help turn their classrooms from places where ELLs refuse or find it difficult to participate into responsive learning environments where ELLs' academic literacy development can be effectively supported.

Safe Spaces

Creating safe classroom spaces where students of varied perspectives and backgrounds feel welcome is essential to the successful participation of ELLs in both supported (ESL or bilingual) and mainstream content-focused classrooms. To be culturally responsive, classrooms must be centered around instruction that "emphasizes students' cultural and situational concerns, including critical family and community issues, and incorporates them into the curriculum, textbooks, and learning activities. The approach also stresses social and academic responsibility as well as appreciation of diversity" (Waxman & Tellez, 2002, pp. 1-2).

Miramontes et al. (1997) stress that the academic well-being of ELLs is the responsibility of all the instructors at a school, not just special program teachers. (See also Dwyer, 1998.) The literature suggests that mainstream teachers have the primary responsibility for creating a safe space for interaction where ELLs feel they can participate without fear of ridicule. Several studies have depicted the negative consequences for ELLs when this does not occur (e.g., Early, 1985; Schinka-Llano, 1983; Verplaetse, 1998). Pappamihiel notes:

> The process of moving from an English as a second language (ESL) class to a mainstream class with no supplementary English support can be very traumatic for many ESL students. Even though many have good English skills in terms of social proficiency (BICS), many are still struggling with the type of cognitive academic language (CALP) necessary for success in the mainstream classroom (Cummins 1978, 2000). Add this to situational pressure, associated with interactions with native speakers of English, and one can easily see where the process of moving from the ESL class to the mainstream environment would be anxiety provoking. (2001, p. 2)

It is worth considering the community-like quality of the programs many ELLs participated in prior to being mainstreamed (Minicucci, 2000). A pilot study of eight high schools (Hamann, Migliacci, & Smith, 2004) concerned with how plans to convert large high schools into smaller learning communities was or was not inclusive of ELLs noted that in many cases the ESL and transitional bilingual education programs that ELLs had negotiated prior to exiting and being mainstreamed were like *de facto* smaller learning communities—i.e., programs where students were well known by adults that they worked hard for and trusted. The researchers also found that ELLs who had acquired enough English proficiency to exit such programs often maintained ties with their former ESL instructors, coming back to get help with homework, to announce an academic success, or to seek counsel on school and nonschool struggles. Feeling cared for matters (Valenzuela, 1999), which includes having an outlet to tackle the stresses, academic and otherwise, that are part of negotiating high school, culturally and linguistically unfamiliar terrain, and coming of age. As an extra stress, many immigrant students have endured long stretches in the care of someone other than their U.S. guardian (e.g., raised by grandparents in Guatemala while parents found work in the United States) (Súarez-Orozco & Súarez-Orozco, 2001). It follows that ELLs would welcome the same sense of safety they found in supported programs within the classrooms of their mainstream teachers.

At the middle school level, the Student Diversity Study (Minicucci, 2000) also found that ELLs did better socially and academically when structural changes—like teacher looping, "families" (i.e., interdisciplinary teacher teams that share a group of students), and after-school programs—enabled teachers and students to know each other better. In the successful schools, traditional modes of organization and the rigidities of schedule were overturned in ways that built ELLs' senses of safety and community. Walsh (1999)

also noted, in reference to the Haitian Literacy Program, that immigrant students with limited prior school experience needed more than traditional 40-minute time slots with an instructor to develop the trusting relationship from which engaged learning could follow.

Mainstream teachers can create a culture of and expectation for safe classroom participation of ELLs through the use of such strategies as flexible grouping, intolerance of ridicule, extended wait time after posing a question, and a focus on inquiry-based authentic projects where students' various backgrounds are seen as strengths. Instructional supports, such as partnering, think alouds, practicing before being asked to read aloud or present, and use of Word Walls and graphic organizers also can assist (e.g., Pappamihiel, 2001; Waxman & Tellez, 2002). Failure to create such spaces can result in high nonparticipation by many ELLs, with participation rates further varying by gender (see, for example, Chang, 1997; Pappamihiel, 2001; Wolfe & Faltis, 1999; Wortham, 2001). Verplaetse (1998) notes that mainstream teachers often fail to enable ELLs' full participation in the classroom and that they usually do so unwittingly, suggesting that consciously attending to the issue of ELLs' full participation would be part of solving the problem. Without eliciting maximum participation, teachers have no way of assessing what ELLs know and where they need instructional support.

Assessment, like instruction, should be responsive, rigorous, and safe. Teachers need to keep four ideas in mind as they consider assessment in regards to ELLs' motivation and engagement:

- First, they should note that assessments affect how students regard a classroom, a subject, and themselves as learners. Unmediated, poor test outcomes can contribute to low self-esteem, diminished engagement, and/or a sense that the teacher or strategy of measurement is unfair.

- Second, teachers should account for Connell's (1993) point that curricular justice also requires assessment justice. That means that culturally-bound assessment instruments (that use word problems assuming certain familiarities, for example) will underestimate the proficiencies of those whose experiences poorly correspond with the embedded presumptions of the assessment instrument (Lachat, 1999; 2004). Solano-Flores and Trumbull (2003) offer a vivid illustration: they found that a math test question from the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) was consistently misunderstood by low-income students (obscuring that their math calculations, ostensibly the point of interest, were actually often accurate).

- Third, content-area teachers need to remember that all tests are tests for language (even if that is not the target area for measurement) and that interpreting test results from ELLs requires winnowing apart language comprehension issues from content-area comprehension issues (Abedi,

2004). For example, Greene (1998) found that bilingual programs resulted in significant student achievement gains in math when the math achievement was measured in Spanish but that math gains when measured in English were insignificant. Solano-Flores and Trumbull complicate but reiterate this point with their finding that ELLs vary by subject in terms of which language they test better in, reflecting perhaps differences in the language they were using for acquisition. Therefore it is not safe to presume that a Spanish-speaking ELL who tests better in math if the exam is in Spanish will necessarily do better on a social studies exam that is in Spanish instead of English. This interlingual dilemma relates to literacy motivation and engagement because students who feel that an assessment did not adequately reflect their content-area knowledge are vulnerable to frustration and disengagement.

- Finally, teachers need to recognize that adolescent ELLs often bring to U.S. classrooms their memories and understandings of schooling and assessment learned elsewhere (Olsen & Jaramillo, 2000; Valdés, 2001). Thus students from Hong Kong, for example, where state-funded education beyond the ninth grade ends for students who do not score in the top quartile on a standard assessment, might be particularly anxious about assessments. Similarly, students from systems where poor test outcomes are seen as an affront to the instructor might misinterpret the indifferent response of an instructor to their poor performance on a quiz or test.

Responsiveness to Language and Identity

Walquí (2000b) has argued that students' backgrounds should be the point of departure for how teachers respond to ELLs, while Valenzuela (1999) has noted that Latino ELLs and other Latino students rarely encounter curricula and classroom practices that perform this function. Teachers can unwittingly sabotage their efforts to create positive learning environments through their unexamined responses to ELLs' spoken and written errors in English. Many middle and high school teachers are missing part of the knowledge base they need to effectively facilitate the language and literacy growth across the content areas (Fillmore & Snow, 2000). Without this knowledge base, teachers tend to (1) become hyper-critical of ELLs' written and spoken language errors, (2) forbid native language usage in the classroom as a scaffold for academic understanding and English language development, or, equally problematic, (3) ignore language errors and provide no way for ELLs to improve their academic English. All three types of responses can be made by well-meaning teachers who think they are being responsive to the needs of ELLs, yet all three are ultimately unresponsive to ELLs' needs. Instead, teachers need to lead classrooms where language and literacy development are seen as part of the task of content-area instruction.

Harklau (2002) reminds us that most adolescent second-language learners already have some developed literacy skills in a first language that they use as tools for academic

tasks. Thus, use of the native language to scaffold literacy development in English is often a productive strategy for ELLs (Fernandez & Nielsen, 1986; Garcia, 1999; Jimenez, 1994; Jimenez & Gersten, 1999; Kamil, 2003; Royer & Carlo, 1991; Sturtevant, 1998; Tse, 2001). For instance, allowing students to discuss or draft a response to a question in their native language before crafting a response in English may better enable them to reflect upon what they know about the content. Studies show that written responses in English are more complete and reflective of content understanding when based upon students' native language (written or verbal) responses to texts they have read in English, in comparison with the quality of responses students produce when required to respond on the spot in English (e.g., Moll, 1988).

It is not just literacy habits developed in a first language that ELLs can draw on to perform well across the curriculum. As Cummins (2001) has highlighted, many low-incidence English language words, like the technical vocabulary students encounter across the content areas, come from Greek and Latin roots. Once native Spanish, Portuguese, French, Italian, and Haitian Creole speakers recognize that science and math words in their first language have cognates in English, rapid acquisition of important vocabulary can more easily follow. (See Nagy et al., 1993 and Nagy, McClure, and Mir, 1997 for more regarding Spanish-English bilinguals' use of cognates.)

Mainstream teachers of ELLs need professional development in the area of second-language acquisition and literacy development, particularly with reference to how they can most productively respond to ELLs as they gain proficiency with academic English. Such professional development might include studying how different first languages transfer to English with regard to the alphabetic principle, syntax, and language structures; learning about catalogues of language errors and what they indicate about first language and literacy development; and focusing on how to explicitly teach the text structures and discourse features of various content areas (Fillmore & Snow, 2000). This is not an extra, nor is it irrelevant to content area teaching and learning generally, since language and content area literacy are linked with one another and academic success depends on the ability to ably use reading, writing, speaking, and listening to learn. The reading comprehension and writing skills of all learners are advanced if they learn and master the text structures, discourse features, genre traditions, and so forth, of the various content areas. Because of this, all mainstream teachers need to have some understanding of language and literacy development and the ways these are particularly important to effectively support the content-area learning of ELLs.

U.S. education has an unfortunate history of attempting to eradicate a student's native language (if it is not English) (e.g., Dozier, 1970; Spicer, 1976; Suina, 2004). However, a student's native language is an important aspect of that student's identity (Epstein, 1970; Ochoa & Cadeiro-Kaplan, 2004; Tse, 2001); a communication lifeline to family, peers, and community; and a profound resource to draw upon as s/he learns English.

Learning and mastering academic English is a primary goal of U.S. schooling and using English to demonstrate mastery is a standard expectation across the curriculum. Even so, it is counterproductive to create learning environments where ELLs feel they have to sacrifice many assets they bring to the table that can help them learn and develop positive identities as readers and writers.

Acknowledging Plural Social Realities

In truly responsive classrooms, teachers explicitly acknowledge and honor students' life experiences and cultural and linguistic backgrounds because they are building blocks onto which students add and they are sources for the strategies students deploy to learn (Montes, 2002). Successful learning environments for ELLs are created when teachers respect their students' home languages and cultures, and acknowledge students' tasks, responsibilities, and identities beyond school, such as contributor to the family income or caretaker of younger siblings. (Hamann, 2001; Orellana, 2001; Sarroub, 2001). Teachers can help ELLs make the necessary transitions and build academic language in ways that "do not undercut the role that parents and families must continue to play in their education and development" (Fillmore & Snow, 2000). As such, they can avoid forcing students into situations where they must choose between family, language, and identity or academic success. Biliteracy can be an appropriate and viable goal for ELLs, given that they are negotiating social worlds where different languages are dominant (Tse, 2001).

Studying and reading texts that reflect one's ethnic and/or racial identity are known critical supports for healthy adolescent identity development (Tatum, 1997). This is true not only in English class but across the content areas, in the stories presented in history/social studies and in the thinking and accomplishments underlying math, science, business, technology, and art. Students from various ethnic and/or racial backgrounds must see themselves as part of, not excluded from, the academic world in order to engage. Studies show (e.g., Darder, 1993) that when students can see themselves in the academic content they are engaging with, they can better imagine their own success and possible futures and tend to do better academically. For example, Reyhmer and Davidson (1992) found that, to improve the education of ELLs, teachers should relate their instruction to the out-of-school life of their students. Concentrating particularly on math and science instruction, they noted that ethno-mathematics and ethno-science could help teachers relate these subjects to students' lives. They also noted that teachers of math and science needed to provide writing and other language development activities for their ELLs.

Such responsiveness does not mean that a Mexican immigrant student needs an example of a Mexican immigrant scientist to understand science. What it does mean, however, is that the Mexican immigrant student will do better if, in his/her attempt to understand science, he/she is supported by teachers who endeavor to relate the science curriculum to what the student knows, has experienced, and seeks.

The ELL literature confirms the importance of the promising practices related to creating safe and responsive classrooms found in the general adolescent literacy literature. However, added attention and teacher knowledge related to the implemention of these practices in ways described in this paper will be critical to truly enact the goal of safety and responsiveness for ELLs.

Having Students Interact With Each Other and With Text

From the Adolescent Literacy Support Framework:

Teachers expect that readers will actively interact with text to transact meaning; that students will interactively explore content and develop common understandings; and that both teachers and students will interact to understand point of view. Teachers consistently expect responses to text and experience as a part of teaching and learning. Teachers foster literacy development in the classroom by using collaborative learning techniques as well as creating a classroom environment where diverse perspectives are welcomed and supported. – Meltzer (2001)

Having students interact with each other and with text in ways that stimulate questioning, predicting, visualizing, summarizing, and clarifying leads to improved reading comprehension and skill at content-area reading (e.g., Alvermann & Moore, 1991; Langer, 1999; NRP, 2000; Palincsar & Brown, 1984; Ruddell & Unrau, 1996; Schoenbach, et al., 1999; Symons, Richards & Greene, 1995; Wilhelm, 1995). This instructional principle acknowledges the effectiveness of a "reading as problem solving" approach as well as the social nature of literacy development. Both perspectives have implications for motivation because they engage students with text through the use of cognitive and social strategies that align with the developmental needs of adolescents as understood in both cognitive and social learning theories.

Placing students in an interactive stance with text positions them to be active readers of text and negotiators of meaning. This stance results in improved reading comprehension (Alvermann, 2001, Ruddell & Unrau, 1996). Many adolescent literacy researchers also advocate that students be taught and encouraged to take a critical approach to literacy—that is, to actively question authorial position, credibility, audience, language, and validity. Critical literacy, which involves the cultural and political analysis of text, clearly motivates the engagement of adolescents with text and, according to some researchers and literacy theorists, is an essential component of adolescent literacy growth and development (see, for example, Appleman, 2000; Alvermann, 2001; Reed et al., 2004; Schoenbach et al., 1999).

Researchers have pointed to a connection between motivation and strategy use in that intrinsic motivation seems to predict strategy use, and strategy use seems to increase motivation (e.g., Curtis, 2002; Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000; Roe, 2001). Most research-

grounded literacy strategies are directly connected to increasing strategic or focused interaction with text. (See, for example, Duke & Pearson, 2002; Rosenshine, Meister, & Chapman, 1996.) This technique can subsequently create a cycle of motivation in which interaction with text, increasingly autonomous use of literacy support strategies, and growing confidence and competence as a reader reinforce one another (e.g., Jetton & Alexander, 2004).

Using collaborative learning structures to discuss and negotiate text positively correlates with students' engagement, reading comprehension, and content-area learning (e.g., Biancarosa & Snow, 2004; Guthrie, 2001; Ruddell & Unrau 1996; Langer, 1999; Guthrie, 2001). In Langer's (1999) study of high-performing secondary school English language arts classrooms, one of the six distinguishing characteristics was "the extent to which the classrooms were organized to provide students with a variety of opportunities to learn through substantive interaction with one another as well as with the teacher… English learning and high literacy (the content as well as the skills) were treated as social activity, with depth and complexity of understanding and proficiency with conventions growing out of the shared cognition that emerges from interaction with present and imagined others" (Langer, 1999, p. 32). It is through participating in a social community of literacy learners that students are motivated to read and write and to develop positive literacy identities (Curtis, 2002; Guthrie, 2001; Oldfather, 1994; Ruddell & Unrau, 1996).

Evidence indicates that academic literacy develops effectively when these strategies are used in conjunction with one another. For example, two strategies that combine structured interaction with text and collaborative learning have been shown to improve both student engagement and reading comprehension: Reciprocal Teaching (Palincsar, 2003; Palincsar & Brown, 1984, 1989; Rosenshine & Meister, 1994) and Collaborative Strategic Reading (Klingner & Vaughn, 1996; Klingner, Vaughn, & Schumm, 1998). A variety of cognitive strategies are addressed in Meltzer and Hamann (under development) that pertain to improved literacy and learning across the content areas but that are not specifically associated with improved literacy motivation and engagement. Positive outcomes have also been noted in classroom cultures where the social expectation is that students will read, discuss, and share books. Social motivation for reading is correlated with increased reading and higher achievement (Guthrie, 2001).

Relevance of This Promising Practice for ELLs

Text-based discussion and collaborative learning also emerge in the ELL literature as two key instructional approaches for engaging ELLs with content-area learning and literacy development. Much evidence exists that interactional learning encourages cooperation and discourse, which in turn drive language learning (Waxman & Tellez, 2002). This seems to be the case even when all the students in the group lack full English proficiency (e.g., Joyce, 1997). Discussion-based English language arts classrooms support greater academic achievement than those that do not use discussion as a

primary instructional strategy; this is true for both ELLs and their monolingual English-speaking peers (Applebee et al., 2003).

Such learning conditions are more common in higher track classes (Oakes, 1985) where, unfortunately, ELLs and former ELLs are less likely to be enrolled (Valdés, 2003). Still, when ELL high school students do manage to successfully advocate for their placement in more advanced tracks where these best practices are present, evidence suggests that they thrived (see, for example, Dwyer, 1998; Harklau, 1994a, 1994b; Lucas, 1993).

Text itself also emerges in the ELL literature as a key instructional aid to content-area learning. The reviewability of text and the act of producing text (writing) supplemented by speaking and listening activities seem to be more effective than lecture or discussion alone for enhancing content-area learning and academic literacy development (Harklau, 2002).

Opportunities and Expectations for Interactions With Text

Creating the expectations that students will make text-to-text, text-to-self, and text-to-world connections with all reading they encounter must be scaffolded by opportunities to do so and assignments that require it. Too often the classrooms encountered by secondary-level ELLs lack these rigorous but appropriate expectations (Ochoa & Cadeiro-Kaplan, 2004; Valdés, 2001). Beyond just discussion of content, there is also need for teacher-led attention to and exploration of the languages used in texts for rhetorical and aesthetic effect (Fillmore & Snow, 2000).

Providing frequent opportunities for students to engage in interactive discussion supports reading comprehension, content understanding, and spoken academic language development. Such "instructional conversation" provides extended dialogue opportunities, supports student construction of meaning, and involves teachers in "promoting connected language and expression, responding to and using students' contributions, and creating a challenging and non-threatening atmosphere" (Waxman & Tellez, 2002 p.1). Not only does this support academic success, but it provides crucial opportunities for ELLs to use academic language in meaningful ways (Echevarria & Goldenberg, 1999). Indeed, according to Hall and Verplaetse (2000a) the need for an abundance of written *and* oral interaction opportunities may be even greater for ELLs in their acquisition of academic language. Through classroom interaction, the student simultaneously develops socially, communicatively, and academically, while sharing in the co-construction of classroom knowledge, establishing his/her identity and membership in the classroom community (Corson, 2001; Toohey, 2000; Zuengler, 1993), and engaging in the requisite practice that leads to higher levels of academic communicative competence (Hall, 1993; Rosebery, Warren, & Conant, 1992). Dörnyei (2001b) identifies all of these as prerequisites or co-requisites for motivated and engaged reading, writing, speaking, and listening in a second language.

Text-based discussion supports interactive exploration of themes, ideas, and opinions with required connections back to the text: *Where in the text is the evidence for what you just described? Where in the text does the character say those things that give you that impression? Does the language used by the author support your contention?* Effective strategies to support text-based discussion include the use of essential questions to set purpose for reading; two-column note-taking, or coding, with subsequent discussion; extended wait time; think-pair-share; reciprocal teaching; small-group-to-large-group responses to questions and prompts (where the small group discusses the question first and then reports to the larger group); group comparison and contrast of text with visual material or another text through collaborative completion of graphic organizers; and use of quick writes before opening up the discussion (e.g., Anstrom, 1997, Adger & Peyton, 1999).

Harklau (2002) notes that the bulk of secondary-level ELLs' acquisition of academic literacy skills and content knowledge comes through textual rather than oral means. Of the high school students she studied, she writes, "The learners I was observing might only interact with the teacher once or twice during the entire school day…On the other hand, teachers routinely provided learners with explicit feedback on language form on their written language output" (pp. 331-332). Harklau also observed that these students often preferred to work with written as opposed to oral sources of input because texts were reviewable, unlike the talk of teachers and peers. She (2002) further notes:

> There are many potential incentives for literate learners to make use of writing and reading in their [English language] acquisition process. At a basic level, writing is handy. It serves as a mnemonic strategy; e.g., lists of vocabulary or common phrases. It can also serve analytic purposes; e.g., writing down examples of grammatical rules or diagramming sentences. On a broader level, a distinguishing characteristic of print is the possibility for language learners to interact without the pressures of face-to-face communication, allowing them to slow the pace, make exchanges reviewable and self-paced, and to put contributions in editable form. (p. 337)

Text, therefore, becomes an even more important vehicle for engaging adolescent ELLs than for other adolescents. For ELLs, it is imperative to create challenging environments for learning in which students can respond in meaningful ways to text and create meaningful texts themselves. Lower expectations do not support ELLs' co-development of literacy skills and content-area understanding; a rigorous, challenging environment does (Echevarria & Graves, 2003; Walquí, 2000a). What is needed is in direct contrast to the watered-down diet of isolated skills practice and low expectations for written output and higher order thinking that most high school ELLs currently experience as part of their schooling (Jimenez & Gersten, 1999; Ochoa & Cadeiro-Kaplan, 2004).

Collaborative Learning

Evidence suggests that the purposeful use of cooperative learning structures in content-area classrooms motivates ELLs' participation and supports their achievement (e.g., Montes, 2002). Well-designed cooperative learning is an important literacy development strategy for adolescent native and nonnative speakers because it allows the social construction of meaning through collaborative effort (Montes, 2002; Waxman & Tellez, 2002). Effective cooperative grouping strategies include purposeful assigning of students to groups (mixing native and nonnative speakers; creating groups around interest/inquiry; choosing group membership based on strengths brought to bear on project completion); using inquiry-based authentic or project-based tasks; scaffolding tasks so that check-in is required at different points in the process; requiring group and individual assessment; and establishing working group routines around particular types of tasks, for example, reciprocal teaching and collaborative strategic reading (e.g., Anstrom, 1997). To maximize literacy development, assignments should require students to use reading, writing, and speaking skills and should contain aspects that draw students' attention to both spoken and written language use (their own and others) and content (Fillmore & Snow, 2002).

Cooperative learning can also be usefully extended to having peers review each others' written work. In their study of second-language learners at the secondary level, Tsui and Ng (2000) found that while students preferred feedback on their writing from their teacher, most also found peer comments to be helpful. In particular, peer comments enhanced a sense of audience, raised learners' awareness of their own strengths and weaknesses, encouraged collaborative learning, and fostered the ownership of text. This was true for both less experienced and more experienced second-language writers.

Student-directed activities, cooperative learning, peer coaching, and opportunities for practice were all associated with more effective classrooms for ELLs (August & Hakuta, 1997; de Felix, Waxman, & Paige, 1993; Gándara, 1997; Ortiz, 2001; and Walquí, 2000a). In a quasi-experimental study comparing two college-prep algebra classes with high ELL enrollments in southern California, Brenner (1998) found that, in the classroom in which students regularly engaged in small group discussions, students more frequently communicated about math (i.e., were more often engaged in the learning task) and were more comfortable participating in large-group communication about math. In a review of the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA), a dual language immersion math and science instruction model, Chamot (1995) found that the program regularly promoted active student participation—such as hands-on experiences, cooperative learning, and higher-level questioning—and that it consistently yielded above-average student achievement.

Again, the value and importance of the use of this promising practice for ELLs was affirmed through our review of the ELL literature. Teachers who focus on engaging their students in substantive interactions with text and with one another about content will be serving the learning and literacy development needs of their ELL students as well as their other students.

Conclusions

Our reviews of the literature confirm that research-grounded recommendations related to the academic literacy development of adolescents and effective instruction for secondary-level ELLs substantively overlap in the area of student motivation and engagement. This means that motivation and engagement for literacy growth are domains in which adolescent ELLs are like other learners, at least at the level of principles (Jiménez & Gersten, 1999) of best practice (e.g., that students need safe spaces and that they will be more responsive if curriculum and pedagogy are inclusive of their social realities). There is no one best model for the education of ELLs because of both the heterogeneity of the ELL population and the diversity of contexts in which they attend school (Hawkins, 2004; Montero-Sieburth & Batt, 2001). Nonetheless, we feel confident that the overlap in the two literatures produces guidelines for instructional design and facilitation of learning that will support the academic literacy development of adolescents, be they ELLs or not. Moreover, the overlap between the two literatures strengthens the argument against isolating adolescent ELLs and limiting their access to classes that require engaging higher order skills; the literature is replete with examples of simplifying the curriculum for nonmainstream students to the academic detriment of those students (e.g., Harklau 1994a; 1994b; Greenleaf, Schoenbach, Cziko, & Mueller, 2001). When informed by the secondary school ELL literature, a blueprint can be put into place that points the way toward development of classroom contexts in which ELLs will be motivated and engaged to read and write across the content areas, and where reading and writing will contribute to their broader academic achievement.

We concur with LaCelle-Peterson and Rivera (1994) that it is generally not safe to presume that what works for monolingual mainstream students will also work well for ELLs. However, our findings suggest that teachers' capacities to foster contexts that promote student motivation and engagement with text are fundamental elements for guided adolescent literacy learning for both ELLs and other students. Therefore, teachers who have learned how to be effective promoters of adolescents' literacy development possess an important part of the toolkit they need to work effectively with ELLs. Training all secondary-school teachers to promote content-area literacy development can be part of the strategy for improving schools' capacity to respond to secondary-level ELLs.

These findings also imply that training content-area teachers for effective literacy work with ELLs involves challenges similar to those of other attempts at implementing schoolwide adolescent literacy initiatives. Both the adolescent literacy literature and the research on schooling ELLs emphasize that *all* teachers need to share in the educational task, whether it be promoting literacy across the content areas (e.g., Moore, Alvermann, & Hinchman, 2000; Schoenbach et al., 1999) or the general assurance that ELLs are academically well attended to (e.g., Miramontes et al., 1997). Enactment of either or both of these standards requires departure from business as usual in secondary schools, where the assumption has been that supporting literacy development, whether for

ELLs or their monolingual peers, is some other teacher's responsibility (e.g., the English teacher, the remedial reading teacher, or the ESL teacher).

Focusing upon these strategies to improve student motivation and engagement with literacy within preservice and inservice training for secondary school teachers is doubly important because it responds to two related contemporary needs. Teachers who learn to be effective promoters of adolescents' literacy development through attention to motivation and engagement possess an important part of the toolkit they need to work effectively with ELLs. Therefore, we contend that once teachers have begun to effectively facilitate a recommended promising practice—e.g., creating safe and responsive classrooms—teachers are better positioned to recognize and attend to issues that are particular to second language learners within the context of creating a risk-free environment to develop strong literacy habits and skills. For example, safe and responsive classrooms that support the active participation and involvement of all students in developing their academic literacy habits and skills would mean that teachers would not denigrate or dismiss a student's first language, would know how and when native language use is a productive scaffold to academic literacy development in English, and would be patient with less than perfect English while providing helpful, just-in-time feedback.

Successful negotiation of the academic expectations of secondary school in the U.S. requires the effective use of text to learn, whether as a reader or writer of content related texts. This is true whether one is an ELL or not. Reading and writing at the secondary level have to be at more than a basic level; students must be able to master the vocabularies, genres, and conventions of the major content areas. Both research literatures point to a number of common strategies teachers can use to motivate students to engage with and persevere at mastering these tasks. Students will use their background knowledge as they attempt new academic literacy tasks and should be supported in (1) accessing the parts of that knowledge that are pertinent to learning new skills and content, (2) evaluating the potential relevance of that knowledge, and (3) identifying how a concept that they are familiar with in one way differs in its use in a new context. For students to persevere at these tasks requires engagement; engagement can be increased by teaching students to make text-to-self, text-to-text, and text-to-world connections. Students will take on difficult texts and will practice reading and writing if it seems worthwhile—that is, if it accomplishes a goal like helping them learn more about something they want to better understand or addresses a key interest.

Successful adolescent literacy initiatives and successful school responses to adolescent ELLs both depend on students feeling psychologically safe, capable, and supported. Each of these conditions is in turn set up by attending to the multiple experiences, identities, and community memberships that are salient to the student. As Valenzuela (1999) suggested, to get skeptical or struggling students to care about school, these

students need to feel cared for. Successful programs also require an explicit delineation of expectations (the teacher's, the student's, and the state's—i.e., state curriculum frameworks or content area standards) including accurate assessments of students' literacy strengths and challenges. Students should be engaged as partners in their own literacy development. However, students cannot be "taught at" and be expected to engage. Rather, adolescents need to engage with teachers as partners in their own literacy development. Teachers should discuss with students their literacy strengths and challenges, co-establishing goals and identifying processes that will support them to go from where they are to where they seek to be.

To promote ELLs' or other students' continued development and application of literacy skills for academic learning requires explicit planning. Educators need to plan opportunities for students to work on such skills and ensure that (1) they provide the environmental resources to support the work (i.e., various text materials); (2) such work is grounded by high expectations and students can achieve or surpass the levels depicted in state standards; and (3) students find assigned academic literacy tasks engaging—that they involve choice, are authentic, promote self-efficacy, and support autonomy.

The literature suggests that cooperative learning and structured group work around text can effectively help both ELLs and their monolingual peers develop academic habits and skills. Even students not fully proficient in English can assist classmates by examining their writing and discussing and interacting with text. In the case of ELLs and literacy development, there is evidence that many adolescent ELLs prefer to learn from text because text, unlike oral instruction, has the advantage of being available for repeated rereading and review.

Teachers and administrators can work together to change departmental and classroom schedules and structures to ensure that every ELL is known well by a teacher/advocate who sees that the student's academic interests are responded to throughout the student's academic program (Adger & Peyton, 1999). Teachers can support productive use of native language while assisting students in developing academic language proficiency in English (for preliminary review of new content area, for example, or for developing an outline prior to writing an essay in English). Teachers can facilitate the development of classroom cultures that are safe and responsive and that help all students meet high expectations.

Within content-area classrooms, teachers can show how something unfamiliar relates to a student's interest, aspiration, or experience. They can support discussion, high levels of interaction with text, and collaboration as vehicles for learning. They can teach using multiple strategies and can model a variety of ways that students can use text to enhance learning. They can help students make personal connections to any given

unit of study and engage them in finding authentic reasons to read and write as part of their academic pursuits. These are strategies that vary in detail but that together form a blueprint for research-grounded instructional practices that support academic success.

Educators in the classroom have the power to increase or lessen the likelihood of students' engagement with learning and their motivation to read, write, and learn (whether students are ELLs or not). Thus, research-based professional development needs to train content-area teachers to make connections to their ELL students' lives, to create classrooms that feel responsive and safe to ELLs, and to ensure that ELLs and other students interact with each other and with text. Neglecting such training means not interrupting the trajectory that leaves too many ELLs inadequately prepared when they finish or leave secondary school. When interviewed, ELL high school students themselves make the point that they want to connect their lives and previous school experience to their current classroom efforts; that they want to feel safe, respected, and included (and often do not); and that they wish teachers would interact with them more (see, for example, Cushman, 2003; Zanger, 1994).

It is important to dramatically improve how ELLs fare in U.S. secondary schools. But it is equally important to improve the school experience and school outcomes for other adolescents who are left behind. Although there is much that is still not known about best practices for adolescent literacy and effective instruction for secondary-level ELLs, the literatures reviewed on literacy motivation and engagement point to specific instructional principles that content area teachers can use in the classroom to support all of their students' academic literacy development. We recommend that those designing teacher professional development, those looking for specificity about teaching practices that make a difference for diverse learners, and those seeking to fulfill the promise of secondary school reform take heed.

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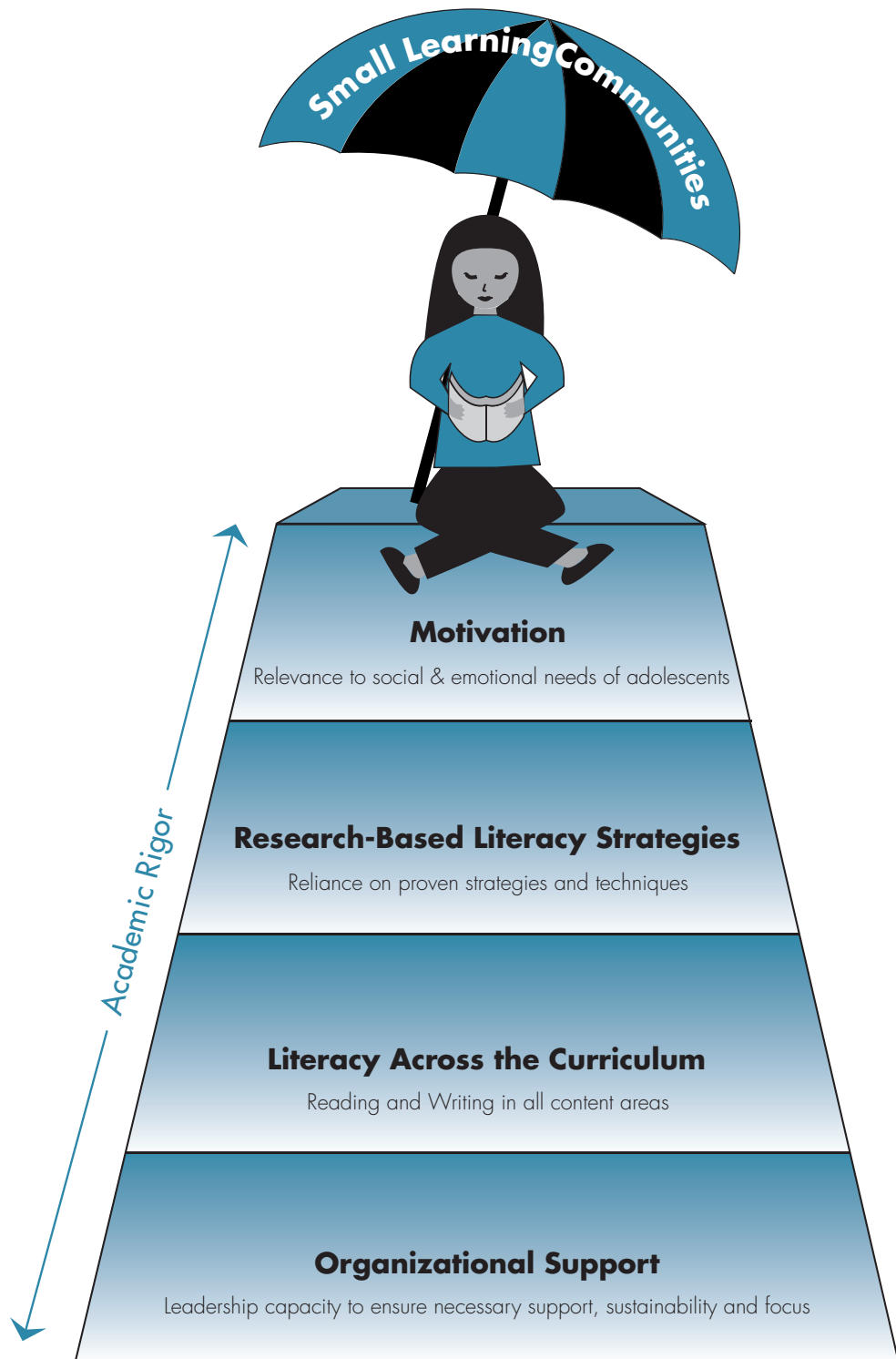
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Small Learning Communities

Academic Rigor

Motivation
Relevance to social & emotional needs of adolescents

Research-Based Literacy Strategies
Reliance on proven strategies and techniques

Literacy Across the Curriculum
Reading and Writing in all content areas

Organizational Support
Leadership capacity to ensure necessary support, sustainability and focus

Four Key Components of the Adolescent Literacy Support Framework

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EQUITY AND EXCELLENCE FOR ALL SCHOOLS