

Translingual Disciplinary Literacies: Equitable Language Environments to Support Literacy Engagement

**Mary Amanda
(Mandy) Stewart**

Holly Hansen-Thomas

Patricia Flint

Texas Woman's University, Denton, USA

Mariannella Núñez

*University of the Incarnate Word,
San Antonio, Texas, USA*

ABSTRACT

The burgeoning work of translinguaging and bilingualism has much to offer adolescent learning spaces in order to provide bi/multilingual students more equitable opportunities to engage in disciplinary literacy at the high school level, particularly where there are many low-incidence languages. Drawing from critical theories in both literacy and language research, we conducted this three-year study in two U.S. high schools (grades 9-12) in order to promote language equity and literacy engagement for emergent bilinguals and heritage speakers. We provided an intensive year of graduate courses on language, literacy, and equity for 27 teachers from various disciplines and school roles. Through analyzing their coursework, observations of their classes, and follow-up surveys, we documented how their heteroglossic language ideologies were nurtured, how they enacted translingual disciplinary literacies, and what benefits they perceived from this instructional approach. The findings illustrate how schools might overcome previously unquestioned monoglossic standards and linguistically oppressive systems through a whole-school translingual disciplinary literacies approach. Providing nuanced descriptions of how teachers engaged in translingual disciplinary literacy in various disciplines, we make a case for constructivist disciplinary literacy teacher education grounded in heteroglossic ideologies. We also draw connections from language equity to literacy engagement, suggesting that a translingual disciplinary literacies approach is a necessary instructional innovation to effect change in high school learning spaces for bi/multilingual learners. Finally, as our field pursues language equity and literacy engagement, like the teachers in this study, we must also critically evaluate our own ideologies toward literacy and language.

Even in the midst of oppressive forces in the United States that vilify or ignore languages other than English (López & Pérez, 2018), resistance exists as individuals reclaim their translingual practices (Babino & Stewart, 2020) and society adopts a renewed focus on bilingual education programs (Jaumont, 2017). However, the majority of these programs exist at the elementary level (National Center for Education Statistics, 2020), and even those that exist at few bilingual high schools (e.g., Espinet, Collins, & Ebe, 2018) do not address low-incidence languages. Consequently, there is a pressing need to develop creative problem-solving opportunities for bilingual education at the secondary level (Menken, 2013) where instruction is divided into various disciplines (e.g., math, science, history). In many schools, bilingual students represent a wealth of home languages and languaging practices (Menken & Sánchez, 2019). Yet, the unquestioned hegemony of the English language in secondary schools functions surreptitiously as a means to

conserve status quo literacy (dis)engagement. Thus, creating spaces for language equity across disciplines aligns seamlessly with goals of adolescents' literacy engagement.

Innovative adolescent literacy research has illustrated the promise of translanguing pedagogies (e.g., García & Kleyn, 2016; Smith, Pacheco, & Khorosheva, 2020), which are increasingly relevant as schools consider administering the Seal of Biliteracy on diplomas (Davin, Heineke, & Egnatz, 2018)—a recognition of proficiency in two or more languages—and assure its equitable implementation (Subtirelu, Borowczyk, Thorson Hernández, & Venezia, 2019). In this way, schools acknowledge youth from immigrant families who possess various language skills that are often unrecognized (Colomer & Chang-Bacon, 2020). Thus, it is imperative that all high school educators are aware of their students' language abilities and understand how bi/multilingual students can effectively learn and express meaning.

Yet, we must consider previously unimagined possibilities in order for this to regularly occur at the secondary level. Because high schools have different needs and structures than primary, elementary, and even some middle schools have, we drew on the unique aspects of high school learning ecologies with a focus on disciplinary literacy to target and promote more equitable learning spaces for (emergent) bi/multilingual students. Thus, in place of official bilingual education programs that cannot account for all languages in a diverse environment, a more practical approach might be to apply a translanguing

literacy lens (García & Kleifgen, 2020) to disciplinary literacies due to high school instruction occurring in diverse and often siloed fields. That is, in high schools, teachers are highly, yet possibly, narrowly trained in their specific disciplines (e.g., chemistry, U.S. literature, algebra, French language/culture) and might not have much preparation in literacy and language instruction. Thus, our purpose in this study was to understand how to transfer successful translanguing pedagogies in earlier grades (Pacheco, Daniel, Pray, & Jiménez, 2019) to disciplinary literacies at the secondary level. It is our hope that a focus on translanguing disciplinary literacies can be a catalyst for greater language equity and literacy engagement in high schools.

This three-year study occurred as part of a federally funded project in two officially monolingual high schools (grades 9–12) with emergent bilingual students (EBs) and heritage-language speakers (HSs) primarily from Spanish-speaking backgrounds but also from many other low-incidence languages (see Table 1). In the project, we focused on teacher professional development about supporting bi/multilingual students' academic success through a translanguing view of disciplinary literacy, to answer three research questions:

1. How are teachers' heteroglossic language ideologies nurtured?
2. How do teachers implement translanguing pedagogies through disciplinary literacy?

TABLE 1
Population of Emergent Bilingual Students (EBs) at the Two High Schools

Average from three academic years (2017–2020)	High school 1	High school 2
Number of home languages in addition to English, as represented by EBs	24	8
EBs' percentage of the school population	10%	2.5%
Total EBs in the school	215	55
Beginner EBs	9	0.6
Intermediate EBs	78	18
Advanced EBs	95	25
Advanced high EBs	33	11.6
Estimated number of heritage-language speakers in the school who are not EBs ^a	250	200
Languages spoken at the school	Arabic, Bengali, Chinese, Farsi, Filipino, French, Greek, Gujarati, Hindi, Japanese, Kaqchikel, Korean, Lingala, Luba, Mam, Nepali, Pech, Portuguese, Romanian, Russian, Spanish, Tagalog, Vietnamese, and Wolof	Arabic, Chinese, Farsi, French, Mandinka, Portuguese, Spanish, and Swahili

Note. The table represents the average number of EBs at each school, in each English-language proficiency level as determined by a state assessment of students' reading, writing, listening, and speaking in English, over the course of three academic years.

^aEstimates are from school leaders because these data are not officially collected by the schools or the state.

3. From the teachers' perspectives, what are the benefits of translingual disciplinary literacies in their schools?

Theoretical Framework

In this article, we draw from theory in areas of language and literacy to frame our data collection and analysis from a critical perspective. This critical approach beckoned us to interrogate underlying assumptions of language and literacy that might covertly perpetuate status quo inequalities by marginalizing racialized people and privileging those with political power (Baker-Bell, 2020; Inoue, 2019). Within the field of language, we focus on language ideologies (McKinney, 2017), heteroglossia (Bakhtin, 1981), and translanguaging (García & Kleifgen, 2020) as we illustrate the importance of the multilingual turn (May, 2014b) in language instruction. We combine this with relevant constructs from the field of literacy as we adopt a hybrid disciplinary perspective (Hinchman & O'Brien, 2019). Then, we turn our attention to teaching disciplinary literacies with the simultaneous goal of second-language (L2) acquisition (Stewart & Hansen-Thomas, 2019). We end with a discussion of literacy engagement (Guthrie, 2004) to consider how language equity, or giving credence and value to all languages used and taught (Howard et al., 2018), might work as a multiplying factor for adolescents' literacy engagement. Figure 1 illustrates how we draw from these various theories to ground our understanding of translingual disciplinary literacies.

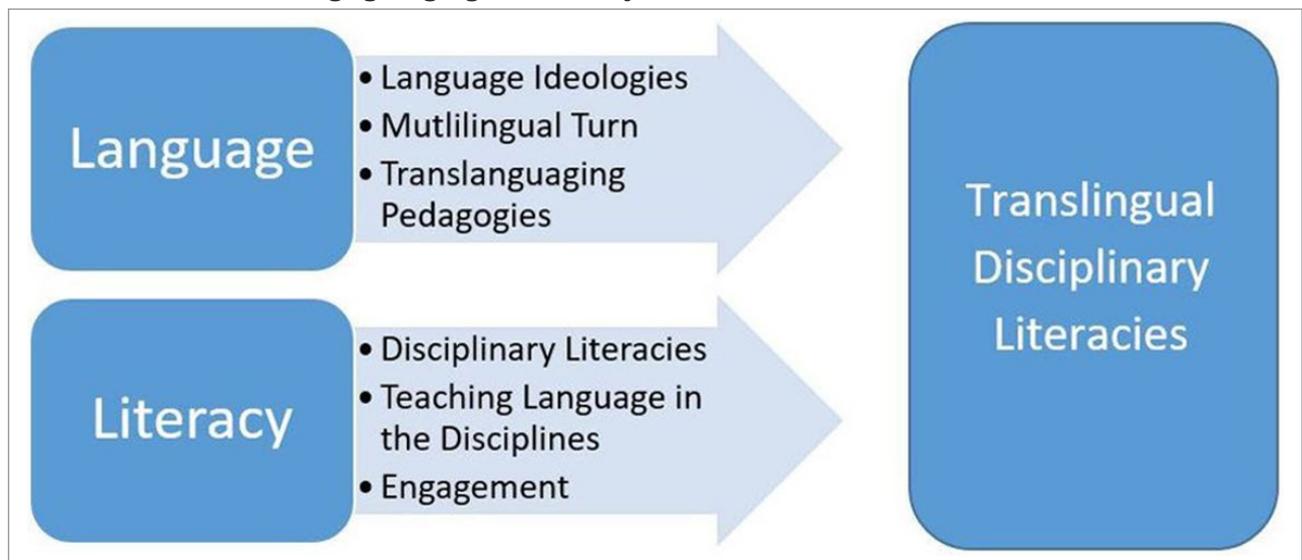
Language

As a powerful construct, language can be manipulated by those with the most political power to police and form

societal structures (Mignolo, 2011). All languages and language varieties are forms of symbolic capital (Bourdieu, 1986) that create and sustain social hierarchies (Tollefson, 1991). That is, languages are not equally sanctioned by the society in which teachers reside or the schools which marginalized EBs and HSs, among other students, attend (García & Alonso, 2019). Flores and Rosa (2015) called for an understanding and legitimizing of the dynamic and flexible language practices of minoritized people, while simultaneously developing awareness of the nexus of language, race, and power. The concept of raciolinguistics, which describes how language influences and forms our ideas of race (Alim, Rickford, & Ball, 2016), is particularly relevant in the school setting. An adoption of a raciolinguistic perspective on teaching involves an understanding of how students' perceived race affects the way their languages and languaging practices are viewed in society and schools, as well as how teachers might unknowingly use language to further racialize these students (Rosa & Flores, 2017). Racism, in the form of what Inoue (2019) referred to as "white language supremacy" (p. 357), affects how language is judged as standard or deviates from arbitrary criteria.

This has led critical scholars (e.g., Baker-Bell, 2020; Flores, 2020) to interrogate our unexamined use of the common terminology in secondary settings, *academic language*, suggesting that this construct may reify racialized hierarchies based on who is privileged and who is marginalized with subjective values of languages and language varieties. Although we acknowledge the purposeful role of naming language patterns (in English) to support all learners to be successful in school-related reading tasks (Phillips Galloway & Uccelli, 2019), we also recognize that

FIGURE 1
Theoretical Framework: Merging Language and Literacy



Note. The color figure can be viewed in the online version of this article at <http://ila.onlinelibrary.wiley.com>.

naming a particular variety of language as academic, with an unquestioned assumption that this academic language is in English, might work to maintain our academic blinders. Indeed, Ucelli and Phillips Galloway (2017) found that when students discussed academic language, they had internalized the hierarchical values to different language registers. These researchers urged nuanced instruction regarding different forms of language in the classroom, but this also serves as a subtle warning to both adolescent literacy and language researchers who often emphasize the construct of academic language without a due consideration of the consequences.

Thus, to not further deepen assumptions of a hierarchy of registers (academic and colloquial) or a privileged named language (English), our critical perspective undergirds our purposeful use of the construct disciplinary literacies, which does not imply a specific language, such as English, or a hierarchical classification of languages or dialects. Nevertheless, we recognize that both literacy teachers and researchers, ourselves included, are socialized to discuss school-related language without questioning its invisible reference to English, and often a register of English attributed to middle-class white people (Caldera & Babino, 2020). Thus, due to common socialization, teachers (and researchers) and their actions are susceptible to the same invisible racism that is integrated into our society and, consequently, are as likely as anyone else to adopt seemingly innocent racist views of languages and speakers of those languages (Starck, Riddle, Sinclair, & Warikoo, 2020). Thus, language ideologies foundational to this research address issues of equity and engagement in the classroom.

Language Ideologies

Schools often preserve the language ideologies of the dominant class because they inconspicuously serve as actors of the state to institutionalize, homogenize, and regulate language practices (García & Alonso, 2019) by determining what is considered a standardized, academic, world, or foreign language. For example, McKinney (2017) illustrated how analyzing underlying language ideologies makes visible how linguistic inequality is reproduced in South Africa. She claimed that the “lack of recognition of (mostly Black) children’s linguistic resources due to the dominance of English in South African schools and in other post-colonial contexts is a form of racism” (p. 11). Anglonormativity, the idea that people should be proficient in a standardized form of English, represents the global dominance of English that manifests in local settings, such as a school, and essentially devalues other languages and language varieties, particularly those of people of Color (McKinney, 2017). As such, language ideologies are closely linked to the social reproduction of racial inequality, or systemic racism (Inoue, 2019).

Language ideologies can fall on a continuum from monoglossic to heteroglossic. *Heteroglossia* refers to the multiple language variations within one space, as well as the various perspectives within each language (Bakhtin, 1981), and can be applied to classroom spaces (Blackledge & Creese, 2014). Expanding on this notion, Flores and Schissel (2014) explained that a monoglossic language ideology treats monolingualism as the norm and leads to (unquestioned) curriculum and instructional practices in the classroom from a monolingual (English-only) perspective. Monoglossic ideologies are also present in educational policies, some of which even aim to improve education for linguistically diverse learners (Chang-Bacon, 2020). Alternatively, a heteroglossic language ideology considers multilingualism a normative practice in and outside of the classroom, where educators can implement classroom practices that promote multilingualism and student learning (Blackledge & Creese, 2014).

The Multilingual Turn

Applying heteroglossic language ideologies in traditionally monolingual learning spaces involves a paradigm shift embodied by the multilingual turn. Acknowledging the hegemony of the English language in the field of TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages), May (2014a) explained that a simple additive view of language learning, or adding one language to another to increase one’s repertoire, negates the complex language practices of people across contexts. He called for L2 acquisition research to embrace bilingualism, as well as critical sociocultural perspectives, to be more effective. Citing a pervasive monolingual bias in L2 acquisition research, Ortega (2014) explained that the monolingual bias acts as a straitjacket that learner, teacher, and researcher are subject to, while subordinating multilingualism as less natural, which is not only harmful but also unrepresentative of most people’s languaging practices. She urged researchers to break “the ideological siege of the monolingual bias” (p. 38) in not only the L2 acquisition field but also any research that includes bi/multilingual people. Connecting this notion to multimodality, Block (2014) framed language learners as not only multilinguals but also multimodal learners, because they have two or more languages and all the semiotic resources that accompany each language, suggesting promising innovations for disciplinary literacies.

Translanguaging Pedagogies

Greatly propelling the multilingual turn are translanguaging pedagogies (García & Kleyn, 2016), which are evident in literature on teaching high school students in officially English-medium settings (e.g., Seltzer, 2019). The original focus of translanguaging highlights the pedagogical possibilities

and innovative spaces it creates for teachers and students to leverage all of their linguistic resources to engage in complex learning (Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012). Yet, even more than effective pedagogy, translanguaging is a political project focused on people over languages, while acknowledging the teacher's influential role to sanction language policies in the classroom (García & Otheguy, 2020).

Embracing these powerful tenets of translanguaging pedagogies, research in secondary English-medium settings has indicated the potential of this practice to improve learning for multilingual students who have more than one language available to them (Flint, Dollar, & Stewart, 2019; García & Kleyn, 2016; Linares, 2020). García, Flores, and Chu (2011) illustrated the possibilities of translanguaging in linguistically diverse high school classrooms. These researchers described the way in which the teachers incorporated bilingual students' hybrid language practices into daily instruction, providing a window into new and innovative ways of approaching bilingual education at the secondary level. Through case studies of these schools, García et al. argued that traditional 20th-century notions of bilingualism are no longer applicable to the linguistic heterogeneity of our current times. Thus, the political project of translanguaging creates more language equity, which may be an essential mediating factor of literacy engagement.

Literacy

We merge these critical tenets of language with an ideological view of literacy (Street, 1995), encompassing any way one sends or receives meaning, cognizant that such meaning is always embedded in cultural practices and power dynamics. In this study, we adopted this view of literacy with a keen understanding that bi/multilingual students and their teachers are making meaning across languages, cultures, modes of communication, and hierarchical positions in the classroom, all influenced by society's value or marginalization of those ways of making meaning. Yet, to clearly investigate classroom practices, we honed our focus of literacy in classrooms as instances of reading, writing, listening, speaking, viewing, composing, and critical thinking. We highlight how one uses those modes of language to successfully engage in specific disciplines.

Disciplinary Literacies

Through a wide lens of literacies, as defined by the New Literacy Studies (Street, 1995), disciplinary literacies include any practice in which one engages to make meaning in particular fields (Moje, 2008; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008). There are different approaches to disciplinary literacy that range from infusion to hybridity, with the former considered less effective because it merely asks teachers to infuse

strategies into their instruction (Hinchman & O'Brien, 2019). Hybridity, however, focuses on the ways of knowing and making meaning within the various disciplines, while considering the specific environment of the classroom, school, and community. As such, a hybridity approach recognizes the importance of researchers immersing themselves in the local context to determine what disciplinary literacy might look like in a specific classroom space with particular learners, such as EBs and HSs in their classrooms, as in the case of our study. Moje (2008) extended the term *disciplinary literacies* to consider "the discourses and practices, identities and identifications, and knowledge" (p. 100) within various disciplines to prepare secondary students to be able to use a range of literate practices at any given moment in time.

For example, Terry (2010) documented students engaging in disciplinary literacies in mathematics by taking a critical stance on relevant issues in their lives. He argued for critical math literacies, creating counterstories to engage Black males in mathematics and relevant discussions of incarceration and university enrollment in their communities. Specifically, the students study and employ statistics to investigate probabilities of going to prison versus college based on demographic factors. This context- and discipline-specific inquiry illustrates the role of hybridity and local context in disciplinary literacies (Hinchman & O'Brien, 2019), while also highlighting how students need to adopt the identities associated with a discipline as they engage in disciplinary practices (Moje, 2008). Thus, we focus our understanding of disciplinary literacies in this vein—the identities, practices, and information needed to agentively participate in a discipline—rather than focusing on a specific language or register, although we understand that meaning making in many U.S. high schools will eventually require standardized academic English to perform successfully on standardized assessments. Nevertheless, we make a distinction between a specific language register and disciplinary literacies in our work.

Teaching Language in the Disciplines

Particular research on disciplinary literacy has focused on multilingual populations, centering on simultaneous acquisition of language and content. Langman and Hansen-Thomas's (2017) edited volume explores how teaching EBs both disciplinary literacies and the language of the subject matter develops science or math language in English and content knowledge at once. The chapter authors explore how oral and written language in the L2 is effectively used to acquire disciplinary literacies, asserting that a discourse approach to teaching language and content is effective for students acquiring English.

We can also view disciplinary literacies through a heteroglossic, translanguaging lens. Kiramba's (2019) research in

a fourth-grade science classroom in Kenya drew on heteroglossic practices that allow multilingual learners flexibility to use all of their languages to engage in scientific learning. Other research has illustrated how teachers in officially nonbilingual settings can implement heteroglossic instruction through translanguaging practices in their disciplines through collaborative translation (Puzio, Keys, & Jiménez, 2017), literary analysis (Ebe & Chapman-Santiago, 2016), poetry composition (Stewart & Hansen-Thomas, 2016), biomes research (Seilstad, Braun, Kim, & Choi, 2019), and historical event analysis (Woodley & Brown, 2016). These accounts suggest the promise of providing equitable opportunities for disciplinary literacy engagement in individual classrooms through translanguaging pedagogies.

Engagement

With an understanding of engagement as a combination of factors, including comprehension, metacognitive awareness, motivation, and affect (Guthrie, 2004), research has implied that adolescents' literacy engagement is key to their academic success. In fact, an expert research panel (Kamil et al., 2008) included literacy engagement as one of the five explicit recommendations to improve adolescent literacy. Through their review of empirical studies, the panel recommended that teachers should employ various strategies to enhance engagement while helping students develop more confidence in their ability to make meaning from disciplinary texts. Guthrie and Klauda (2014) explained that adolescent educators can implement key instructional practices to increase student engagement in the literacy of their discipline, specifically, comprehension support, choice, rationales for reading, and opportunities to collaborate with others. This research with middle school students learning both literacy and history suggested that these curricular and instructional foci can lead to greater student dedication to engaged reading, which involves time, effort, and perseverance, in a reading activity.

Ivey and Johnston (2015) explained that engagement is a transformative and collaborative practice, encompassing one's interest in learning (through choice, relevance, and enjoyment), as well as one's engagement in the classroom learning community through discussing the text or content. Thus, engagement exists and is reinforced at both the individual student level and the classroom level. This is also true for adolescents acquiring English who show greater engagement in reading and writing activities when provided choice, culturally relevant materials, and comprehension supports (Ivey & Broaddus, 2007). Consequently, through our understanding of language equity (use of heteroglossic ideologies and translanguaging pedagogies), we see promises of improving literacy engagement for all bi/multilingual students, EBs and HSs, through innovative instructional practices across disciplines.

Method

With the goal of developing a better understanding of translanguaging approaches to disciplinary literacies, in this study, we focused on the teachers' language ideologies, implementation of translanguaging disciplinary literacies, and perceptions of the benefits of this instruction. Through a federal grant, we formed a partnership with two high schools in the same school district in North Texas to support classroom instruction for students acquiring English (EBs), as well as those who were former EBs or considered HSs. We consider EBs (labeled by the State of Texas as English learners) as students receiving language support services, and HSs as students who speak a home language other than English who may or may not be former EBs. Collectively, we refer to EBs and HSs as (emergent) bi/multilinguals. Thus, we focused this study on teaching students who, in addition to English, are exposed to one more other language in the home, regardless of their proficiency in the home language(s) and/or English. Consequently, the findings primarily pertain to the larger population of bi/multilingual students as they learn in the disciplines. The study only slightly addressed students considered monolingual or bidialectal, rather than bilingual, when they are learning in a world-language classroom and then might share marginal language-learning characteristics of EBs.

Within those boundaries, we framed this three-year work as a qualitative case study (Yin, 2018), the case under investigation consisting of 27 high school teachers' heteroglossic language ideologies, translanguaging pedagogies, and perception of the benefits of this instructional approach. These teachers served as leaders in our larger initiative in their two schools, selected for specific reasons explained in this section.

Context

Because the teachers in this study were from the same school district, they received similar support for teaching EBs and generally followed a similar curriculum with similar programming, with limited attention to HSs who were not (ever or no longer) classified as EBs. In this district, the programs that serve EBs are English as a Second Language (ESL) and dual-language bilingual education programs. Although there are many elementary schools (grades pre-K–5) with a dual-language program serving Spanish-speaking EBs or HSs in this district, the program only continues to one middle school (grades 6–8), which does not feed into either of these two high schools. Therefore, although some of the (emergent) bi/multilingual students at these high schools might have had access to dual-language bilingual education at the elementary level, it likely ended after the fifth grade. Language support services for students in grades 9–12 only exist through specialized ESL and

sheltered instruction classes. The ESL classes are for students who are at the beginning stages of English acquisition, often newcomers, to provide intensive language acquisition. The sheltered instruction classes occur in the high-stakes state-tested disciplines (English language arts [ELA], history, science, and math) and are specially designed courses that teach students content knowledge with language support. Teachers in both schools receive professional development on linguistic accommodations from the state, a regional service center, and their school district, with this training primarily adopting a monolingual stance.

In addition to these similarities, we selected the two schools because of their different numbers of EBs and HSs. Table 1 illustrates the greater number of EBs, particularly students beginning to acquire English, and HSs at school 1, in addition to each school’s linguistic diversity. We selected these two schools because of this primary difference in number of bi/multilingual students because we concur with García’s (2017) claim that even a school with one bilingual student should be considered a bilingual school. That is, as long as there is at least one EB or HS in a school, all teachers should possess an understanding of language (e.g., L2 acquisition, bilingualism, translanguaging) in addition to literacy and disciplinary knowledge. In our study, we sought to understand how to accomplish

this feat in high schools with both high and low numbers of (emergent) bi/multilingual students.

The 27 teachers (see Table 2) in this study elected to take three graduate-level university courses (see Table 3) that promoted heteroglossic language ideologies, translanguaging practices, and teaching for language equity, over the course of one school year. The courses were taught in what was at times named the Reading Department of the university, so all were grounded in principles of literacy instruction and engagement. The teachers received university tuition and a stipend for resources to support their learning. The goal was for them to become leaders in their schools to support heteroglossic ideologies and translanguaging pedagogies within their disciplines.

Researchers

Mandy and Holly (authors 1 and 2) are the coprincipal investigators of this project who collectively wrote the grant, developed the coursework, and taught two of the courses. They are both sequential bilinguals who acquired Spanish as a L2 as young adults and focus their research on high school EBs, Mandy in ELA and Holly in math and science. Patricia and Mariannella (authors 3 and 4) were graduate research associates with this grant. Patricia has

TABLE 2
Teachers’ Disciplines, Language Status, and Emergent Bilingual Students (EBs)

Discipline or language status	Teachers in high school 1 (cohort 1): August 2017–July 2018 (n = 16)	Teachers in high school 2 (cohort 2): August 2018–July 2019 ^a (n = 11)
<i>Teaching discipline</i>		
English language arts/reading	3	3
Social studies (U.S. and world history)	1 ^b	0
Science (biology, chemistry)	2	3
Math (algebra, geometry)	2	1
Technology	0	1
World languages (Spanish, French, Latin)	3	2
Special education	1	0
Leadership/support Staff (principal, program coordinator, library media specialist)	4 ^c	1
<i>Language status</i>		
Self-identified monolingual	9	9
Self-identified multilingual	7	2
<i>EBs in the classroom</i>		
Teachers with 20+ EBs	15	0
Teachers with <20 EBs	1	11

^aTwo educators from school 1 attended courses in cohort 2. ^bThis educator was also a teacher of English as a second language and English language arts. ^cThree of the four leadership/support staff from school 1 were former social studies teachers and focused their classroom projects in this discipline.

TABLE 3
Graduate Courses

Course	Focus	Key assignments
1 (fall: August–December)	Second-language acquisition and bilingual theories	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Engaged in personal second-language acquisition (any language) by using different forms of language (reading, writing, listening, and speaking) and modes (visuals, images, sound, and print) Conducted a case study of a multilingual student Developed, taught, and reflected on a translanguageing lesson
2 (spring: January–May)	Biliteracy development in the content area	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Participated in disciplinary literacy book clubs Created a multilingual/multimodal text set for a specific discipline Reviewed a multicultural or multilingual children’s or young adult book Participated in reader response activities For their classroom, designed reader response activities focused on multilingual and multimodal ways of responding
3 (summer: June–July)	Cultural and linguistic equity and engagement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Created a podcast on language ideology Wrote their own cultural/linguistic autobiographies For their classroom, created a project focused on using multiliteracies to provide more equitable disciplinary engagement

experience in special education and administration and identifies as a monolingual English speaker. Mariannella, a former bilingual and ESL teacher, grew up as a simultaneous bilingual of English and Spanish and acquired French as a young adult.

Data Collection and Analysis

In this case study, we collected three forms of data: the 27 teachers’ coursework, our observations of four teachers in their classrooms, and a survey given to the teachers in 2020, one to two years after they completed the year of coursework. The primary source of data was the coursework, and the observations and surveys are supplemental to confirm analysis of the primary data for triangulation purposes and provide additional nuance and description to more fully answer the research questions.

Teachers’ coursework consisted of weekly online responses/discussions to reading (e.g., textbooks, articles, children’s literature), viewing (e.g., webinars, examples of

student work), and purposeful experiences (e.g., interview of an EB student), as well as projects in each course (see Table 3). The teachers received grades for these graduate courses, yet the instructors were purposeful to grade on the teachers’ expression of the content (e.g., translanguageing) rather than solely their innovative application of it in the classroom. For example, teachers could perform well in the course (e.g., receive an A) and still not display pedagogies that we consider as constituting exemplars of translanguing disciplinary literacies. Nevertheless, we acknowledge the tensions of this large piece of our data set and use multiple sources to substantiate our claims.

To understand how both mono- and multilingual teachers enacted translanguing disciplinary literacies across the disciplines, we visited four teachers’ classrooms by their invitation to work with small groups of students, teach a lesson in the classroom, or assist with the teaching (see Table 4). Collectively, we served as participant observers in four teachers’ classrooms (math, ELA, Spanish, and history) 26 times for full class periods over the course of

TABLE 4
Teachers Observed by the Researchers (Participant Observers)

Teacher	Content area observed and school	Class	Number of times observed for a full class period ^a
Ms. Feria	Spanish, school 2	Spanish for heritage-language speakers for former EBs and other bilingual students	2
Ms. Gentry	English language arts, school 1	Reading improvement for EBs and other students	5
Ms. Hope	Math, school 1	Sheltered algebra 1 for EBs only	11
Mr. Reynolds	History, school 1	Sheltered U.S. and world history for EBs only	8

Note. EBs = emergent bilingual students.

^aSome classes were 90 minutes every other day, and others were 45 minutes each day.

the study. We were highly involved during these visits, so we recorded observational notes after we left the classroom, and then discussed them in our weekly team meetings. We did not audio or video record in the classes per the schools' guidelines; however, the observations serve to add nuance to our understanding of the translingual disciplinary literacies the teachers reported in their coursework, and confirm some of the reported practices. In addition to these full class periods of serving as participant observers, we visited these campuses approximately 200 times over the three years for various reasons related to the grant when we would briefly enter the teachers' classes. During these short classroom visits, the teachers showed us their word walls, student work on display, their growing multilingual classroom libraries, or the way they were trying to group student desks for particular purposes. We used our observations from these informal meetings to further support our claims that primarily draw from the teachers' coursework.

Finally, two and a half years after the first cohort began their graduate courses, we sent the participating teachers a survey (see the Appendix) to understand how they were engaging in translingual practices, and we received 21 responses (78% of the 27 teachers). This final piece of data provides a deeper lens about how teachers are adopting a translingual lens to literacy instruction in various disciplines and their perception of its benefits in their classroom and in the entire school.

Because we wanted to understand how teachers in different disciplines developed language ideologies and enacted translingual pedagogies, we uploaded each teacher's coursework into NVivo 12, the qualitative data analysis software. This allowed us to analyze the data to identify any disciplinary or demographic differences in the findings (i.e., discipline, school, race, language identification, experiences with EBs). We coded these data to align with our research questions. Then, we coded our observational notes and the surveys using the same coding scheme illustrated in Table 5.

We engaged in first- and second-cycle coding throughout the data collection process (Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2014). First, we applied open codes to the data using descriptive codes to understand the development of teachers' language ideologies, their practices of implementing translingual pedagogies, and their perceived benefits of these practices. In open coding, we also used process coding to note the translingual disciplinary literacies occurring in the classrooms through reading/viewing, writing/composing, oral language, and critical thinking. Examples of our most saturated codes from this initial stage of coding are in the middle column of Table 5. Then, in the second cycle of coding the data, we organized the codes into broader themes to illustrate patterns that relate to each of our three research questions.

Results

Although we share the results in a distinct order related to our research questions (ideologies, implementation, and perceived benefits), ideology and implementation affected each other and progressed simultaneously, working in tandem to contribute to the teachers' perceived benefits of translingual disciplinary literacies at the school level. Consequently, as teachers perceived benefits to translingual instruction, this positively influenced their heteroglossic ideologies and translingual practices. Figure 2 illustrates our findings in the form of a qualitative logic model (Yin, 2018), demonstrating how themes relate to one another, with growth in one area (e.g., heteroglossic ideology) affecting another area (e.g., translingual disciplinary literacies), leading to the perceived benefit at the school level: greater language equity and literacy engagement.

Nurturing Heteroglossic Language Ideologies

Thinking of language ideologies as a continuum from monoglossic to heteroglossic, we acknowledge that these are not binary terms. Further, as an actor in a complex social world, one person can express different ideologies, even seemingly conflicting, in one moment in time. Thus, our focus is to understand what elements nurtured teachers' expression of heteroglossic language ideologies (strong or weak, or more specifically, stronger or weaker), and we begin with a snapshot of teachers whose language ideologies fall along the heteroglossic side of the continuum, albeit to varying degrees. Two of the factors that made a difference in nurturing stronger heteroglossic ideologies were identification as a multilingual (speaking two or more languages) and experience in working with EBs (teaching 20 or more EBs in a school year). By the end of the first course, and increasingly more so through the year of coursework, all educators expressed heteroglossic ideologies to some degree; however, those who were multilingual ($n = 8$) and/or had significant experience in working with EBs ($n = 15$) expressed stronger heteroglossic ideologies.

Stronger Heteroglossic Language Ideologies

For example, Ms. Hope is a monolingual algebra teacher who displayed some of the strongest heteroglossic language ideologies in her instructional practices and advocacy of her students within school 1. She had many years of experience in working closely with students who are new to the country, and she exclusively taught EBs in her classes. We spent the most time in her class and can affirm that it was a multilingual environment where students

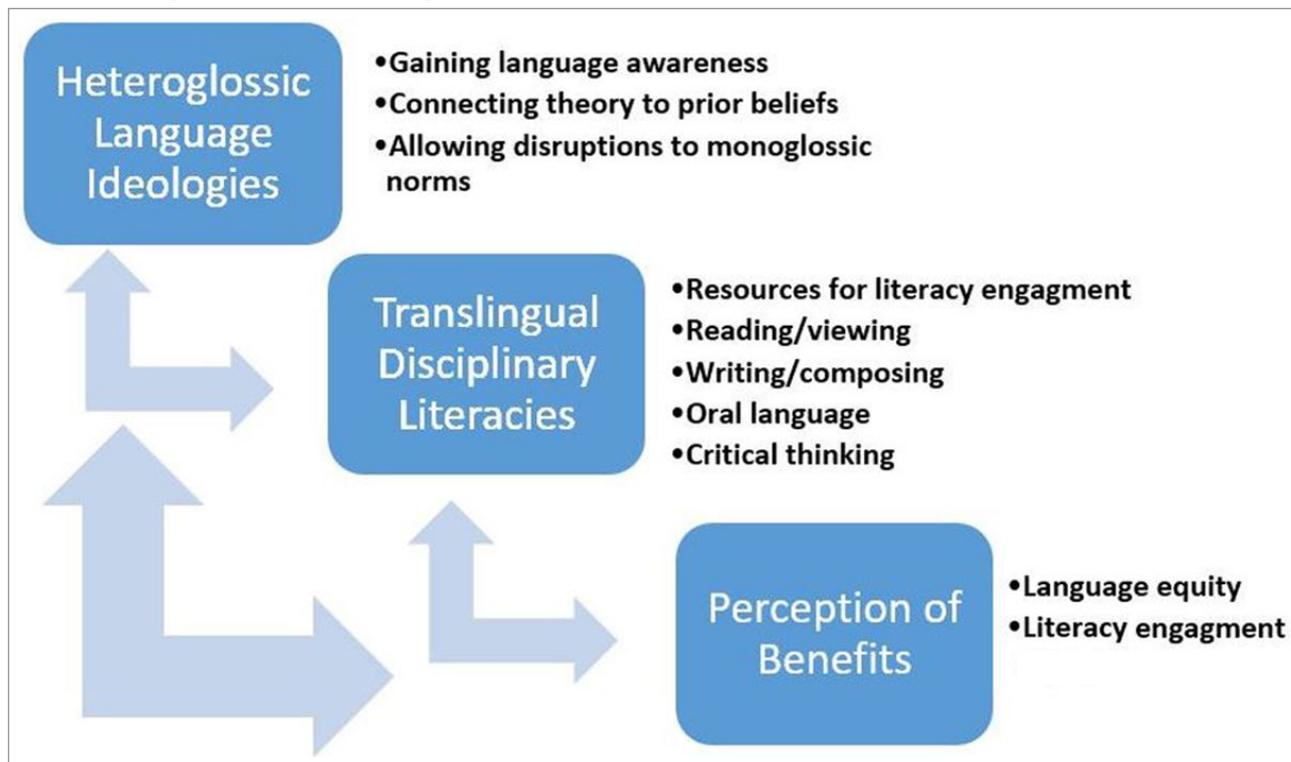
TABLE 5
Examples of Coding

Research theme and related research question	Examples of open coding: Descriptive and process codes	Axial codes/themes shared in findings
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Research theme:</i> Heteroglossic language ideologies • <i>Research question:</i> How are teachers' heteroglossic language ideologies nurtured? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learn about students' language use/competencies • Ask students about their prior education • Ask students about how their languages function • View multilingualism as an asset after learning about its benefits • Name a past practice and connect it to a theory that supports it • Name a past practice and connect it to a theory that disrupts it • Encourage students to express learning in multiple languages • View the student before the need to learn English • Separate learning content from the language(s) in which it is learned 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gaining language awareness • Connecting theory to prior beliefs • Allowing disruptions to monoglossic norms
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Research theme:</i> Implementation of translangual pedagogies in disciplines • <i>Research question:</i> How do teachers implement translangual pedagogies through disciplinary literacy? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Include books in the classroom and library in students' languages • Provide bilingual dictionaries • Encourage translation devices • Use websites for content knowledge in multiple languages • Show videos in languages other than English • Bring in translators (people) or ask students to translate for other students • Purposefully read the same text in multiple languages • Ask students to talk with a language partner in the first language when they do not understand • Encourage note-taking in any language • Write about cultural and language comparisons in Spanish classes in Korean, Hindi, and other languages • Discuss content knowledge in all languages in the class • Learn academic vocabulary in multiple languages • Create bi/multilingual word walls in the classroom • Encourage online reading of text written in a language other than English to better understand a real-world problem or element of history from a different perspective 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Resources for literacy engagement • Reading/viewing • Writing/composing • Oral language • Critical thinking
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Research theme:</i> Teachers' perceptions of benefits of translangual pedagogies • <i>Research question:</i> From the teachers' perspectives, what are the benefits of translangual disciplinary literacies in their schools? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students have more access to content. • Students can express their learning more effectively. • Students are seen and not invisible in their classrooms and schools. • Students have more voice in the classroom. • Students participate in class more. • Students engage in more robust learning. • Students share their lives with their teachers. • Students have a greater understanding of the content. • Testing policies help students demonstrate their learning. • Students develop their home languages. • Language is viewed as a resource by the teachers. • Students display their bi/multilingual writing. • Students take heritage-language speakers' Spanish classes. • Recruitment of EBs in the International Baccalaureate program • Parent/student materials and information in multiple languages 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language equity • Literacy engagement

engaged in high-level mathematical thinking. Ms. Hope embraced translangual pedagogy in all aspects of her teaching—reading, writing/composing, oral language, and critical thinking—possibly because of her emphasis on newcomers. She explained that “translanguaging is an issue of social justice.” Yet, Ms. Salas, a chemistry teacher who taught a lower number of EBs at school 2 (fewer than

10 per year) but was a multilingual who emigrated from Mexico, expressed strong heteroglossic ideologies, possibly because of her personal language experiences. She brought illustrated books in indigenous languages from her country into her classroom to explain chemistry concepts and encouraged translangual practices through all language domains even though few students could take

FIGURE 2
Qualitative Logic Model of the Findings



Note. The color figure can be viewed in the online version of this article at <http://ila.onlinelibrary.wiley.com>.

advantage of the learning benefits bilingualism provides. Mr. Reynolds, who is multilingual (like Ms. Salas) and teaches EBs exclusively (like Ms. Hope), revealed through his coursework and survey (as supported by our observations of him) that he also adopted strong heteroglossic language ideologies. He explained that a translingual approach to history and ELA allowed his students to “see themselves as scholars, capable of deep discussions and interactions, and [see that] their language is valued in the classroom.”

Weaker Heteroglossic Ideologies

Although data suggest that even the teachers who were both monolingual and taught few EBs displayed heteroglossic ideologies, it was to a lesser degree. Mr. Walker, a monolingual math teacher at school 2, explained that translingual literacy pedagogy in his discipline “has been a challenge for me,” but he also stated that he has “offered [EB students] translated copies of subject area textbooks and test questions.” Although he did not initiate as many translingual practices as similar teachers who were not multilingual nor taught many EBs ($n = 8$), he “allowed” multilingualism in new ways. He explained,

I did have a really nice experience in one of my tutorial sessions. One of our predominantly Spanish-speaking students came to tutorials with a translator—another friend from his ESL program who was more advanced in English. This really

helped the communication between me and the student as he asked questions, and the translator having had some experience in Geometry helped, as well.

We recognize that most teachers in secondary schools have experiences more like Mr. Walker’s than those of teachers with personal multilingual experiences and/or who have taught many EBs. However, we share examples in the second part of the Findings section of teachers across the continuum of heteroglossic ideologies implementing translingual disciplinary literacies to some degree, even if in small ways like Mr. Walker did. We also highlight how certain teachers’ practices serve as exemplars of the possibilities of translingual approaches to disciplinary literacies. Notably, teachers’ ideologies were dynamic and complex, and the most influential ways that nurtured their adoption of heteroglossic ideologies were gaining language awareness, connecting theory to prior beliefs, and allowing disruptions to monoglossic thinking.

Gaining Language Awareness

At the beginning of the first course, the teachers with limited personal experience with multilingualism ($n = 18$) or experiences in teaching EBs ($n = 12$) struggled to adopt a heteroglossic language ideology, similar to Mr. Walker. One English teacher wrote in a weekly discussion, “but I don’t know what languages they speak,” as she expressed her inability to create a translanguageing classroom. Her

comment represented the discussion board posts of many teachers who, for the first time in their careers, were asked to determine the languages of all of their students, even if a student was not labeled an EB, or “on the LEP [limited English proficient] roster” (as commonly still referred to in this state). Yet, teachers shared that they learned much through this assignment: “I did not even realize that some of these kids spoke some other languages fluently.”

Even some of the multilingual teachers and those who had much experience with EBs began to realize that some of their newcomer students from Central America and Africa spoke (and in some cases, read and wrote) in languages in addition to Spanish and French. Mandy went to volunteer/observe in Mr. Reynolds’s history class a year after he completed the graduate courses. When asked what languages were represented in the class so she could prepare to greet them in their language, he told her three indigenous languages—Kaqchikel, Mam, and Pech—in addition to Spanish and French. Incidentally, as a result of ongoing awareness, we realized that we needed to add Luba and Lingala to those indigenous languages spoken in his class of 15 students. (For more on discovering indigenous languages, see Núñez, Duran, Mojica, and Stewart, 2020). Demonstrating a deeper knowledge of students’ home languages is representative of two other teachers as well, Ms. Hope and a Spanish teacher at school 2. Consequently, whether gaining awareness constituted an initial recognition of students’ home languages or a more profound understanding of newer student populations and their often obscured language histories, the acquisition of this basic knowledge nurtured teachers’ adoption of heteroglossic language ideologies.

Connecting Theory to Prior Beliefs

Seven teachers who worked closely with EBs and/or identified as multilingual themselves stated that they had already engaged in translanguaging pedagogies prior to learning about translanguaging in the first course but had often done so covertly, afraid of “getting caught,” as one teacher wrote on the discussion board. A special education teacher explained, “I didn’t know that what I was doing in my classroom had a name, (translanguaging) I just knew it worked.” Similarly, a bilingual librarian wrote, “I think the courses confirmed what I believed as a [former] bilingual teacher. I just didn’t know the word to describe my beliefs—translanguaging. I’m able to reinforce the benefits of code-switching and translanguaging now.”

Allowing Disruptions to Monoglossic Norms

In some cases, monoglossic norms and ideas of linguistic purism (Crystal, 2010) were disrupted as teachers learned about translanguaging. The five world language teachers and four of the ELA teachers explained how they previously thought of

their job as teaching a specific language (English, Spanish, French, or Latin). To various degrees, they stated that they previously felt that it was inappropriate for a student to use a language other than the target language in their classroom and that mixing languages was unacceptable. One teacher who taught both French and Spanish reported that she had previously focused on getting her students to exclusively use the target language in her classroom, especially on assignments. Prior to taking the graduate courses, she took points off when students used English in writing or speaking, but then she began to see that they were using English to express ideas that they did not yet know how to express in either French or Spanish. Taking a translanguaging perspective has allowed her students to use more of the target language because they can write and talk about things they might not have been able to before when they could not use any English.

A Spanish teacher from school 1 expressed similar sentiments and began to encourage the use of all languages in her classroom during specific times, specifically for her EBs from low-incidence languages. She wrote on a discussion board post,

It wasn’t until I took these courses that I have become aware that...I need to become more familiar with my students whose L1 [first language] is a language other than Spanish or English. I now ask myself: how can I use their expertise in their L1, such as Korean or Romanian, or Hindi to compare languages? It has added another dimension to our learning.

As teachers’ language ideologies evolved, they were implementing translanguaging disciplinary pedagogies to various degrees, which we describe next.

Implementing Translanguaging Disciplinary Literacies

The two high schools were generally monolingual sites where classrooms were either English-medium or LOTE (language other than English, or world language) classrooms where only one named language was suitable for instruction. Therefore, these high school teachers had to chart their own paths to implement translanguaging pedagogies in their curriculum and instruction, which they did as their heteroglossic language ideologies developed. Although we share how they did this in distinct forms of literacy engagement, the way teachers moved from multilingual reading to speaking to writing with their students was often seamless and simultaneous. Their EBs and HSS were able to engage in using literacy across languages through specific resources the teachers provided, which became an entry point into their translanguaging pedagogy.

Resources for Literacy Engagement

The primary resources that teachers used to engage students in translanguaging disciplinary literacies were multilingual texts, technology, and translators. A first step for many

teachers was identifying websites with content knowledge in multiple languages and physically adding multilingual books to their classroom and school libraries. For example, a chemistry teacher at school 2 was gleeful to discover and share an online multilingual glossary used in the State of New York that translates scientific terms in multiple languages (see Metropolitan Center for Research on Equity and the Transformation of Schools, n.d.). Although he had few EBs or HSs in his classroom, he made the resource available to students and shared it with other science teachers in his school. In addition to often free, online text in multiple languages, throughout the three years, the schools added 681 books or digital magazines in their libraries and classrooms in languages other than English through the grant project.

Another low-risk entry point into translanguaging pedagogy for many teachers was encouraging the purposeful use of translation apps during class time. In the survey, two years after Ms. Gentry, the ELA teacher we observed, completed the coursework, she explained how she used both translating and technology as a translanguaging disciplinary literacy practice: “I use technology to support reading and engaging digitally in multiple languages and show students how to use the full range of devices at their fingertips.” Other teachers used the students themselves as resources to translate, as evidenced by Mr. Walker’s survey response quoted previously. All of the 27 teachers used these resources to teach translanguaging disciplinary literacies in their classroom to focus on various aspects of literacy that we discuss next: reading/viewing, writing/composing, oral language, and critical thinking.

Reading/Viewing

The most commonly reported way that teachers described translanguaging disciplinary literacies was through reading and viewing, which draws from them leveraging the tools previously discussed. The library media specialists at both schools who participated in the coursework were instrumental in supporting the teachers’ translanguaging pedagogies by promoting physical and digital resources in languages that they learned were representative of their student population, including, yet purposefully moving beyond, Spanish to include the many low-incidence languages at their schools. At school 2, the librarian collaborated with the newcomer ESL class to have students read a picture book in their home language to an elementary class in conjunction with the National Read Aloud Day. The librarian at school 1 encouraged multilingual reading and researching in the disciplines. She wrote in the survey,

Due to COVID-19, we didn’t get to teach our Spring Research Lessons. However, we recorded the lessons for students to watch virtually. We show students where they are able to change the language of the database article to one of the many world languages.

The librarians’ and teachers’ decisions to promote multilingual reading were evident in Mandy’s observations of Mr. Reynolds’s history class in the final year of the study. An entire class of 18 newcomer students were completely silent as they were engrossed in their novel for the mandatory 10-minute independent reading time. All students in this class (from the Democratic Republic of the Congo or Latin America) were reading young adult novels in either Spanish or French that they found in their school library. Mr. Reynolds praised the librarians for providing these engaging texts in students’ home languages and gave this rationale for letting them read in any language in his class:

By providing students with books in their first language, I have empowered them to lead literate lives, and to develop their vocabulary. I have also utilized texts in their first language in order to foster content learning in social studies. These texts helped make content more accessible and comprehensible, and to increase their learning of the course content. Use of their first language in text also communicated that their first language is valued and important to learning.

Translanguaging disciplinary literacies also included the teachers’ purposeful selection of texts primarily in English and peppered with words or phrases in another language because of the cultural setting. A biology teacher at school 1 purposefully located a text with Wolof words, the language of her newcomer student from Gambia, that she read to her class to begin a unit on recycling. The book, *One Plastic Bag: Isatou Ceesay and the Recycling Women of the Gambia* by Miranda Paul, contains various words in Wolof as it relates a true story of how one woman began a recycling initiative in her community. Instead of using the glossary at the end of the text to understand the words in Wolof, she encouraged her newcomer student to explain these words to the class while they engaged in a discussion of the various science concepts in the book.

Three ELA teachers created and taught lessons (as part of their coursework) using side-by-side bilingual texts. Using Spanish texts with English, Ms. Gentry developed a bilingual “Article of the Week” assignment for Spanish–English EBs. She gave students a copy of the same text in a lower Lexile level in English and in a higher Lexile level in Spanish. Using both versions, students analyzed the text effectively while also learning new vocabulary in English. Ms. Gentry shared that “being able to see the same thought expressed two different ways really helped my students understand the concepts better.” She further stated that this assignment also helped her assess students’ Spanish reading comprehension even though she did not speak Spanish. Noting students’ engagement in the Spanish article each week gave her some insight into their L1 reading abilities.

Yet, like many superdiverse spaces represented by multiple languages, cultures, nationalities, and backgrounds

(Vertovec, 2007), most teachers did not have a common LOTE, such as Spanish, spoken by all EBs or HSs. In these cases, teachers used side-by-side bilingual texts from multilingual websites. For example, a Spanish teacher used an EB's home language of Korean to more effectively teach cultural elements related to the discipline. The teacher explained, "In [my Spanish class, we research] in either English, Spanish, or Korean, whatever language the particular student can comprehend most effectively." Although he did not speak Korean, he found websites in Korean with information about cultural elements of Latin America to provide the content in a language that students could comprehend most easily.

The science and math teachers created multilingual word walls, enlisting their students' help, to provide multilingual reading. Science teachers also began to leverage their students' Spanish and French knowledge because many scientific terms have Latin roots. A biology teacher created handouts and classroom visuals to help students make an educated guess about a word's meaning by looking at its Latin root and thinking about the meaning of the root in their home language, Spanish or French. These science teachers were purposeful to teach their students how speaking a language with Latin origins could help them understand the meanings of various vocabulary words in the sciences. These word walls, where quick reading took place, provided a foundation for multilingual oral language, which we discuss later.

In addition to the various kinds of translingual reading in the disciplines, teachers also engaged their students in translingual viewing by using subtitles in students' home languages or by showing a video in a LOTE and providing English subtitles. Ms. Hope illustrated this practice in her lesson:

The Growth and Decay Unit begins with videos in the 3 first languages represented in my classroom—Spanish, Wolof, and Tagalog. All students hear new math content summarized in their first language. The videos are played out loud so everyone in the class can hear [their] languages spoken.

She explained that even though the state's high-stakes assessment for algebra is in English, she focused on teaching the content through using students' languages for initial learning:

Especially since distance learning started [in March 2020] I have provided my students videos of math being taught in their L1. I have found them to be quite helpful though and will continue using them as a way to introduce new content to my students.

Writing/Composing

After learning content in a translingual way through either reading or viewing in multiple languages, teachers began allowing and often encouraging their students to write in their home languages to express themselves most

effectively, although on limited formal assignments. Translingual writing and composing using visuals alongside text occurred informally through student planning, note-taking, and journaling and then in more formal ways through written bilingual products, such as weather forecasts, or creative writing in students' home languages.

An International Baccalaureate (IB) coordinator who worked closely with history teachers shared how she entered their classrooms to teach EBs who were at the advanced stage of English-language acquisition. She encouraged the students to plan a group presentation through creating a graphic organizer in their L1:

One way that [we] have accomplished this [translingual pedagogies] is by giving the freedom to students in AP (Advance Placement) and IB history classes to use their L1 when in journaling, discussing, and planning group presentations. Then the students have to determine how to verbalize their presentations in the L2 (English). Students' presentations are so much more thoughtful and richer.

Some of the ELA teachers also began encouraging their students, particularly newcomers at the beginning states of English-language acquisition, to plan their essays in their L1s before writing them in English.

Teachers across all disciplines connected multilingual reading with note-taking. After watching a math video or reading science content (in any language), teachers encouraged their students to take notes in any language that helped them remember the content or the process. Similarly, teachers also encouraged students' responses to their viewing/reading in any language. Mr. Reynolds explained, "I empowered students in my social studies classes to respond to learning using their first language. If they had only had English as an option to respond, I would not be able to assess their true learning of content." Having a bilingual advantage, he could read his students' responses in Spanish, but even the languages that students responded in that he could not read were useful. He assessed student learning by seeing that they wrote something (rather than nothing) in their response. Sometimes, he had newcomer students try to verbalize their L1 writing to him in English or through a student translator if available.

A Spanish/French teacher at school 2 explained how she began encouraging more multilingual writing in her class from her EBs and HSs:

I have let my students write in whichever language they felt more comfortable for some writing assignments or formative assessments. Most of the time since the majority writes in Spanish I can completely understand what they write, but I have had cases in which they write in another language (e.g. Portuguese, Chinese) that I can't comprehend, so in those cases I ask students to verbalize what they wrote and I can assign a grade or provide feedback based on that. I have also let emergent bilinguals to write in English if they feel more comfortable using that language instead of the content area language (i.e. Spanish or French).

Two teachers (ELA and biology) more fully embraced translingual writing/composing by giving students officially bilingual assignments. In his ELA class with newcomers through advanced EBs, Mr. Reynolds assigned bilingual writing, asking students to write poetry and memoirs in both English and their home language, and displayed their side-by-side bilingual writing in his classroom and in the hallways. Also at school 1, a biology teacher asked her newcomers to write weather forecasts in their home language first and then work with partners to translate the text to English using the assistance of translation apps and English vocabulary lists. Students produced these forecasts by recording them in both languages.

Nevertheless, perhaps because all official testing occurs in English and these are still English-medium schools, most official student writing and composing was required in English. Yet, to counteract this obstacle, Mr. Reynolds created a website during his year of coursework where students (EBs and HSs) could publish their writing in languages other than English, some pieces translated into English and others not.

Oral Language

As teachers began using more translingual approaches to reading and writing in their disciplines, they became more comfortable with students speaking in languages other than English, or other than the target language, in their classrooms. They began asking students to speak in their home language for the purposes of internalizing complex ideas, making plans for a final product, confirming meaning, and engaging more fully in discussion.

Math teachers especially asked their EBs of all levels of English proficiency and their HSs to talk to a partner about particular mathematical concepts or processes in their home language. One geometry teacher shared how she placed students with a language partner for the daily turn-and-talk interactions to solidify their learning, speaking in both the home language and English as supported by her multilingual word wall. This provided students an authentic opportunity to discuss math in their own language. Another math teacher paired her students by using mixed-level English ability. The student with greater English proficiency translated for the partner so both could access the content. In turn, the student translator developed a deeper understanding of the math concept through the process of translation. Additionally, the use of oral language in the L1 provided avenues for newcomer students to discuss math content in their classroom, rather than remaining silent. For example, when this math teacher received a newcomer in her class, she immediately addressed the seating organization: “I have rearranged seats so that she, [the newcomer], can talk to bilingual students. This new arrangement gives her a voice in my classroom that she did not have before.”

One of the IB coordinators worked with a small group of EBs on the IB capstone geography project in which students select a research topic and view it through a global context. In these lessons, she purposefully provided vocabulary in students’ home languages (from Google Translate), encouraged the use of translation devices, and told students to use any language they desired with their group. She was surprised by the amount of Spanish she heard, and although she did not understand the students’ conversations, she was highly satisfied with the quality of their final products in English. Although these students did not have the opportunity to express their bilingualism in the visible outcome goal, they were encouraged to use their bilingualism in their conversations to produce the written product in English.

As these teachers implemented translingual practices, they began encouraging more multilingual discussions of English texts. One particular ELA teacher had his advanced students read articles in English and then discuss them in any language they preferred. He reflected,

If I had only allowed students to interact in English, the discussions and learning would have been shallow and full of hesitation, without exploration of the deeper themes presented by this genre. By allowing my students to discuss and interact with and about these articles using their full language abilities, the interactions were deep and thoughtful, and students were able to develop a deeper understanding of the text and the genre because they could engage in the medium they felt most competent in.

This iteration of translingual oral language coincides with critical thinking as a literacy practice that is supported by translingual pedagogies.

Critical Thinking

The very act of translating requires much critical thinking (Goodwin & Jiménez, 2016), and teachers began to view translation through this lens rather than as a deficit. In addition, their translingual pedagogies provided a way to engage their students with more critical thinking about the discipline. For example, the teachers sought out texts in students’ L1s about complex social problems to engage them in critical thinking, texts that would not have been accessible to many EBs in English. Teachers engaged students in critical learning about the Black Lives Matter and Me Too movements, as well as gun violence, parent-child separation at the U.S. border, and child abuse, by providing reading, viewing, and discussion opportunities in the home language. A Spanish-speaking ELA teacher used a whole-class novel in two languages for official instruction to teach the genre of memoir. He explained on the discussion board that his class of entirely Spanish-speaking advanced EBs could more rigorously engage in a critical textual analysis when they read parts of the memoir in Spanish.

However, a translingual approach not only gave students greater access to critical learning, but their abilities in languages other than English also created a more critical space in the classroom, a space that is not accessible through monoglossic ideologies. Mr. Reynolds explained that students' multilingualism gave them access to more texts, which helped them interrogate the perspectives of their state-adopted history textbooks. Mandy's observations of his world history class illustrate how he leveraged Guatemalan students' language and experiences. Students read sources on the internet, written in Spanish for a Guatemalan audience, about the controversial U.S. involvement in their country. He explained that using students' languages to discover information that is not readily available in their textbook or even in the English language provided the entire class special insight into historical and current events, further explicating the need to read critically, one of his primary foci in teaching historical literacy.

One of the Spanish teachers from school 1 engaged his EBs with real-world social problems through their multilingual research:

Most of the students in my advanced Spanish courses who are emergent bilinguals come from Spanish-Speaking countries [but] two students came from Nepal, one from a French-speaking African country, three from east Asian countries (Korea, China, Japan). I have incorporated the students' multiple language skills in reading as they do reports throughout the year on...contemporary issues, world challenges facing humanity and they are global in nature. Students research in their native language with authentic resources, and present their issues in the target language (Spanish).

Greater access to critical thinking through a translingual approach helped deepen their understanding through writing, as another Spanish teacher explained:

Choosing to write in a language of their choice (Korean, Chinese, Greek, Hindi, Spanish and English) afforded them the opportunity to think deeply about the question and not worry about the language itself. It was heartwarming for me to see that they spent some real time reflecting and writing in their journals.

Teachers' Perception of Benefits of Translingual Pedagogies

The 27 teachers in this program, who expressed some degree of heteroglossic language ideologies and implemented various forms of translingual literacies in their disciplines, also expressed the benefits of this pedagogical approach, which center on providing greater language equity, supporting literacy engagement in academic coursework. Building translanguaging into their lessons required teachers to think deeply about language and, as a result, influenced how they taught literacy in the disciplines.

Language Equity

Teachers explained that instructing through translingual disciplinary literacies provided students more equitable access to the disciplines, focusing more on the content rather than the language. One teacher shared,

Even though my classroom is technically an English-medium class because I teach in English, our environment appears to be completely bilingual (actually multilingual). My students and I use our entire linguistic repertoires to connect our worlds, which enables us to reach our end goal, which is for the students to understand math content.

Ms. Hope explained that the importance of disciplinary literacy gave her students more equitable access to the curriculum by distinguishing the language (i.e., English) from the disciplinary literacy (i.e., math meaning making):

Without translanguaging, some students are denied information in content based courses which is certainly unjust. Language-specific performance shows what my algebra student can do in English alone. Linguistic-specific performance shows what a student can do using their full linguistic repertoire.

Teachers in both schools perceived students' proficiency and literacy development in their L1s as a benefit to all academic learning and worked to change existing school policies. In school 1, the teachers began to encourage Spanish-speaking EBs to take heritage-language courses for credit rather than test out of Spanish and replace it with an English elective: "The school has allowed our Spanish for Spanish Speakers I and II classes to double from two to four classes to accommodate our growing number of emergent bilinguals." The teachers were persistent in implementing these changes in their schools because they saw developing one's home-language literacy skills as a benefit that should be afforded to all students.

Another purposeful change in school 1 initiated by the two IB coordinators in the program was to target EBs and HSs for the IB program housed within the school and ensure that information about it was available to parents and students in multiple languages. In school 2, the two Spanish teachers, including Ms. Feria, whom we observed, made concerted efforts to learn more about the Seal of Biliteracy and begin the process of offering it to students at their school, with a focus on including EBs, not only students in advanced world language classes.

These teachers also noted that a benefit of a translingual approach was greater equity in testing policies. A critical moment at the end of the first year of the study was when Mr. Reynolds encouraged his newcomer student from Venezuela to write her expository essay for the state English exam in Spanish, ensuring that she addressed the prompt and had a well-developed argument. Knowing she had all day to complete the exam, he then asked her to work on translating it the best she could into English.

When the test scores came back and school officials saw that this newcomer had passed a difficult exam for even native English speakers, they were more willing to consider assessment through a multilingual lens. Consequently, one of the IB coordinators reported in her survey on how their assessment policies continued to change, “For IB, we administered our first IB exam to a student from Venezuela in Spanish, although she was taking the course in English. Because she felt her academic Spanish was better, we made that adjustment for her.”

Translingual disciplinary literacy pedagogies worked collectively toward greater language equity in the entire schools. The administrator in the program explained how seeing and using students’ languages affected her: “This experience has allowed me to consider our students’ languages as something more than a qualifier for their class placement....I now see them as languages in their own right.”

Literacy Engagement

As illustrated in the previous findings, teachers used translingual approaches through multiple forms of literacy, which they reported led to more time engaged in a literacy activity such as reading, writing, or giving a presentation. Further, using students’ home languages, often through culturally relevant curriculum, also contributed to students’ perceived abilities to comprehend text and their enjoyment in the literacy task. Another way teachers perceived EBs as engaging to higher degrees in disciplinary literacy was through more involvement in their classroom communities. One teacher wrote in her survey,

Many teachers have come to accept that our ELL [English-language learner, synonymous with EB] students are an untapped resource, and through the training we have received, we have begun to embrace them as an integral part of our community. Knowing two or more languages is now being celebrated. Fewer teachers are seeing our ELL students as having a deficit.

Other teachers were able to engage their students to a greater degree by providing them more access to the discipline and the classroom community. A science teacher wrote about the literacy engagement one would see in her class with many EBs: “On any given 2B class day you will see reading, writing, note taking, and discussions all taking place in different languages.”

Discussion

In bringing together research in language and literacy through a critical lens, this study makes concrete contributions to adolescent literacy regarding whole-school efforts for language equity and literacy engagement at the

high school level through a translingual disciplinary literacies approach. Our findings suggest general principles that may provide guidance as disciplinary literacy researchers and language specialists consider how to create more equitable learning spaces for bi/multilingual students. In this section, we discuss some of the key implications from our study.

Nuances of Translingual Disciplinary Literacies

Across the disciplines, teachers relied on similar tools to engage students in translingual disciplinary literacies. These findings align with those from research that has illustrated the benefits of reading bilingually on the internet (Song & Cho, 2018), translating text (Puzio et al., 2017), and purposefully grouping students of mixed English proficiency to translate for one another (Flint et al., 2019). The use of these tangible tools provided teachers a safe and accessible entry point to start engaging in translingual pedagogies in their disciplines. The development of their heteroglossic language ideologies, coupled with these tools, worked to foster teachers’ translingual competence (Pacheco et al., 2019) across the school. Yet, each discipline demonstrated this competence through various pedagogical approaches.

The math teachers most heavily used translation and focused on the language of math, rather than English. Notably, all three of the math teachers in this study self-identified as monolingual English speakers, yet two of them constructed highly heteroglossic classrooms, further adding to the documented notion that teachers can engage in translanguaging even if they do not speak their students’ languages (Daniel, Jiménez, Pray, & Pacheco, 2019; Hansen-Thomas, Stewart, Flint, & Dollar, 2020; Menken, & Sánchez, 2019). Similarly, the social studies and science teachers also developed a greater focus on their discipline over the English language by focusing on taking a critical perspective of historical events in the social studies (Salinas, Blevins, & Sullivan, 2012) and accessing one’s linguistic knowledge to make sense of science vocabulary and relevant concepts (Kiramba, 2019).

Although English as a language is a component of their discipline, the ELA teachers began to emphasize the non-language-specific literacies in their discipline, focusing more on literacy rather than the English language. Engaging in translingual disciplinary literacies created a sharper focus on providing students with meaningful engagements with various texts, much like the teacher in Pacheco et al.’s (2019) study, rather than a hyperfocus on the English language, although that was part of the content. The teachers provided texts in various languages to teach genre study, critical literacy, and other specific elements of their discipline.

However, the LOTE teachers demonstrated the most distinct uptake of translingual disciplinary literacies. Perhaps due to their multilingualism or the fact that four out of five of them were from immigrant backgrounds, the world language teachers were well aware of the hegemony of the English language (Major, 2018) through federal and state policies (Menken & Solorza, 2014), xenophobic social norms (Pacheco, 2009), and the history of linguistic oppression in Texas through punishment for speaking Spanish at school (Arreguín-Anderson & Ruiz-Escalante, 2014; Ruiz-Escalante & Arreguín-Anderson, 2013). Therefore, these teachers were more protective of a one-language classroom (Spanish, Latin, or French) but still purposefully used English, or even EBs' non-Spanish home languages, to help students understand cultural elements that the teachers believed would further language learning. For the world language teachers, pursuing language equity in their schools and in society called for them to promote more of their target language over English, protecting the minoritized language.

These nuances among the disciplines also caused us to consider for whom translingual practices serve and to what effect. Not all bi/multilingual students will have highly developed reading and writing abilities in their home languages, particularly regarding two focal populations in high school EBs, students with interrupted formal education, and long-term English learners. Our findings suggest that students with more print literacy experiences in the home language might benefit more readily from translingual reading and writing; however, all bi/multilingual students (EBs and HSs) can have more opportunities for literacy engagement with a widely constructed translingual disciplinary literacies approach that includes oral language as a credible component of literacy. As a result, teachers' language awareness entails understanding students' histories and experiences with their home language(s) so teachers may employ various forms of translingual disciplinary literacy instruction in their classroom while also instructing students in how to agentively draw on their unique linguistic resources to become engaged learners and doers in the specific disciplines.

Implications for (Disciplinary) Literacy Teacher Education

These nuances in the disciplines suggest that we cannot take a singular view of professional development for secondary teachers related to teaching linguistically diverse learners in their fields; we must allow teachers to consider the specific literacy demands required for a particular context and then determine how students' multilingualism can promote content learning and disciplinary literacy skills. Additionally, findings illustrate that it was essential to address teachers' language ideologies to effect changes in classroom curriculum and instruction. Uninterrogated

ideologies that privilege White Mainstream English (Baker-Bell, 2020) are systematically and subtly reinforced by educational policies that often purport to promote equity for diverse learners (Chang-Bacon, 2020). Furthermore, most secondary teachers have little experience with bilingual theories and bilingual education because in most high school settings, English is the unquestioned language of instruction and learning (Menken, 2013). Without scrutiny, teachers may view English as a neutral part of education, although this is a mechanism to maintain asymmetrical power structures that preserve the social status quo for racialized, minoritized students such as EBs and HSs (García & Alonso, 2019). These forces work together to consistently create and reinforce strict monolingual spaces that take time and collaborative effort to dismantle, a great feat for secondary schools. In fact, research (Gallo, Link, Allard, Wortham, & Mortimer, 2014) has provided evidence of how deeply entrenched monolingual language ideologies are at the high school level, even when compared with an elementary school in the same geographic area with a similar student population. Deficit views of bi/multilingual students, their languages, and their cultures contribute to untrue constructions of students as lacking language and knowledge. As Gallo et al. (2014) evidenced, unexamined monolingual ideologies influence high school teachers and administrators to view EBs as unteachable through displaying highly derogatory characterizations of students' emerging English proficiency.

With a keen awareness that all teaching, learning, and research is plagued by unquestioned language ideologies, our study illustrates the possibilities of nurturing heteroglossic language ideologies through a disciplinary literacies approach that occurs over time and includes representatives from various disciplines in the school. Indeed, applying relevant theory to affect one's ideologies and practices will likely not occur in a one-time professional development setting, but rather requires sustained learning, such as in teacher education programs. Consequently, it is imperative that undergraduate- and graduate-level literacy and reading education courses adopt a strong heteroglossic lens in how all teachers, not just bilingual teachers, can adopt translingual disciplinary literacy instruction.

Further, rather than take an approach to teaching disciplinary literacy for linguistically diverse learners that involves checklists, strategies, and strict lesson frameworks, we advocate a constructivist approach (Au, 1998) in which knowledgeable teachers who are experts in their disciplines can create a meaningful translingual learning environment for their particular students. Like Crawford and Reyes (2015), who problematized a common sheltered instruction teaching model for students acquiring English, our research also supports constructivist meaning making for teachers and students that is contextualized in unique classroom environments. Instead of focusing on strategies or best practices, we centered our

initiative on critical understandings of bilingualism, translanguaging, and L2 acquisition, in addition to literacy engagement through a multilingual approach. Teachers' classroom practices were nurtured by these emerging heteroglossic ideologies as they tried out new curriculum, assessment methods, instructional approaches, and physical spaces to teach disciplinary literacies.

Our study also provides a description of how translanguaging disciplinary literacies can vary across disciplines and contexts, aligned with the hybridity approach to disciplinary literacy (Hinchman & O'Brien, 2019). Similar to the indictment of language teaching models that includes strategies and checklists (Crawford & Reyes, 2015), we also turn from a disciplinary literacy stance that employs the same generic approach of infusing predetermined literacy strategies into the disciplines. Taking a hybridity disciplinary literacy approach to translanguaging illustrates the gradations of literacies needed to be successful in each discipline and how translanguaging practices will vary. Parallel to traditional approaches in training secondary teachers on language instruction, an infusion approach to disciplinary literacy does not recognize the vast expertise and passion for the content that high school chemistry, geography, creative writing, and Latin teachers, for example, have for their discipline. We should approach high school teachers as experts in their discipline while viewing our job as collaboration with them in their particular classroom context to determine how to deliver quality disciplinary literacy instruction through a translanguaging approach. We believe that the constructs of language and disciplinary literacy are complex and that to develop an understanding of teaching bi/multilingual students in high school courses, we must work across fields (language and literacy) and in schools as we value teachers' professionalism.

Language (In)Equity and Literacy (Dis)Engagement

Finally, literacy engagement is greatly hindered if students' full language histories are obscured, unknown, or not viewed as relevant for learning. This also occurs through well-meaning teachers (and researchers) who do not consider students' languages in their teaching because they are not bi/multilingual themselves, do not know students' languages, or lack adequate understandings of language theories. Whereas these can seem as valid reasons for leaving language issues to the language experts (bilingual and ESL teachers and researchers), the findings of this study suggest that language equity can be provided by teachers who do not speak their students' languages and that greater equity can indeed lead to literacy engagement. Of course, the converse is also worth considering: If we do not provide greater language equity, then by default, we are contributing to literacy disengagement despite our

great efforts to teach vocabulary, reading comprehension, and even critical literacy.

That is, language equity might well be a harbinger for bi/multilingual students' literacy engagement. Therefore, as we understand the importance of increasing literacy engagement across the disciplines (Guthrie, 2004; Kamil et al., 2008), we must consider a translanguaging approach for all bi/multilingual students: EBs of all levels of English proficiency and HSs whose home language practices might even be unknown to school officials. Our findings illustrate that EBs and HSs have more access to the curriculum, opportunities to express their learning, and engagement in critical thinking when they are in a translanguaging classroom space. We cannot expect adolescent students to be engaged in literacy if they do not have equitable opportunities to comprehend and enjoy their reading, write to best express themselves, engage in classroom discussions, and apply critical thinking to content learning. Thus, language equity in the disciplines is a crucial element to consider as we move forward in conversations of literacy engagement. We might well miss the mark if we fail to consider disciplinary or, more broadly, adolescent literacy without a bilingual, multilingual, or translanguaging stance (Babino & Stewart, 2020), because we are indeed serving bilingual, multilingual, and translanguaging youth.

Limitations and Future Research

We acknowledge that this research is specific to two high schools within the same geographic area and that our findings are descriptive accounts of how these particular educators engaged in translanguaging disciplinary literacies as influenced by their heteroglossic language ideologies. Despite our focus on all bi/multilingual students, a more dedicated account of particular student populations will benefit the field, as we will better understand who may benefit the most from translanguaging approaches in the disciplines. Future research should specifically understand how students who have not acquired print literacy skills in their home languages could begin to develop those skills through disciplinary-specific literacy engagement. Further, in our study, we did not address bidialectal students who speak more than one variety of English and how translanguaging approaches could potentially provide them more equitable literacy engagement. Finally, because most secondary classrooms consist of mixed-language identities (mono- and bi/multilingual students of varying proficiency levels), researchers might investigate how monolingual students respond to a translanguaging disciplinary literacies approach in their classrooms.

"History Has Its Eyes on You" (and Me)

To borrow a popular line from Lin-Manuel Miranda's Broadway musical *Hamilton*, often cited in present-day protests of racial injustice, history has its eyes on our field

and how we will respond to renewed calls to question, examine, interrogate, and indeed, wrestle uncomfortably with previously taken-for-granted norms regarding literacy and language. Whether these calls, in forms of theoretically grounded arguments, come from critical language research (e.g., Flores, 2020) or from within the field of literacy (e.g., Baker-Bell, 2020; Inoue, 2019), they beckon a new layer of critical consciousness in our literacy research. Our study illustrates the crucial element of approaching literacy research and instruction through a critical lens of examining one's ideologies, understanding that they are tied to issues of unequal power in society. We believe that this is what we must also do as a field, to critically ask, Who has the power to name what counts as academic language, grade-level texts, school-related language skills, and standard expressions of learning? Subsequently, who benefits from this naming, and who is disadvantaged? Further, are some of our honest attempts at equity really cloaked perpetuations of the status quo of growing inequities and greater tolerance for intolerance in our society?

Perhaps if we do not ask these questions, then we have only provided the ammunition for educational systems to weaponize curriculum and standards to marginalize and even demonize students of Color, their families, their languages, and their bodies. We began planning this research in 2016 when a chant of "build the wall" erupted at one of our partner schools, sending a direct message to the many bi/multilingual students from immigrant families. We spent the school years of 2017–2020 implementing our translingual approach in the midst of policies and popularized opinions that worked against these students and their languaging practices. With the recent events of 2020, we are able to see new potential for teachers and researchers to critically examine literacy and language policies as we bravely ask the questions, Why, why not, and who says? These are questions that spurred the teachers in this study on to bring students' languages into a sanctioned place in their classrooms.

We ask the same of ourselves as researchers. If we continue to even benignly perpetuate language inequity by our inaction, then literacy disengagement is a sure result. Conversely, a focus on language equity throughout the disciplines can create spaces for new forms of literacy engagement. Indeed, Guthrie (2004) suggested that innovations regarding literacy engagement are necessary to create sustained positive changes in schools. Perhaps our most effective innovation is interrogating our own assumptions to discover previously unimagined possibilities in disciplinary literacy instruction.

For years, we have called on all teachers to be literacy teachers, yet now if we call on them to be language teachers as well, our field of literacy research must be prepared to grapple with critical language theories in our work. We do this as we name monoglossic norms in our field and

seek to disrupt them through nurturing our own heteroglossic ideologies. As we leave 2020 behind, surely history has its eyes on how each of us will respond as we work toward literacy engagement.

NOTES

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MARY AMANDA (MANDY) STEWART (corresponding author) is an associate professor in the Department of Literacy and Learning at Texas Woman's University, Denton, TX, USA; email mstewart7@twu.edu. Her research adopts a pragmatically critical approach to the intersections of literacies and languaging, particularly focused on translingual and transnational adolescents.

HOLLY HANSEN-THOMAS is the vice provost for research and innovation, the dean of the graduate school, and a professor in the Department of Teacher Education at Texas Woman's University, Denton, USA; email hhansenthomas@twu.edu. Her research focuses on culturally and linguistically responsive teaching for multilinguals, with a particular emphasis on adolescents in STEM-related areas.

PATRICIA FLINT is a doctoral candidate in special education, a graduate research associate as part of the ELLevate grant, and a university supervisor for clinical student teachers at Texas Woman's University, Denton, USA; email pflint@twu.edu. Her research interests are identification and implementation of evidence-based academic interventions for individuals with specific learning disabilities.

MARIANNELLA NÚÑEZ is a visiting assistant professor in the Dreeben School of Education at the University of the Incarnate Word, San Antonio, Texas, USA; email mdnunez@uiwtx.edu. Her research interests are the language and literacies of culturally and linguistically diverse students.

Survey Questions

1. Which content area(s) have you been teaching for the past 2 years? Or, what administrative or support staff roles have you had the past two years at your high school?
2. READING: If applicable, how have you used your students' multiple languages in reading within your content area? (Or in your role as an administrator/support staff member)
3. WRITING: If applicable, how have you used your students' multiple languages in writing within your content area? (Or in your role as an administrator/support staff member)
4. LISTENING: If applicable, how have you used your students' multiple languages in listening within your content area? (Or in your role as an administrator/support staff member)
5. SPEAKING: If applicable, how have you used your students' multiple languages in speaking within your content area? (Or in your role as an administrator/support staff member)
6. If applicable, how has your grant coursework helped you support your students' literacy and language development?
7. If applicable, how has your school taken a multilingual or translanguaging stance?