

**Teachers' views, challenges, and
strategies toward pupils'
bilingualism and translanguaging**
by Samira Niazi

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Make a decision

Make a decision
to care for language
as it is used
in human and nonhuman interactions
in complex, multi-layered ways
in times of great needs
and spaces of great suffering
whether this language
is an act of labor, work,
leisure, pleasure,
Or something else.

Linguistics disobedience: Restoring Power to Civic Language. (2019,140)
Komska, Moyd & Gramling

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abstract

During the last century, bilingual education scholarship has witnessed epistemological shifts in its theories. Traditional views of considering bilinguals' languages as separate entities have been replaced by more recent dynamic views which consider a single and unitary system for language features of bilinguals' different languages. However, these new insights seem to be partly reflected in practice, and adopted by practitioners in bilingual education settings. Therefore, more research into the effectiveness of these new insights from the dynamic bilingualism scholarship and translanguaging as its representation in pedagogy seems necessary to encourage and train practitioners in bilingual education contexts to adopt and engage with it. To advocate for this, the present study utilised a mixed methods approach through an online questionnaire to explore teachers' dominant language mindset in the UK's mainstream primary school context, and to shed light on their ideas about translanguaging pedagogy, the challenges they face, and the strategies they implement while engaging in translanguaging pedagogy. The findings revealed that teachers' dominant language ideology is heteroglossic, and they have an asset-based view toward bilingualism. However, the concept of translanguaging as a new pedagogy seems to be unfamiliar for them. Due to this 'unfamiliarity' factor, translanguaging pedagogy is wrongly overgeneralised to some general guidelines known as 'Good practice for pupils with EAL', and the majority of teachers treat them interchangeably. Therefore, considering the importance of teachers' adopted pedagogy in their students' academic achievements, in line with the findings of this research, informing teachers about the values and implementation of translanguaging pedagogy through initial teacher education courses for pre-service context, and CPD courses for in-service teachers is of utmost importance.

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Abbreviation

EFL: English as Foreign Language

EAL: English as additional Language

CUP: Common Underlying proficiency

SUP: Separate Underlying proficiency

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

CLIL: Content and Language Integrated Learning

BSO: British Schools Overseas

F: Feature

Ofsted: The Office For Standards in Education, Children's Services and Skills

NALDIC: National Association of Language Development In Curriculum

PGCE: Post Graduate Certificate in Education

Introduction

In human languaging, bilingualism has nearly almost always been the norm. When human's earliest version of forefathers moved away from where they have been originally settled, in search of food and remained less in contact with their previous communities on a daily basis, bilingualism in its earliest form started and has never stopped and I cannot imagine an end to it; as we, humans, regardless of our ethnicity/colour, race/origin, and religion/beliefs constantly, creatively, and dynamically use our linguistic abilities to communicate, no matter where on earth we live. Geolinguistics informs us that Papua New Guinea (with a population of 8,935,000) is the most linguistically diverse country in the world with 851 known languages within its borders; while there are only 3 countries out of 242 in which people use a single language; Korea, and two remote colonial islands of Saint Pierre and Saint Helena with a population of under 6000 (Eberhard, 2022). Therefore, our languaging norms have barely been confined to the geopolitical borders we live within, as there has rarely been an exact one-to-one correspondence between the number of languages and the number of countries.

Our world is increasingly multilingual. There are more bilinguals than monolinguals in the world, as Baker & Wright (2021, p. 26) suggest 'between half and two-thirds of the world's population is bilingual'. Similarly, according to Ethnologue, approximately 379 million people in the world speak English as a first language and an even greater number, 753 million, speak it as a second language (Eberhard, 2022). In such a linguistically diverse climate around the world, many educational settings and educators have monolingual mindsets and monoglossic perspectives in regard to bilingualism, and therefore consider

monolingualism to be the norm in their context and consequently in their language practices and policies. The ‘single official language, ideal nationalism’ ideology makes practitioners consider one standard and official language to be used in their educational contexts regardless of the fluid reality and diversity which exists in the society. This might be due to the ‘language-as-a-problem’ perspective when ‘monolingual English-speakers in countries such as the United States and England may consider bilinguals to be an oddity or inferior’ (Baker & Wright, 2021, p. 26). The reflection of this deficit-oriented view in schools encourages practitioners to ignore the pupils’ funds of knowledge that they bring to school with them and focus on what they lack linguistically, which mirrors their raciolinguistic ideologies_ ‘ideologies surrounding language, race, power, and how they are related and intersect’ (Baker & Wright, 2021, p. 27). Given the fact that bilinguals often represent minorities, linguistically and/or racially, and the language’s potential to determine our ideology toward race, Ortega rightly argues that

‘raciolinguistics offers a lens through which to understand that it is deep social inequities, not language per se, that shape whose multilingualism is accepted and praised and supported, whose multilingualism is feared as a problem to be remedied or even eradicated, and whose multilingualism remains invisible’ (as cited in Baker & Wright, 2021, p. 28).

But thanks to human criticality endowment, throughout history, many linguists, sociolinguists, psycholinguists, and educational practitioners with critical and activist stances have challenged the raciolinguistic ideologies in different ways and have posited us in our current spot in the 21st century when more and more people are stepping out of the monoglossic zone and are moving toward the acceptance of others’ languages and ethnicity by ‘poking at the cracks that are evident in the walls’ (Garcia, 2019, p.166).

Teachers are truly at the heart of every educational institution and their ideologies around their students' linguistics repertoire affect their pedagogy in the classroom on a daily basis. Given the importance of this, the present study aims to explore the UK's mainstream primary schoolteachers' perceptions and mindset toward their emergent bilingual students' languaging in particular, and bilingualism in general through an online questionnaire. If people's language ideology is considered as a continuum, monoglossic and heteroglossic views toward bilingualism can be two extremes of that, and people can be posited in different places across that continuum. Therefore, to investigate teachers' positioning on this continuum, and to examine whether they are informed by the recent changes in bilingualism, the first section of the questionnaire was quantitatively developed. In this close-ended section, teachers were provided with 76 items in five sub-sections (based on Meier' framework for reflection, 2017) describing attitudes towards languages, multilingualism, learners, teachers, and learning. Half of the items inherently represent a monoglossic ideology and the other half that of heteroglossic. Teachers were instructed to choose as many items as they believe describe their language ideology, as arguably, the overall responses can be a reliable representation of the participants' language mindset. The dissertation also seeks to explore teachers' views toward the implementation of translanguaging as a teaching practice and explore some of their challenges and strategies in regard to this inclusive teaching practice. Therefore, the second section of the questionnaire was qualitatively designed to delve into this by providing five open-ended questions. The answers provided by the teachers were thematically analysed to shed light on the participant's attitudes toward translanguaging as a teaching practice.

There is a comprehensive scholarship on bilingualism which will be discussed in the second chapter. Translanguaging is a new term in bilingualism and the research into it has been the focus of researchers in applied linguistics interested in bilingual education. Many projects are investigating the effectiveness of translanguaging pedagogy to improve bilingual education programmes, and others are investigating the effect of teachers' perception of bilingualism, in general, and its reflection on teachers' adopted pedagogy, in particular. The outcome of the current study is expected to contribute to the ongoing research in this field and advocate for the importance of informing teachers about developments in the field of bilingualism and the positive changes that research-informed findings can bring to their daily teaching practices in order to support their emergent bilinguals educationally and emotionally. In order to research the above-mentioned areas of interest, the following research questions were presented, and a questionnaire was designed to explore them.

- 1- Is the schoolteachers' language mindset more monoglossic or heteroglossic?
- 2- What are the schoolteachers' views around translanguaging pedagogy?
- 2- What are the schoolteachers' challenges and strategies in implementing translanguaging practices?

Before concluding the introduction, it is necessary to define three key topics which will be used throughout this dissertation, bilingualism, translanguaging pedagogy, and teachers' beliefs. The term 'bilingualism' used in this study is in line with the recent, inclusive, and dynamic model of bilingualism proposed by Garcia and Wei (2014, pp. 13-14). Having heteroglossic language ideology, they assert that 'there is only one unitary linguistic system, one repertoire full of features belonging to both languages bilinguals possess'. They rejected the traditional model

of bilingualism that assumes the bilinguals' two languages are stored separately in the brain and instead advocated for a unitary and dynamic system with features belonging to both languages stored together. The term 'translanguaging pedagogy' is defined as practices 'planned by the teacher inside the classroom which can refer to the use of different languages for input and output or to other planned strategies based on the use of students' resources from the whole linguistic repertoire' (Cenoz, 2017, p. 194). It is a set of 'purposeful and strategic' teaching practices that include bilinguals' first language to enhance their learning by 'making space for students' bilingualism and ways of knowing' to help them 'develop their bilingual identities' because not allowing bilinguals to use their normal daily language practices which involves both languages does not lead to bilinguals' success academically and emotionally (García et al., 2017, p. ix). The term 'belief' refers to the teachers' understanding and way of thinking. In line with Pajares (1992) 'teachers' attitudes about education_ about schooling, teaching, learning, and students_ have generally been referred to as teachers' beliefs' (p. 316).

Chapter 1: The literature review

1. Introduction

This chapter will first discuss the traditional models of bilingualism and their limitations. Then, the recent dynamic model of bilingualism will be presented. Subsequently, a brief explanation will be provided of how the term translanguaging was coined and turned into a popular practice in bilingual education in line with dynamic bilingualism. The relevant empirical research about translanguaging pedagogy will also be summarised. The chapter will conclude with the research's contributions to the open debate about the effectiveness of translanguaging pedagogy in bilingual education, as well as the importance of including it in teacher training programmes. The research questions will also be mentioned to provide an informative bridge to the next chapter.

2. Theoretical perspectives of bilingualism

In this section, first, the theories of bilingualism in its traditional form, as well as its recent models are presented. Then, some empirical research in translanguaging, relevant to the context of the present research is provided.

2.1 Traditional bilingualism and its criticism

Traditionally, early scholars in the field of bilingualism such as Bloomfield (1933) had the most idealist stance toward bilingualism and therefore, believed that bilinguals are those who are highly proficient and balanced in both languages they possess, with a mastery in both languages similar to that of native speakers. However, two decades later, this extreme

view was rightly replaced by a more realistic definition of bilingualism by Weinreich (1953) and Haugen (1956) who were both respectively Yiddish-English and Norwegian-English bilinguals (Garcia, 2009, p.398). Presumably, because of being bilingual themselves, they advocated for limiting the existing broad expectation of having native-like mastery in bilinguals; and argued for limiting the mastery to even minimum language proficiency in the languages bilinguals use. However, regardless of the controversy over the degree of proficiency, traditional bilingual scholars had a monoglossic ideology toward bilingualism; they thought of bilinguals' languages as being separate entities similar to two wheels of a bike. They believed that bilinguals' brains have two separate systems for each language they know, similar to two separate balloons as depicted below (Cummins, 1984, p. 52). In short, based on the monoglossic ideology of traditional bilingualism, as languages are kept separately in bilinguals' brains, therefore, each separate language system has its own linguistic features that are different from the features of the other language system. Thus, while languaging, bilinguals ideally utilise either the L1 features or the L2 features based on the language they are using.



Figure 1: Traditional bilingualism, SUP model, two autonomous linguistic systems

The reflection of monoglossic ideology in bilingual education resulted in scholars such as Wallace Lambert (1974) introducing and advocating for an additive model of bilingualism. He believed that languages can be added to each other (L1+L2) as separate entities and called for teaching a second language to schoolers in a separate additive manner (García, 2009, p. 116). Consequently, under the dominant influence of monoglossic language ideology, Lambert (1984) presented an assumption called ‘the two solitudes assumption’ regarding immersion educational settings in which bilingual education should be followed as comprising ‘two separate monolingual instructional routes’ (p. 13), where languages are practiced separately. However, this traditional additive and monoglossic approach’s shortcomings were soon identified by the other scholars. In reaction to the existing monolingual view, through a heteroglossic lens, Cummins (1981) questioned traditional bilingualism and proposed the ‘common underlying proficiency’ (CUP) model of bilingualism, depicted in figure 2 below, which can be visualised as an iceberg with two peaks. The peaks represent L1 and L2 that are positioned above the water surface, appearing to be two separate icebergs but connected underneath the surface. He argued that what seem to be separate languages, in fact, share the same underlying structure. Having a joint source of language features allows for the transfers and interferences of language features to happen on the surface between the two languages.

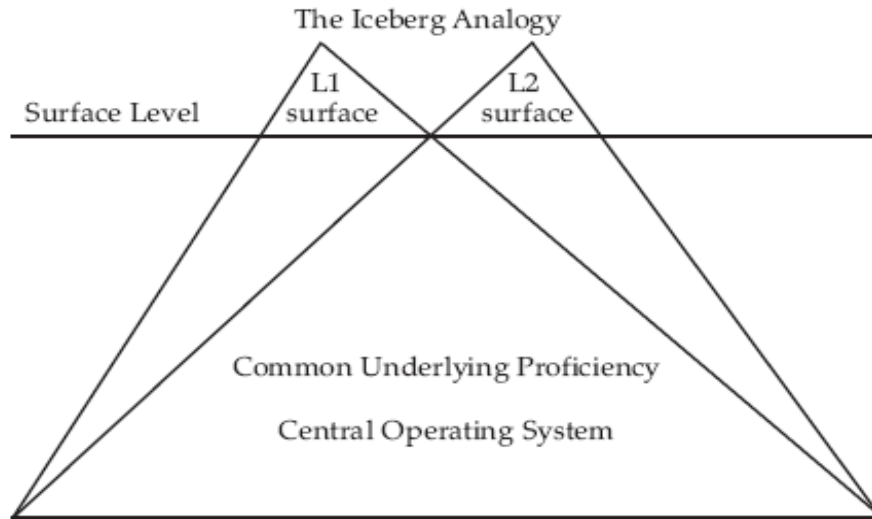


Figure 2: Cummins' CUP 'Dual Iceberg' Model of Bilingualism

To further support this hypothesis, Cummins (2007, p. 221) rightly argued that there are three wrong dominant assumptions in traditional bilingual education that cannot be properly supported by the present research. The wrong assumptions are as follows:

‘(a) the target language (TL) should be used exclusively for instructional purposes without recourse to students’ first language (L1); (b) translation between L1 and L2 has no place in the language classroom, and (c) within immersion and bilingual programs, the two languages should be kept rigidly separate’ (2007, p. 221).

By Drawing on the existing empirical research such as Baker (2001); Cummins (2001); Genesee, Lindholm-Leary, Saunders and Christian (2006); Thomas and Collier (2002), Cummins criticised these wrong assumptions of the traditional monoglossic view of bilingualism and highlighted that this view is not in line with (a) ‘current understandings of how people learn’ and (b) ‘the functioning of the bilingual and multilingual mind’ (p. 222). Thus, he rightly observed the inconsistency between what the dominant monoglossic view dictates and the reality of the classroom learning process that bilinguals experience in educational settings. Garcia (2009, p. 9) also criticised the traditional monolingual view for

wrongly ‘maintaining separate linguistic enclaves’ and the fact that ‘it does not accommodate the linguistic heterogeneity of the times’ (p. 10). She believed that forcing bilingual students to keep their languages apart does not reflect their language practices in communities and real life and, therefore, it ‘prevents bilingual identities from emerging’ (2017, p. 24). She called for an inclusive version of the bilingual programme globally as she believed it is the only fair and possible way to educate children in the 21st century. In essence, an inclusive version of bilingual education makes understanding and education accessible, meaningful, and equitable for all pupils. It celebrates linguistic diversity and encourages tolerance toward differences. It does so by using more than one language. Therefore, the main criticism that traditional bilingualism has received is considering L1 and L2 as two separate languages believing that mixing them has no value and should be avoided. This is obviously in contrast with the language practices every bilingual experiences on a daily basis which is the natural and fluid movement between the two languages.

2.2 Recent dynamic bilingualism

As described in the previous section, the field of bilingual education was experiencing a shift by an increasing number of scholars criticising the shortcomings of the dominant traditional monoglossic language practices. Approximately near the end of the 20th century, the need to include people from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds in educational settings on the one hand, and raised awareness about the shortcomings of the traditional monoglossic view of bilingualism, on the other hand, made educational practitioners see the answer in new theories and models in bilingual education to cater to the need of the whole pupil population. This is why Garcia argued that bilingual education in the 21st century needs massive changes by moving away from the monoglossic view and adopting a more complex,

dynamic, and fluid theory of language. Different scholars have used different lenses and disciplinary knowledge to question the monoglossic view of bilingualism, therefore, different terms were coined to introduce this new necessity. Jacquemet (2005, p. 261) for instance, advocated for recognising 'trans-idiomatic practices' of bilingual people. Highlighting the ever-increasing global communications between people from different parts of the world with different languages, he described trans-idiomatic practices as 'the communicative practices of transnational groups that interact using different languages and communicative codes simultaneously present in a range of communicative channels' and expressed that research 'must address the progressive globalization of communicative practices and social formations that result from the increasing mobility of people, languages, and texts'. Presumably, for him new and dynamic forms of communication could not be justified through a monoglossic mindset and compelled him to look for new ways and theories of interaction between people who do not share the same language. likewise, Herdina and Jessner (2002) introduced a dynamic model of bilingualism claiming that bi/multilinguals' cognitive and psycholinguistic system differs from that of monolinguals in terms of being more developed as a result of having the experience of their prior language learning. For them, monolinguals and bilinguals are not similar. They claimed that bilinguals' cognitive system is more developed, and they have a higher metalinguistic awareness as a result of learning two languages. Similarly, Cook (1995) pointed to the distinction between bilinguals' and monolinguals' brain and cognitive systems and introduced the term 'multi-competency' in bi/multilinguals to highlight the fact that bilinguals are not two monolinguals as it was perceived in traditional bilingualism, as they have developed different mental structures. To question the traditional model of bilingualism, García (2009) also put forward the term 'dynamic bilingualism' to focus on the

way bilinguals use the range of features within their linguistic repertoire in complex and dynamic ways as they communicate with others and engage in communication. Garcia (2009, p. 53) describes dynamic bilingualism as a cycle, depicted below in figure 3, highlighting that ‘in the linguistic complexity of the twenty-first century, bilingualism involves a much more dynamic cycle where language practices are multiple and ever adjusting to the multilingual, multimodal terrain of the communicative act’ (2009. p.53).

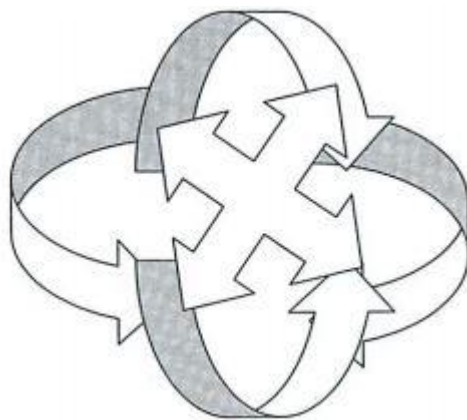


Figure 3: Garcia's dynamic model of bilingualism

2.3 Transanguaging and its pedagogical implications

As mentioned in the previous section, in line with other scholars trying to reject the traditional model of bilingualism, Garcia (2009) introduced a different concept of dynamic bilingualism emphasising that in communication, bilinguals repeatedly move back and forth between the unitary features of the languages they possess to communicate successfully. She reintroduced and redefined the term ‘translanguaging’ as ‘multiple discursive practices in which bilinguals engage in order to make sense of their bilingual worlds’ (García, 2009, p. 45). translanguaging is, in fact, a dynamic, meaning-making, and discursive process that bilinguals naturally use. Translanguaging through dynamic bilingualism, as shown in figure 4,

‘it creates a social space for the multilingual language user by bringing together different dimensions of their personal history, experience, and environment, their attitude, belief and ideology, their cognitive and physical capacity into one coordinated and meaningful performance and making it into a lived experience’ (p. 1223).

Therefore, in the course of history, the concept of dynamic translanguaging was created, defined and redefined to cover different aspects of bilingual individuals’ languaging, communication, identity, and life. However, originally, translanguaging was proposed as one of the earliest bilingual programmes aiming to enhance bilinguals’ educational outcomes. It was the innovative idea of Cen Williams in his Ph.D. dissertation in 1994 of using both languages bilingual learners know systematically in the same lesson. Being a Welsh-English bilingual poet and teacher, Williams called this practice ‘trawsieithu’ (1994). Therefore, it was originally developed in a bilingual education context in Wales to enhance pupils’ learning and their understanding of the school subjects across the wide curriculum by shifting between the language the teachers use to present lessons, Welsh for instance, and the language students use to express their understanding of it, say, in English, or vice-versa. This shift in the language of input and output, William argues, requires higher intellectual abilities and gradually leads to more satisfactory school performance. Thus, William’s technique was the first step taken away from traditional bilingualism in which two languages are considered two separate entities which ideally should be kept apart. This practice soon started to attract the attention of scholars in bilingualism, specifically Garcia in the US and Baker in the UK and started to develop gradually and turn into the most effective teaching practice in bilingual programmes throughout the world, where it was no longer a teaching practice but a critical approach toward the inequities minoritised-language users face around the world and therefore a framework that reflects a country’s realisation of social justice in its bilingual

educational systems as it gives voice to those who have been silence, by providing an equal educational context for every pupil. As dynamic translanguaging started as a teaching practice, it has numerous pedagogical implications. Baker & Wright (2021) argue that Williams's technique has potential in four aspects: it facilitates the learning of bilingual learners, it deepens the link between home and school, it gives a higher status to the weaker language, and it improves the emergent bilinguals' integration with their peers. To further clarify, Cenoz and Gorter (2017) distinguish between pedagogical translanguaging and spontaneous translanguaging. They believe that pedagogical translanguaging is in line with the original definition by Williams (1994) and it refers to the specific and planned pedagogical practices initiated by teachers to use the students' whole semiotic repertoire. In contrast, spontaneous translanguaging refers to the naturally occurring, real, and daily use of languages by bi/multilingual not restricted to the classroom (p. 904). Cummins similarly argues that translanguaging pedagogy is understood as 'the instructional mobilization of students' full linguistic repertoire and the promotion of productive contact across languages (2019, p. 21).

As García, Johnson, and Seltzer (2017: 29) have identified, there can be four purposes for translanguaging pedagogies: (1) translanguaging as a tool for learning and deep understanding; as it can support pupils' learning and understanding by allowing the use of home languages. (2) translanguaging for critically raising sociolinguistic consciousness; as it problematises the power hierarchies of the state/nation official languages as opposed to a variety of minority languages. (3) translanguaging to affirm bilingual identities toward empowerment; as it acknowledges the fluidity of language practices of bilinguals to make sense of their bilingual identity and supports them socially and emotionally. (4)

translanguaging for successful social communication, including that of home-school; as it allows bilinguals to use all the features in their semiotic repertoire to make meaning and communicate successfully. To further help educators and teachers make use of translanguaging more effectively Garcia et al. (2017) provided scenarios of classes with translanguaging ‘corriente’, a term they use to show the natural flow of translanguaging in bilinguals’ life and education alike (p.21). They describe a class with dynamic translanguaging to have three main components, translanguaging stance, translanguaging design, and translanguaging shifts. The stance is the teachers’ proactive action to help students through translanguaging, their language activism that allows their students to use their language repertoire fully. This is mostly inconsistent with spontaneous translanguaging where the shifts between languages while bilinguals are communicating is valued as it is a part of their identity and everyday language practice. The design is the activities and the teaching practices and the lesson plans provided by the teachers to allow bilinguals take advantage of every fund of knowledge they possess, whether L1 or L2 to learn the school subject being taught; which is the essence of pedagogical translanguaging. The shifts are the unplanned and spontaneous behaviours that encourage translanguaging (pp. 27-28). They invite educators to focus on what bilingual students bring to school as a resource and use it systematically to increase comprehension because ‘translanguaging pedagogy leverages students’ dynamic bilingualism for learning’ (p.17).

At this point, it seems necessary to mention that dynamic translanguaging as a multifaceted area of research has received some critics, and not every scholar in the field agrees with every aspect that has been put forth in regard to it. Discussions around the

criticisms are out of the scope of this dissertation and in-depth information about them can be found at Cummins (2019), (2021b), MacSwan (2019), and Block (2018).

In summary, due to the rightly identified deficiencies of traditional views on bilingual education, and the timely calls for recognizing the needs for equitable education for all pupils, a more heteroglossic and inclusive version of education seems to be more dominant in the field compared to the past. Translanguaging as a pedagogy can contribute to this critical movement in education, if it is recognised and adopted by more practitioners across the world. The following section aims to describe a body of research undertaken, arguably, to facilitate the implication of translanguaging pedagogy by providing some research-informed arguments.

3. Empirical studies on translanguaging

The research on translanguaging as an emerging and new concept in the dynamic model of bilingualism has greatly increased since it was first introduced. At the moment, August 2022, a Google Scholar search with the term translanguaging results in 25300 publications. This body of research from its earliest version of scaffolding to its critical socio-political stance is rightly rejecting the traditional models of bilingualism and is advocating for the reflection of the dynamic model of bilingualism into bilingual education to support bilinguals academically and emotionally alike. As translanguaging is positioned at the crossroads of different areas of applied linguistics such as bilingual education, second and foreign language education, and majority and minority languages, therefore, an extensive body of empirical studies have focused on it from a variety of perspectives. Hence, here a

brief review of the empirical studies on bilingual education that have mostly explored the teachers' views and their challenges toward translanguaging pedagogy is presented.

In a two-year project in the UK context in the 2013-2015 academic years, Afitska (2020) observed one class of each year group at Keystage 2 (grades 3,4,5, and 6) and interviewed both teachers and learners (3 from each class) in four different schools with a highly diverse bilingual population. Based on the data collected and the students' written tasks' analysis, he recognised four arguments 'in support of pedagogical translanguaging' (p.13). Higher engagement and comprehension; better demonstration of 'conceptual, subject-specific knowledge and understanding' (p.15); higher maintenance and development of both L1 and L2; 'promoting inclusion, recognition, diversity and cross-national equality' (p.17). He also mentioned some practices which hinder the implementation of translanguaging pedagogy (p.18). Learners' illiteracy in L1; being literate in L1 but lacking knowledge of subject-specific vocabulary in L1; schools' valuing home languages only in 'extra-curricular activities, rather than inside classrooms as part of routine classroom practices' (p.22) due to teachers 'being under-educated in translanguaging pedagogy. He argues that in the UK context, the majority of teachers are monolingual and they 'often feel professionally incompetent and helpless when it comes to making judgments about the quality of learners' work produced in their home languages' (p.19). Apart from that, there is a variety of home languages, therefore, 'a good proportion of high-quality translanguaging activities' proposed in the literature will not work. Thus 'adjustments of these activities' and allowing 'self-sufficient translanguaging by providing learners with learning resources that would prompt them to do so' (p.25) seems necessary. He then argues that assuming the fact that

translanguaging does not need to be taught to teachers is wrong, and teachers need to be informed about what it is, how it works, and what values it has.

In another study, Ticheloven et.al (2021) interviewed 16 scholars working in education and linguistics, 7 teachers in multilingual schools, and 31 multilingual students to answer the question of ‘What kind of pedagogical challenges do they anticipate or encounter when implementing translanguaging in multilingual classrooms?’ After the thematic analysis of the data, they identified seven pedagogical challenges. The challenges they identified are as follow; 1. Side effects (such as isolating teachers and students, parental concern about the use of home languages); 2.Goal formulation (the doubt whether this practice will lead to the satisfaction of achieving educational goals); 3.Learning the language of schooling (the uncertainties toward the use of L1 delaying the acquisition of the school language); 4. English and other semiotic resources (lack of interest in the use of gestures and pictures by teachers and learners); 5. Affective functions (disregarding the emotional effects of valuing L1 in pupils’ wellbeing); 6. Effort (extra efforts for teachers and slow process of translanguaging); 7. Confusion (for both learners and teachers in case of inappropriate engagement). The researchers believed that addressing these challenges can build into more successful implementation of translanguaging pedagogy and connecting theory into well-planned practice. In another similar study, Omidire & Ayob (2020) observed and interviewed 3 teachers in two different schools teaching 162 learners in grades 5 and 6 to explore the enablers and constraints of the implementation of translanguaging pedagogy. Through the thematic analysis, they concluded that ‘a non-threatening and safe environment, teachers’ positive attitude, the accessibility of the translated materials and the learners’ sense of pride due to acknowledgment and use of their home languages during lessons’ (p.105) facilitate

engaging in translanguaging. On the contrary, ‘inadequate resources, limited lesson time, the complexity of some of the home languages, limited experience of the teachers using a multilingual approach and existing socio-economic factors’ (p. 105) can impede teachers to initiate translanguaging. Likewise, using Sapolsky's (2003) language policy framework to investigate into the current UK's socio-political ideology around refugees and its implications for teachers' practice, Avery (2021) spent nine months observing teacher-student interactions. He realised that teachers' personal ideologies compared to what the government and the social media convey are distinctively more influential on their pedagogic practices, beliefs, and decisions they make in their classrooms. Avery also found a positive correlation between students' attitudes to assimilating to school and teachers' choice of pedagogic practice. It seems that more translanguaging spaces are provided by teachers when learners are more enthusiastic about learning. He also reports on the absence of home languages in school where almost always only English is used. He calls for encouraging school staff to act more in line with the dynamic bilingualism nature of bilinguals' languaging and identity. Davy and French (2018) also observed two high schools in Auckland, New Zealand, and Adelaide, Australia where the linguistic landscape is highly diverse, with respectively 58.3 and 49 percent of emergent bilinguals. In their two-year project, they collected data through class observation, interviews, and reflexive journal entries of students. The findings revealed that teachers' reaction to pupils' plurilingualism varies greatly. ‘Some reject it, some passively accept it, and some actively engage in it’. They also witnessed that English is the only medium of instruction, and a monoglossic mindset is dominant. In another study based on observation, Iversen (2020) recruited 24 young pre-service Norwegian teachers and formed seven focus groups, and observed four classrooms for one week of their field placement to explore their

attitudes and practice during their placement in multilingual schools. The findings demonstrated that the teachers are well able to ‘capitalise on their own as well as their students’ linguistic repertoires’ but only in an unplanned manner. The researcher reported that ‘they spontaneously drew upon their own and their students’ linguistic repertoires via translanguaging’, therefore, this spontaneous translanguaging should be recognised and be put ‘into a comprehensive translanguaging pedagogy’ so that teachers have the chance to use this valuable potential and to be educated in order to engage in translanguaging in a more planned way in their lessons to provide more inclusive education for every pupil. Another research in Spain has reported the same finding. Through written reflection and focus group discussion, Birello, Llompart-Esbert, & Moore (2021) recruited 70 multilingual young (20-25) student teachers to investigate why these participants who generally have positive perspectives towards multilingualism change their ideas when faced with multilingualism in their potential future classroom. They find themselves under-trained and helpless and incapable of teaching a linguistically diverse classroom. Therefore, Birello et al. call for better teacher education to prepare pre-service teachers more professionally so that they can create stronger connections between theory and practice. Introducing two models of bilingual education, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and British Schools Overseas (BSO) in Spain, O’Callaghan (2021) argues for the success of the good practice in these two models. By observing and interviewing teachers in both contexts, she found satisfactory teaching practices without any training on translanguaging pedagogy. The findings revealed that in both contexts, pupils’ progress in language and content is supported by ‘visual learning, differentiated speech, drawing on prior knowledge, assessment for learning, verbal correction, focus on feedback, key vocabulary, and scaffolded learning’. she then calls for a “shared

platform” for teachers in both settings to share their expertise and interact to increase their effectiveness, and professional development courses for teachers in scaffolding their bilingual learners learning.

Many other studies have been conducted to shed light on the effectiveness of teacher training programmes to encourage teachers to engage in more inclusive teaching practices. Gorter & Arocena (2020) conducted a study in which 127 in-service teachers were provided with a professional development training course about current views on multilingualism. The findings made it clear that the course changed teachers’ beliefs about multilingualism and translanguaging. Four days of lectures by international specialists, debates, practical workshops, and reflecting on theoretical ideas for seven weeks created a rich course presented to the teachers. Questionnaires on beliefs about multilingualism and translanguaging were filled in by teachers three times during the course to picture the potential changes. The findings proved that informing teachers about the body of research and scholarship which exist in the field of bilingual education can help change practitioners’ monolingual beliefs. In another study, Lorenz & Torgersen (2021) reported on the effect of ‘professional development and teacher beliefs and practices in linguistically heterogeneous EAL classrooms’. Three Norwegian primary school teachers participated in a professional development course and through structured classroom observations and semi-structured interviews, their ideas were analysed. The longitudinal findings suggested that the teachers were in favour of translanguaging pedagogy, but “they tended to persist in monolingual teaching practices, did not acknowledge linguistic and cultural diversity in the classroom, and failed to employ multilingual teaching strategies systematically”. In another study, Lundberg (2019) utilised a mixed Q method for the analysis of the data he collected through interviewing 40 teacher

participants. The results revealed that the teachers 'are rather welcoming towards multilingualism and multilingual students', however, implementing translanguaging seems to be a threat to their monoglossic ideology.

Many experimental studies have pictured the higher rates of academic attainment of bilingual students in schools. Tigert et al. (2020) reported on the positive effects of translanguaging in increasing the interactions of bilinguals in an elementary school while students were involved in reading storybooks to improve their literacy. They created a peer tutoring literacy program to examine learners'-initiated interactions (called 'big buddies' from grade 4 and 'little buddies' from kindergarten with the same home language) through translanguaging; in contrast to teacher-initiated interactions. They explored how and for what purposes translanguaging emerged and identified 'five major functions of translanguaging in peer-peer dialogues' as (p.71): negotiating content, clarifying language, checking for understanding, task management, and building relationships. Beres (2015) proved the effectiveness of translanguaging practices through neuroscientific experiments on bilinguals' brains through scientific testing. She believes that 'So far, insights into the potential benefits of this method have been exclusively qualitative', and she tries to 'quantify the benefits of translanguaging for new knowledge acquisition Comparing pupils'. She found 'neuroscientific evidence for facilitated access to existing semantic representations for items used in learning mediated by translanguaging' while compared to items which were not presented bilingually, and were only taught in a monolingual learning context'.

Some other researchers have tried to provide frameworks to assist practitioners and walk them through this new practice. In the light of a review study, Zheng (2021) thematically analysed 22 studies on how translanguaging practices can be embedded in

classrooms to support bilinguals' learning, and explored 'what strategies comprise pedagogical translanguaging, how the strategies serve different teaching aims, and how they are used in relation to students in different education phases'. By introducing a comprehensive framework, Zheng distinguishes between explicit and explicit translanguaging strategies; and reports that 'across all of these strategies, vocabulary acquisition was identified as the most common teaching aim'. He hopes practitioners and curriculum designers utilise the proposed framework as a practical guide for the effective implementation of translanguaging pedagogy to 'facilitate the decolonisation of the curriculum and promote educational equity for all students'. Working in an international school in China, Huckle (2021) reported on a translanguaging framework he created to respect the language rights of pupils. With the help of the proposed framework, bilingual pupils could choose when and where they want to use the languages they know. This 'teacher and student-friendly' framework was prepared as a poster in the classrooms with 'a continuum of five language modes'. The modes were five different situations ranging from 'English', 'English and some other languages', 'English and other languages', 'Other languages than English', to 'Any languages'. Teachers and learners could choose one mode they believe is the most effective for every task at hand. Huckle believes that the 'intentional decisions in the language mode would enable, encourage, and allow translanguaging'.

4. Research Contributions

Translanguaging pedagogy as a popular, yet controversial term in dynamic bilingualism is advocating for the recognition and acceptance of the reality and normality of the unitary and fluid language practices of bilingual students in classrooms taught in dominant languages. Therefore, its widespread application requires more research-based evidence to

prove its effectiveness. Apart from research about the successful application of classroom practices which can be scientifically attributed to translanguaging practices, more research on the relationship between the degree of teachers' language mindset in terms of being dominantly monoglossic or heteroglossic, and its relationship with teacher familiarity and the willingness in the use of translanguaging is missing and much needed. Therefore, by relying on the potential findings of the present study, the researcher could advocate for the contemporary critical movement in bilingual education, help raise awareness toward the importance of adopting a heteroglossic mindset in education, take a step forward and advocate for a curriculum change in teacher training courses to include a section on how to take advantage of pupils' multilingualism through translanguaging to help them become better learners, feel more empowered and belonged, without the need to suppress their home language. However, the study is limited to 15 schoolteachers, therefore, there is no intention to claim that the results are representative of all primary schoolteachers.

5. Research questions

In order to investigate the existence of a relationship between teachers' language mindset and their familiarity with, and the use of translanguaging practices, the following research questions were set out to be investigated:

1. Is the schoolteachers' language mindset more heteroglossic or monoglossic?
2. What are the schoolteachers' views around translanguaging pedagogy?
3. What are the schoolteachers' challenges and strategies in implementing translanguaging practices?

by evaluating teachers' language mindset, and informing them of the values of inclusive translanguaging pedagogy, the findings can make a great contribution not only to bilingual education; but also, to a more liberal society.

6. Conclusion

This chapter aimed to picture a clear picture of the developments in bilingualism scholarship. Key concepts, influential scholars, and relevant empirical studies were presented. The next chapter demonstrates the methodological details of the present research and provides information on how the project was conducted.

Chapter 2: Methodology

1. Introduction

This chapter aims to explain the journey this research took, in order to shed light on the research questions. As the research instrument utilised in the present research is an online questionnaire, therefore a comprehensive explanation of the rationale behind the questionnaire's design, the participants who were recruited to respond to it, the ethical considerations taken into account prior to the data collection, and the approach used for the analysis of the data are all presented in this chapter.

2. Participants

Fifteen UK-based mainstream primary schoolteachers took part in this study. They were sampled based on convenience/opportunity sampling (Dornyei, 2007, p. 98) as they met the only necessary criteria for this research that is teaching in a mainstream school in the UK. They filled out an online questionnaire emailed to them. The mean age of participants is 45 years, and 87% of them have more than 10 years of teaching experience. They are all English native speakers, and have university qualifications (PGCE) from either a university in Liverpool or Manchester. The teaching qualifications were obtained on average 12 years ago with the earliest in 1997 and the latest in 2017. 13% of the participants are currently teaching keystage 1, that is grades 1 and 2 in a primary school setting, and 87% of them are keystage 2 teachers, which represents grades 3 to 6. 87% of the participants are monolingual and 13% are bilingual. The additional languages that were mentioned were Spanish, French, Urdu, and Patios all at a very basic level. As the researcher did not find a relationship between this information and the responses provided in quantitative and qualitative sections of the

questionnaire during the analysis of the data, therefore, the study will not provide further analysis of this background information.

3. Recruitment Method and Ethical Consideration

For recruiting participants, first, the school's headteacher was contacted by email. The school was chosen based on having a high number of emergent bilinguals. Therefore, teachers have plenty of experience teaching classes with emergent bilinguals and have been faced with the challenges this might cause to their practice. The headteacher received the project information sheet and the participant's advertisement through email and was informed about the project. After considering them, he approved the school to be used as the research site and expressed his agreement for the researcher to proceed by responding to the researcher's email. The gatekeeper's email was then used in filling the online ethics application form. After receiving the ethics approval, the headteacher was asked to send the project information sheet and the participant's advertisement to the teachers. The teachers read the information on the project information sheet and the participant's advertisement and those who were interested in taking part in the project contacted the researcher by email and expressed their willingness to participate. Before taking part, they had the opportunity to ask any questions they had about the project. The researcher then sent the consent form to the teachers. The consent forms needed to be read, dated, signed, and returned to the researcher via email to be kept in the university's password-protected M Drive. Then, the link to the online questionnaire was emailed to teachers to be completed online as soon as convenient. They were assured that the data is collected and will be reported completely anonymously. They were also instructed on the general layout and the sections of the questionnaire and how they are expected to

complete it. They were told that there is no wrong or right answer, and they were encouraged to express their ideas honestly.

4. Research Design

As mentioned in this chapter's introduction, the research instrument employed in this research was an online questionnaire which was designed in three sections using Microsoft Forms. As Mackey and Gass (2016, p.102) stated, questionnaires are "one of the most common methods of collecting data on attitudes and opinions". The questionnaire was particularly designed for this research by the researcher because using a pre-existing questionnaire was not beneficial for finding the answers to this project's research questions. In total, eighteen questions were developed in three sections. The first section was inspired by a framework proposed by Meier (2017). The proposed framework is called 'a framework for reflection' because the potential answers participants provide for each question can reflect their beliefs about the questions and it can determine the participants' language ideology and mindset. The framework was developed by Meier's review study (2017) that investigated 21 chapters in two books with 'the multilingual turn' in their title written at the same time, but independently, in two different parts of the world_ The UK and New Zealand_ in 2014. Meier claimed that 'the field has developed a new turn in recent years' (p.132) which is a 'part of a critical movement in education that problematises knowledge and power relations that are at play in education and societies more widely'. Meier's main argument is that the new multilingual turn is a rejection of the traditional monoglossic view and advocates for the dynamic, critical, and inclusive version of bilingualism. There are two opposing columns in the framework. The column on 'the left-hand side is loosely guided by traditional, monolingual assumptions, and the right-hand side is guided by critical, multilingual

assumptions' (Meier 2017, p.154); therefore, the researcher decided to use it for finding the answer to the first research question that delves into teachers' views toward bilingualism to determine, on average, which extreme end of the continuum (heteroglossic or monoglossic ideology), typical UK mainstream teachers' mindset is closer to, based on the items they choose. Presumably, if a participant chooses more items from the left column (monoglossic mindset) then he/she has a monoglossic view of bilingualism and vice versa. The first five questions in section one and their two (original) opposing columns are presented below. In the Questionnaire, the items were not presented as pairs with opposing items, in order to avoid affecting the participants' judgment. The participants were asked to tick different boxes without any limit to the number of responses.

Languages are understood as...

Stable	<i>and/or</i>	dynamic
standard languages		consisting of language varieties
territorial		de-territorialised
owned by native speakers		owned by users
neutral		being associated with power
having equal status		hierarchical
linguistic systems		a social practice
separate systems		integrated complex systems

Multilingualism is ...

to be avoided	a desirable goal
seen as the exception	seen as a normal condition
seen as confusing for learners	seen as a cognitive advantage
seen as a problem for learning	seen as a resource for learning

Learners are/have...

empty vessels
categorised as native/ non-native
single, stable identities
language learner
homogenous backgrounds
in a monolingual context
need to acquire new knowledge

cognitively capable
empowered as (emergent) bi/multilingual
multiple, complex, dynamic identities
language users and social practitioners
diverse linguistic and life biographies
in a multilingual world
diverse funds of knowledge

Learning is (based on) ...

stimulus, response, habit formation
a monolingual cognitive activity
an individual activity
studying one language at the time
separate from the environment
a near-native speaker goal
a monolingual context
discipline specific
teacher guided
predictable
an intralingual/monolingual activity

multilingual language socialisation
a multilingual cognitive activity
a social practice
complex linguistic repertoires
part of a complex eco-system
a bi/multilingual goal
a multilingual context
cross-curricular
autonomous, democratic developing
unpredictable
a cross lingual/multilingual activity

Teachers...

are language knowers
enforce monolingualism
disseminate knowledge
focus on language learning
pay little attention to local context
are categorised as native/non-native
Act as monolingual role models
Have power

are language learners
encourage judicious multilingualism
facilitate language use
focus on the whole person in society
are sensitive to local context
are empowered as bi/multilingual
act as multilingual role models
share power

As mentioned, the items are not presented as opposing pairs in the questionnaire, as they are in the original framework to avoid affecting the participants' judgment. Most of the pairs are semantically distinctive enough to be representative of a person's mindset without its opposing pair, such as the clear distinction between languages being understood as 'stable' or 'dynamic'. But few pairs' distinctive nature is only available if they are presented as opposing pairs, therefore they were excluded from the questionnaire to make sure the existing items can properly reflect the participants' language mindset. For instance, languages are understood as... 'linguistic systems'/ 'a social practice'; learners are ... 'language learners'/ 'language users'. The final version of the pairs used in the questionnaire is available in the appendix A.

The second section of the questionnaire collected qualitative data by providing five open-ended questions for the participants to type their responses to them. Qualitative research 'refers to research that is based on descriptive data that does not make (regular) use of statistical procedures' (Mackey & Gass, 2016, p. 215). The questions aimed to explore teachers' practices, challenges, and strategies toward translanguaging in more depth and clarity. To make the questionnaire's content accessible to every participant, a paragraph describing translanguaging pedagogy and some translanguaging practices were provided at the beginning of the questionnaire. Through the open-ended questions in this section, the teachers had the opportunity to express their views in more depth as this would provide a more reliable analysis by the researcher, because the mixed method approach in designing the questionnaire would 'provide a far greater richness than fully quantitative data' (Dörnyei, p. 107). As Dörnyei (2007) stated mixed method 'involves the collection or analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data in a single way with some attempts to integrate the

approaches at one or more stages of the research process (p. 163). Similarly, Mertens (2005) recognizes that ‘using mixed methods is of utmost importance when we are collecting data about social and educational settings which are complex by nature’ (as cited in Dörnyei 2007, p.164). The open-ended questions asked teachers whether they believe translanguaging pedagogy is useful and necessary or not, whether they believe teachers need to be informed about them in their teacher training programmes, and finally some of their challenges around their pupils’ bilingualism and the translanguaging strategies to face those challenges. To analyse the responses, a thematic analysis of the data was utilised which will be explained in the next section. The third section of the questionnaire was designed to collect some general, relevant background information about the participant such as age, being monolingual or bilingual, other languages, they speak, having English as an L1 or L2, teaching experience, year group currently teaching (keystage 1 /2), year and place of obtaining their teaching qualification respectively. A summary of the organisation of the questionnaire is available in appendix B.

5. Data Analysis

The participants’ responses to the quantitative part of data collection in the questionnaire were statistically analysed using the built-in analytics in MS Forms which helps evaluate responses; and easily allows the results to be exported to Excel for additional analysis. For the qualitative section of the questionnaire, a thematic analysis seemed necessary because as Braun and Clarke (2006, p.79) argue it is ‘a foundational method for qualitative analysis’ (p.78). They describe thematic analysis as ‘a flexible and accessible process of identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data’. The approach taken for this thematic analysis was a deductive one; because the open-ended questions act as

‘preconceived concepts or ideas based on existing knowledge or theory which direct coding and theme development’ (p. 83). It can also be classified as the semantic approach, because during the coding and theme development, the content of the data was explicitly reflected, and it did not require implicit data interpretation. Six steps that researchers must follow for successful thematic analysis are provided by Braun and Clarke (2006). They argue that one should not expect ‘a linear process of simply moving from one phase to the next. Instead, it is a more recursive process, where movement is back and forth as needed’ (p.86). Their suggested phases involve

‘familiarising ourselves with the data, generating initial codes as the units of analysis, searching for themes by combining the codes into overarching themes, reviewing themes, defining and naming themes, and producing the final report’ (p.79).

As mentioned earlier, there are five open-ended questions in the second section of the questionnaire. To begin with the suggested phases and in order to familiarise myself with the data, responses were printed and read through to grasp ‘a general sense of the data’ (Dornyei, 2007, p. 251). Then, the comments containing relevant information regarding the research questions were highlighted in the responses provided for every question and ‘informative labels’ (2007, p.251) were created based on them for initial coding (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p. 88). As codes are broader and more general than themes, a list of codes was created to be narrowed down to themes in the next stage. For instance, initially, the following comments were among the response to the necessity of translanguaging pedagogy for teachers:

- *I think to some degree yes, [it is necessary for teachers to know about translanguaging pedagogy.*
- *Definitely, because*
- *Absolutely, it is important to*
- *[it] can be [necessary] depending on context.*

These extracts, then, were placed under the main theme called ‘the importance’ comprising of two sub-themes called ‘yes’ and ‘maybe’

Initial themes and sub-themes

The importance	numbers
yes	13
maybe	2

Figure 5: Initial themes and sub-themes table

After categorising the initial codes into initial themes and sub-themes for the rest of the data, an ‘initial thematic table’ emerged. The initial thematic table and the revised final version are available in the appendixes C and D.

As the figure 5 shows the initial version of the analysis, during the next phase, this initial thematic table was reviewed and revised. In order to make sure there is a ‘coherent pattern’ between the themes and the sub-themes, all the data was re-read. The researcher decided to make some changes for instance,

- ‘Pre-teaching of vocabulary’ sub-theme was excluded because there was not enough data to support’ it. (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p. 91)
- ‘Providing better teaching practice’ sub-theme and ‘Proving support for teachers’ sub-theme collapsed to form a single sub-them.

In the next phase, as it is suggested by Braun and Clarke (2006, p.92) the sub-themes were redefined and renamed to fully and properly express ‘the essence of what each theme is about’. The changes are reflected in the main thematic table below (available in the next chapter and appendix D) to ascertain that ‘the thematic table accurately reflects the meanings evident in the data set as a whole’ (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p.91).

Themes and sub-themes

The necessity and importance	Number of mentions
sure	13
sceptical	2

Figure 6: Themes and sub-themes table

In the final phase of the thematic analysis, which is writing and reporting the findings, the researcher tried to ‘provides a concise, coherent, logical, non-repetitive and interesting account of the story the data within and across themes’ (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p.93), which will be presented in the next chapter.

6. Conclusion

In this chapter, the methodology of the present research was described. The qualitative and quantitative sections of the questionnaire were presented and the benefits of using mixed methods for the data collection were discussed. The research questions, data collection instrument, data analysis process, ethical considerations, and limitations faced by the researcher were also illustrated. The results and discussions around the findings will be presented in chapter 3.

Chapter 3: Results and Discussion

1. Introduction

This chapter aims to analyse, describe and discuss the data which was collected through the online questionnaire. To report the data coherently, the findings will be presented in order of the research questions. Therefore, apart from this introduction and the conclusion, there will be three main sections based on three research questions in this chapter. For the second section, which is the qualitative part of the questionnaire, the data will be presented based on the themes identified. The chapter will be concluded with a concise conclusion.

2. Research Question 1

- **Is the schoolteachers' language mindset more monoglossic or heteroglossic?**

As mentioned in chapter 2 section 4, the first part of the questionnaire was adapted and developed to address the first research question. This section, which was inspired by 'The framework for reflection' by Meier (2017), is comprised of five main questions with a list of possible answers for each question. It is believed that the chosen answers can determine the participants' language mindset. Each question can particularly picture each participant's attitude towards 'languages', 'multilingualism', 'learners', 'learning', and 'teachers' respectively; however, the participant's overall responses can arguably be a representative of their language mindset, and their overall tendency toward either monoglossic or heteroglossic language ideology. The table below presents the mean value for the participants' responses to the first section of the questionnaire. To calculate the mean, each participant's responses were categorised into two columns of monoglossic and heteroglossic views. The chosen items for each column were counted and the mean was calculated based on the total number of chosen items. For

instance, participant 14 had chosen 45 items out of 76 items available in section one; while 34 out of 45 belonged to the heteroglossic column and 11 out of 45 to the monoglossic column. Thus, on average 75% of this participant's responses represent a heteroglossic mindset and 25% of the responses are concerned with the monoglossic view. Therefore, arguably, participant 14's dominant language ideology is heteroglossic.

Participant number	Heteroglossic view	Monoglossic view
1	83%	16%
2	53%	47%
3	77%	23%
4	69%	32%
5	72%	28%
6	60%	40%
7	65%	35%
8	91%	9%
9	88%	12%
10	70%	30%
11	85%	15%
12	100%	0%
13	54%	46%
14	75%	25%
15	100%	0%
Mean value for 15 participants	75%	25%

Figure 7: Participants' language mindset table

As the table summarises and the pie chart below suggests 75% of the participants' language mindset reflects a heteroglossic language mindset and only 25% of the participants' dominant language mindset represents a monoglossic view toward bilingualism.

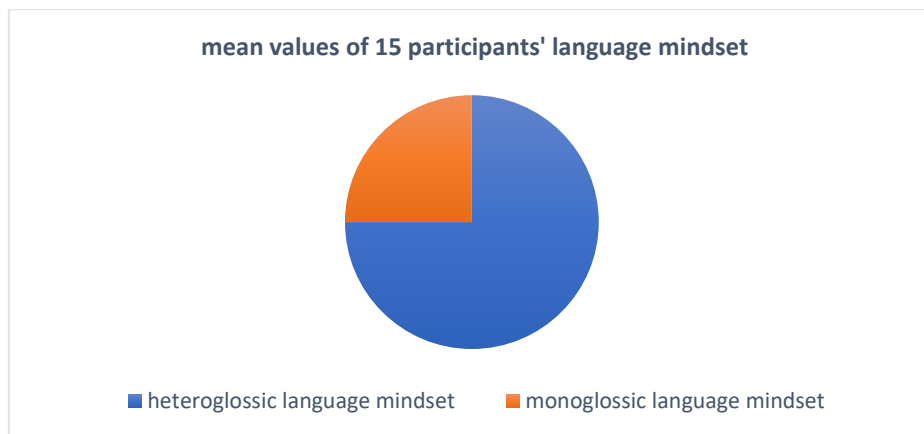


Figure 8: participants' language mindset pie chart

Regarding the first question in this section which is about the definition of ‘languages’, as figure 9 shows, the first three most recurring items are languages are understood as ‘a social practice’, ‘consisting of language varieties’, and ‘integrated complex systems’ with being chosen by 11, 9, and 8 participants respectively. All these three items are associated with having a heteroglossic mindset. However, the three least recurring descriptions chosen by the participants are the items describing languages as ‘neutral’, ‘separate systems’, and ‘stable’ with 2, 1, and 0 mentions; all reflecting a monoglossic language mindset.

Languages are understood as.....

Heteroglossic items	Number of mentions	Monoglossic items	Number of mentions
a social practice	11	linguistic systems	7
consisting of language varieties	9	standard languages	6
integrated complex systems	8	separate systems	1
owned by users	7	owned by native speakers	5
de-territorialised	3	territorial	4
being associated with power	5	neutral	2
dynamic	5	stable	0

Figure 9: Participants’ responses to ‘Languages’

The second question in this section seeks participants’ ideas about ‘multilingualism’.

Similar to the first question, most of the participants’ responses are in line with the heteroglossic view of language with perceiving multilingualism ‘as a desired goal’, ‘as a cognitive advantage’, and ‘as a recourse for learning’ with respectively 13, 12, and 10 participants choosing them.

Interestingly, the three least chosen responses belong to the monoglossic view that considers multilingualism to be ‘as confusing for learners’, ‘a problem for learning’, and something ‘to be avoided’ with only 2, 1, and 0 participants choosing them.

Multilingualism is

Heteroglossic items	Number of mentions	Monoglossic items	Number of mentions
a desirable goal	13	to be avoided	0
seen as a cognitive advantage	12	seen as confusing for learners	2
seen as a resource for learning	10	seen as a problem for learning	1
seen as a normal condition	4	seen as the exception	4

Figure 10: Participants’ responses to ‘Multilingualism’

The third question investigates teachers' views about learners. As figure 11 depicts, while through a heteroglossic lens, most teachers (10 participants) considered learners as 'cognitively capable', and 'in a multilingual world', none of them believed that learners are 'empty vessels' or 'have single, stable identities' rendering most of the participants' responses in line with the heteroglossic view.

Learners are/have

Heteroglossic items	Number of mentions	Monoglossic items	Number of mentions
cognitively capable	10	empty vessels	0
in a multilingual world	10	in a monolingual context	1
multiple, complex, dynamic identities	7	single, stable identities	0
diverse linguistic and life biographies	8	homogenous backgrounds	7
empowered as (emergent) bi/multilinguals	5	categorised as native speakers/non-native speakers	5

Figure 11: Participants' responses to 'Learners'

As the fourth question asks about participants' views about 'learning', 11 participants believed learning to be 'cross-curricular' and 9 teachers considered learning as being 'unpredictable', and none of the teachers believed learning to be 'predictable' or to happen 'in a monolingual context' with items belonging to heteroglossic mindset on the lead.

Learning is (based on) ...

Heteroglossic items	Number of mentions	Monoglossic items	Number of mentions
cross-curricular	11	discipline specific	2
unpredictable	9	predictable	0
a social practice	8	an individual activity	2
a multilingual cognitive activity	8	a monolingual cognitive activity	1
A cross-lingual/multilingual activity	8	an intralingual/monolingual activity	1
bi/multilingual goal	7	a near-native speaker goal	2
a multilingual context	7	a monolingual context	2
multilingual language socialisation	6	stimulus, response, habit formation	4
developing complex linguistic repertoires	5	studying one language at the time	1
part of a complex eco-system	5	separate from the environment	1
bi/multilingual goal	7	a near-native speaker goal	2

Figure 12: Participants' responses to 'Learning'

Finally, similar to the results in the previous parts of this section, the heteroglossic mindset outweighed that of the monolingual with 74% of the participants asserting that teachers ‘facilitate language use’, and only 13% suggesting that teachers ‘enforce monolingualism’ or ‘pay little attention to local context’ which can be attributed to having monolingual language ideology.

Teachers are

Heteroglossic items	Number of mentions	Monoglossic items	Number of mentions
facilitate language use	12	disseminate knowledge	7
are sensitive to local context	8	pay little attention to local context	2
focus on whole person in society	8	focus on language learning	8
act as multilingual role models	8	enforce monolingualism	2
are empowered as (emergent) bi/multilinguals	6	are categorised as native speakers/non-native speakers	3
share power	6	have power	3
are language learners	9	are language knowers	6

Figure 13: Participants’ responses to ‘Teachers’

In summary, as stated in figure 7, not only did the overall mean for the responses across all five sub-sections reflect a dominant heteroglossic language mindset in the participants (75%), but also, the analysis of each five sub-section, similarly yielded in the same result. This finding is in line with Lundberg (2019) that delved into 40 teacher participants’ beliefs about multilingualism in Sweden’s primary schools which is summarised as

‘Overall, teachers’ beliefs are rather welcoming towards multilingualism and multilingual students and recent concepts with growing acceptance in literature, such as translanguaging, are well accepted. However, sceptical views, often based on monolingual ideologies are present and are likely to pose challenges for the implementation of pluralistic policies’ (2019, p. 266).

The findings in this section are also consistent with Garcia and Wei’s latest publication (2022) in which they try to clarify a misunderstanding about translanguaging. They argue that ‘translanguaging is often seen as simply the acknowledgment or use of multilingual students’

first language' (2022, p. 1). They explain that nowadays after nearly a decade of their book on translanguaging pedagogy (2014), 'teachers are now more aware than ever about the multilingualism of their students' (2022, p. 1). They think they are doing their best to acknowledge their 'students' multilingual capacities as a resource'. They add

'teachers have heard about translanguaging in professional development opportunities. They have read a few articles, consulted some websites, and even heard us speak. But they interpret translanguaging through the conceptual lenses about bilingualism and multilingualism that they have been taught in their teacher education curriculum' which is based on traditional additive bilingualism. (2022, p. 5)

Therefore, they claim that so far, in theory, teachers have gained a good understanding of the values of bilingualism, which is also matched with the results of the first section of the questionnaire where the dominant language mindset of the participants reflects being aware of the recent findings of bilingualism scholarship. However, as will be discussed in the next section, the theory does not always successfully translate into practice due to the misunderstandings and gaps of knowledge/ unfamiliarity that exist in teachers' perceptions about translanguaging, which is also reflected in the findings of the second section of the questionnaire, which will be discussed shortly. The findings are also consistent with Birello et al. (2021) who explored their participants (70 young multilingual student teachers) language ideology. They realised that the participants who generally had positive perspectives toward multilingualism changed their mindsets to negative when they faced multilingualism in their potential future classrooms. All the multilingual participants, being raised multilingually, considered it as an asset-based elite practice that they have experienced in their life. The primary reason was reported to be the participants finding themselves under-trained, helpless, and incapable of teaching a linguistically diverse classroom because the course has not prepared them enough to connect theory into practice. The other research arguably in line with the current analysis is by Lorenz & Torgersen

(2021) in which professional development courses changed ‘teacher beliefs and practices in linguistically heterogeneous EAL classrooms’; but in the long term the longitudinal findings revealed that although the teachers advocated for translanguaging pedagogy and enjoyed a heteroglossic view after the workshops, ‘they tended to persist in monolingual teaching practices, did not acknowledge linguistic and cultural diversity in the classroom, and failed to employ multilingual teaching strategies systematically’. The findings of all these studies mentioned here are also in line with the findings of the qualitative section of the present research, as will be discussed in the next section. In a nutshell, teachers with the most heteroglossic language mindset, will find it difficult to implement what they believe in, into practice for a variety of reasons; when teaching bilingual pupils in a linguistically diverse landscape.

3. Research question 2

- **What are the schoolteachers’ views around translanguaging pedagogy?**

The second section of the questionnaire comprises five questions. The first three questions in the questionnaire (questions 6, 7, and 8) were designed to delve into this research question.

The questionnaire items are as follow:

- ❖ Do you think translanguaging practices such as using dual-language resources or allowing students draft in their first language are useful? Why? / Why not?
- ❖ Do you think it is necessary for teachers to know about translanguaging practices? Why? / Why not?
- ❖ Do you think translanguaging pedagogy should be a part of teacher education programmes? Why? /why not?

After the thematic analysis of the collected data from these questions, two main themes were identified to analyse the data.

3.1 Theme 1: Necessity and importance

This theme is about the necessity and importance of translanguaging pedagogy which is comprised of two sub-themes of ‘sure’ and ‘sceptical’. This theme is presented in the following table and pie chart.

Necessity and importance	Number of mentions
sure	12
sceptical	3

TR: Translanguaging

Figure 14: Research question 2, Theme 1 table

The majority of the participants (80%) were sure that being informed about translanguaging pedagogy is useful and necessary for teachers. In response to the abovementioned questions, they asserted their opinion in a similar manner such as:

- *Yes, I have found it to be really useful and supportive to me and for the child.*
- *It would be incredibly useful in schools where many of the pupils are bi/multilingual.*
- *Absolutely, it is important to have a bank of strategies for use with children with EAL.*
- *Absolutely, working in a school with a large number of EAL would certainly make both of our lives easier if I was able to provide this provision.*

The extracts clearly indicate that these participants believe being familiar with translanguaging pedagogy is of utmost importance. However, three participants were not sure if translanguaging pedagogy is 100% useful/necessary, and in response to whether being informed about translanguaging is necessary/useful, they commented that

- *I think to some degree yes [it is necessary/useful].*
- *It can be useful depending on context.*
- *It depends on what and to whom you are teaching.*

These 3 participants were sceptical about the importance of translanguaging practices and expressed some challenges regarding this practice which will be discussed in another theme called ‘challenges’.

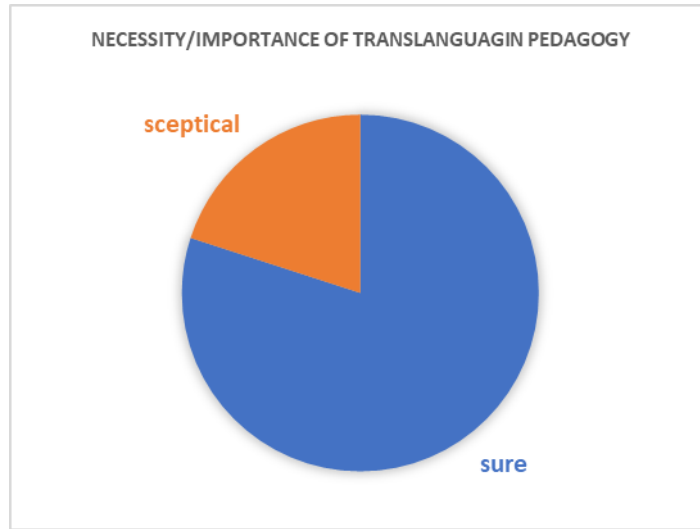


Figure 15: The mean value of participants' views about research question 2, theme 1

3.2 Theme 2: Reasons

The second theme regarding the second research question is concerned with the reasons expressed by the participants for the usefulness of translanguaging pedagogy. Four distinct sub-themes were identified.

Reasons	Number of mentions
Proving support for learners	14
Providing support for teachers	10
Increasing number of bilingual pupils	9
Valuing home languages	3

Figure 16: Research question 2, Theme 2 table

3.2.1 Proving support for learners

The most recurring sub-theme is the support translanguaging pedagogy can offer to learners with 14 participants (94%) mentioning it. Therefore, it seems that teachers prioritise learners' needs. The reasons teachers provided for the support the learners can benefit from through translanguaging practices can arguably be categorised into cognitive and/or affective support. For instance, when some participants stated that

- *'this [translanguaging practises/ being allowed to use L1] would give them the opportunity to showcase their abilities/talents without the pressure of worrying about writing in English'*
- *'This [translanguaging practices/ being allowed to use L1] will give students confidence'*.

they were indirectly mentioning the affective aspect of the support, as they were concerned with reducing the learners' anxiety. The support can also be identified as cognitive, for instance, when the teachers mention learners' progress, concentration, and a better process of information which they believe can be achieved through translanguaging, they are concerned with the cognitive aspect of the support. The following comments seem to be related to the cognitive support that translanguaging pedagogy can offer learners.

- *'This would enable them to progress at their own specific level'*.
- *'It can help them process information'*.
- *'It would have massive impact on learning'*.

Some comments cover both affective and cognitive aspects of the support, such as:

- *'It gives students the opportunity to concentrate on thoughts/content etc rather than worrying about language'*
- *'It can be beneficial for students, both academically and socially/ emotionally'*
- *'Yes. it would be good to learn how to deal with new challenges with new practices'*
- *'This supports learners when teachers proactively find ways to utilise the skills learners already have'*

Thus, the potential cognitive and/or affective support of translanguaging practices is rightly recognised by the participants.

3.2.2 Proving support for teachers

The second most recurring sub-theme reflects the support translanguaging pedagogy can offer the teachers. It was mentioned by 10 participants stating that:

- *‘Communities are changing and understanding the development of language is now a key skill for teachers’*
- *‘Yes, because it allows you to see what the pupils’ understanding of the subject is’*
- *‘It makes teachers aware of learners’ strengths and weaknesses in order to teach effectively’*

As figure 16 suggests, teachers’ primary reason for believing in the usefulness of the translanguaging pedagogy is rooted in the scaffolding nature of translanguaging pedagogy. This is in line with the initial aim behind translanguaging by Williams (1994) who introduced the practice of changing the language of input and output in Welsh in order to increase students’ academic achievements. Thus, the majority (94%) of the participants are aware of the support this practice can provide not only to learners but also to teachers. This is also reflected in as Sánchez, García & Solorza (2017) who argue that translanguaging pedagogy can have three purposes. First, the scaffold it offers to the learners, second, the support it provides for the teachers to understand what students really know and are capable to do, and finally the transformative nature it provides for subjectivities of inferiority. At this point, it seems beneficial to mention that the concept of scaffolding in translanguaging pedagogy is wider than its original definition by Vygotsky (1978) in which learning happens via social interaction with a skilful teacher through model behaviours and/or verbal instructions for the learner which is also referred to as cooperative or collaborative dialogue. The overarching scaffolding nature of translanguaging considers ‘translanguaging as a tool for learning and deep understanding’

(García et al. 2017: 29) which builds on any activity that builds on learners' use of their whole unitary linguistic knowledge to assist the learners in their learning.

3.2.3 increasing numbers of bilingual pupils

The third highly mentioned sub-theme is making a reference to the increasing number of immigrants and pupils with EAL. The following extracts were among them.

- *'With so many diverse, multicultural schools in inner city regions, and high rates of transient pupils, I believe translanguaging should be a part of teacher education'*
- *'As we have more children coming from other countries, and the general increase in EAL pupils, it would be good practice for teachers to understand this.es, because we have increasing number of bilingual children'*
- *'Yes, there is an increasing number of immigrants coming to England'*

Nearly more than half of the participants (60%) have rightly attributed the importance of translanguaging to the changes to the pupils' demography. Therefore, the increasing diversity in the pupils' population is recognised to be another reason why translanguaging pedagogy is important and they need to know about it. This comes from the existing reality in the globalised 21st century where the world is becoming increasingly multilingual, and the number of bilinguals outweighs that of monolinguals, as Baker & Wright (2021, p. 26) stated that 'between half and two-third of the world's population is bilingual'. Therefore, this sub-theme reflects the world which is truly recognised as a reason for the necessity of translanguaging to make education for pupils from diverse backgrounds.

3.2.4 Valuing home languages

Surprisingly, this sub-theme is the least recurring sub-theme, mentioned as a reason for the importance/usefulness of translanguaging pedagogy. Only three participants believed that using pupils' home languages at school is useful/important. They framed their views regarding this sub-theme as:

- *It gives the first language equal status as the language the lesson is being taught in. It allows the learners to know their first language is important.*
- *Languages spoken with family must be just as valued and important as the English speaking we do.*
- *This will give the students the confident that their home language matters.*

So far, this is the first contradictory finding; because based on the findings from the first section of the questionnaire, the majority of participants have a heteroglossic mindset and are sure about the importance and usefulness of translanguaging. However, only 20% of participants have found value in using home languages as a learning tool which is the essence of translanguaging pedagogy. The reason for this lies in the ‘unfamiliarity’ of the participants with the nature of translanguaging which will be discussed shortly.

All in all, the findings of this section with regards to the second research question, similar to section one, suggest that the participants generally (80%) feel positive about translanguaging, associate scaffolding values with it, and attribute its importance to the diverse linguistic landscape. However, as only 20 % of the participants considered the importance and usefulness of using home languages, there seems to be a lack of full understanding of the language decolonising nature of translanguaging. As mentioned in the previous section, Wei and Garcia (2022) aim to clarify two parts of translanguaging that they believe have ‘remain little understood’ and need more clarification (p.1). Once again, they highlight that ‘translanguaging is also intended as a decolonizing project’ (p.2); a project that seeks to lessen the monopoly of the dominant language in educational settings by showing that home languages are as valued and useful. However, based on the findings in this section, as reported by Wei and Garcia (2022), this purpose of translanguaging is ‘little understood’ and was only recognised by 3 participants. This is also in line with Read (2012) as he reports

about his research participants (student teachers) and expresses that ‘a trivial amount of attention was paid to the use of the mother tongue when considering effective pedagogy for bilingual learners’ as the student teachers participants made ‘little mention of first language use’ (p. 29). Read speculates that for student teachers, bilinguals’ learning English is a priority, ‘so opportunities to speak in English are prioritised over enhancing understanding through the first language’ (p.29).

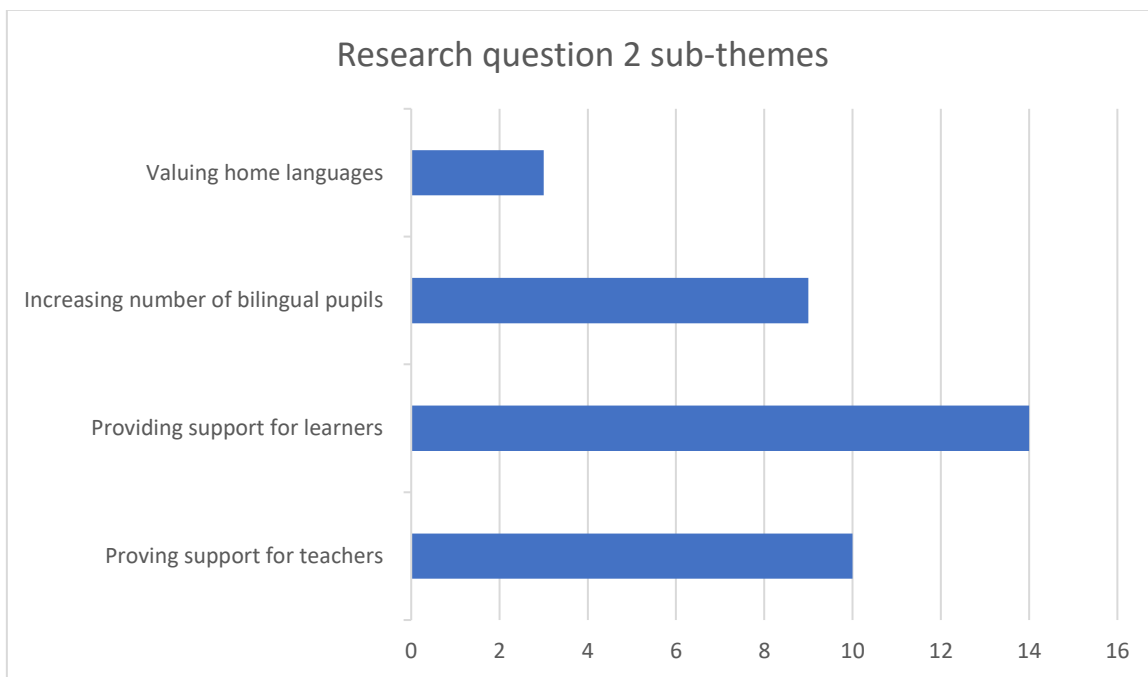


Figure 17: Research question 2, sub-themes bar chart

4. Research question 3

- **What are the schoolteachers’ challenges and strategies in implementing translanguaging practices in their teaching?**

As mentioned in the previous section, the second section of the questionnaire comprises five questions. The last two questions in the questionnaire (questions 9, and 10) were designed to investigate the third research question. The questions are listed below:

- ❖ what challenges do you often face attempting translanguaging practices in your classroom?
- ❖ What strategies do you usually implement while facing challenges in using translanguaging practices?

To remind the participants of what translanguaging is and help them provide better-informed answers; while developing the online questionnaire, a paragraph was added to the top of it. This explanatory paragraph stated that: ‘translanguaging pedagogy is the teaching practice by teachers in a planned and systematic way to make use of two languages in a lesson to allow the bilingual students to use their home language systematically to support their learning during lessons, ranging from allocating them buddies with the same first language to discuss topics, allowing the use of bilingual dictionaries, allowing them to do research, take notes, make notes, write initial drafts... in their first language’.

Based on the thematic analysis of the data collected in response to the questions in this section, two main themes and a variety of sub-themes were identified which will be discussed as follow.

4.1 Theme 1: Challenges

To explore the challenges that teachers face while attempting translanguaging practices, the following sub-themes were identified. The table and bar chart below reflect this theme and its sub-themes.

Challenges	Number of mentions
Language barrier	6
Over-reliance on translation apps	3
Lack resources	3
Lack of awareness	4

Figure 18: Research question 3, theme 1, sub-themes table

4.1.1 Language barrier

As figure 18 suggests, the highest number of mentions is concerned with ‘Language barrier’ as a challenge that teachers face while they try translanguaging as a teaching practice.

For instance, they commented that

- *I can struggle to understand students.*
- *It can be hard to communicate with a child with little to no English.*
- *They are not always able to express their feelings or problems they are having, because of the language barrier.*
- *When a child speaks no language that no other child or adult speaks, communication for rules and activities is difficult.*

These extracts reveal that for 60% of the participants, not being able to communicate with their students via English counts as their primary challenge while attempting translanguaging.

4.1.2 Over-reliance on translation apps

This sub-theme was mentioned by 3 participants. It seems that these participants were aware of the fact that using translation apps cannot always be the best strategy while having bilingual learners in their classroom, therefore, it is causing a challenge for them. They commented that

- *Pupils become reliant on translation which can hinder the acquisition of a new language as fewer attempts are made to immerse themselves in the English language.*
- *relying on google translate.*

However, no other strategy was mentioned by them to improve the teaching practices in response to the needs of bilingual pupils, arguably due to the participants ‘unfamiliarity’ with translanguaging pedagogy which will be discussed in more depth in the next section.

4.1.3 Lack of resources

Lack of time and staff were the items mentioned in this sub-theme by 30% of the participants. The challenges were expressed in the same way such as:

- *Time and staffing*

- *Not enough time to devote 1-1 language time to single children.*
- *Lack of additional staff.*

A very important point we need to bear in mind at this point is the extent to which these challenges can be attributed to translanguaging challenges. The challenges mentioned by the participants as ‘language barrier, over-reliance on translation apps, lack of resources’ seem to be **general challenges** teachers face while having pupils with EAL, not **translanguaging-specific challenges** which the question is trying to elicit. The participants find it difficult to communicate with pupils who have no or little English (as mentioned in extracts), and they do not have enough time or staff to exercise. These are ‘good practices for learners with EAL’ suggested by Ofsted or NALDIC. ‘Good practice for learners with EAL’ is a widely known guideline proposed by NALDIC and Ofsted to inform teachers about general and effective teaching practices teachers should utilise for teaching their pupils with EAL.

Ofsted (2001) recognises the following key features of good practice in EAL provision.

- ‘A recognition that the use of the first language will enhance understanding and support the development of English.
- enhanced opportunities for speaking and listening; effective models of spoken and written language;
- teaching that assists EAL learners to internalise and apply new subject-specific language
- teaching that recognises that more advanced learners of English need continuing support;
- clear targets in language and learning are identified and met;
- grouping strategies that recognise pupils’ learning and language development needs’

NALDIC (1999) distinguishes five key principles that represent good practice for learners with EAL.

- 'Activating prior knowledge as it makes teachers' input more comprehensible.
- Providing rich context using key visuals and graphics.
- Encouraging pupils for output production.
- Making learners aware of the 'form-function relationship'.
- Developing learners' independence and autonomy.' (NALDICS' working paper 5)

These guidelines, arguably, act as an umbrella term that involves translanguaging -in its basic purpose which is scaffolding and learning support- reflected in the first guideline by the Ofsted. This overgeneralisation by the participants, that is, mentioning 'the good practice for learners with EAL' instead of 'translanguaging-specific practices, can be attributed to teachers' unfamiliarity with translanguaging pedagogy as pointed out by Wei and Garcia (2022), Read (2012) and in Afitska (2020); because the challenges mentioned are not concerned with translanguaging in particular, but, in general, with challenges faced by teachers while trying to follow proposed effective practices with bilingual pupils. Therefore, it appears that the majority of the teachers have made an overgeneralisation and took translanguaging practices interchangeably with the proposed 'good practices for pupils with EAL'.

4.1.4 Lack of awareness

Interestingly, for this last sub-theme which represents a lack of awareness about translanguaging practices, the participants' responses were different, in nature, compared to the other challenges mentioned. In response to the challenges they experience, four participants affirmed that their challenges are:

- *My lack of knowledge.*

- *Not knowing what to do.*
- *Not sure [what to do]*
- *Basically, having little knowledge about it.*

These participants have admitted that they do not know how to apply translanguaging practices.

Contrary to the other sub-themes, this seems to be a challenge directly regarding translanguaging practices, not the challenges regarding ‘good EAL practice’, because they obviously are aware of the guidelines proposed by Ofsted and NALDIC, but not familiar with the translanguaging pedagogy, and they made a clear distinction between these, by saying they are not aware of the latter. The extracts reflect the basic challenge of not knowing how to translanguage, that is how to leverage home languages for learning, an honest representation of lack of familiarity with translanguaging.

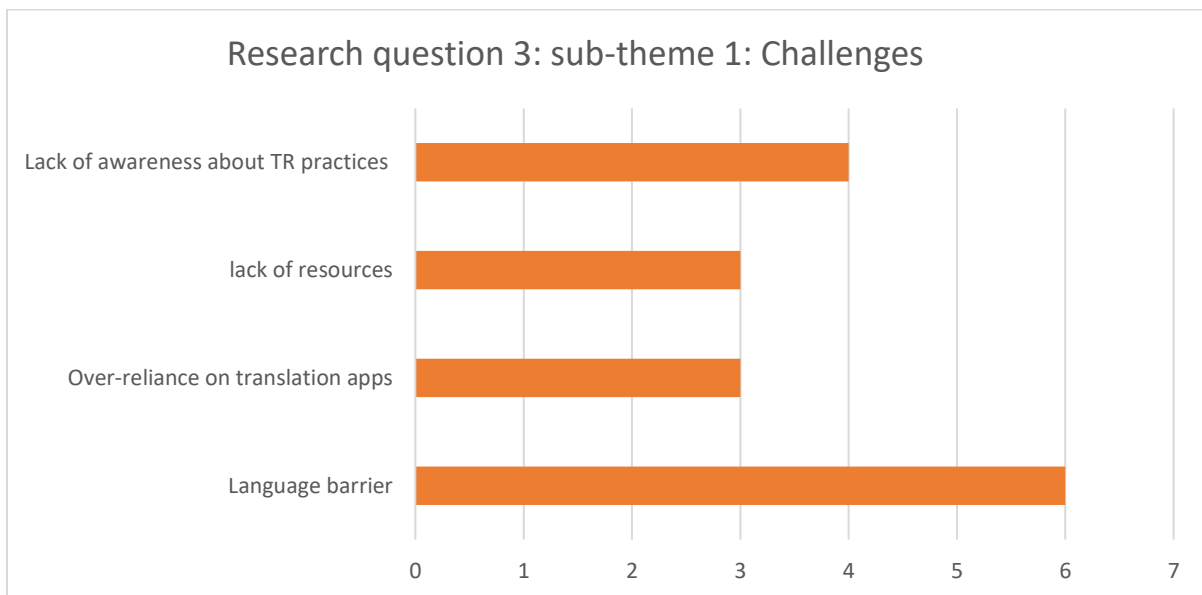


Figure 19: research question 3: sub-theme 1: Challenges' bar chart

From another perspective, all the sub-themes identified for this theme can be arguably categorised into two distinct levels. ‘Lack of resources’ can be arguably placed on an institutional level, where schools are responsible for providing them, and it seems to be beyond

the teachers' control to allocate extra staff and time for tackling this challenge; whereas the other three challenges can be seen on a more personal level, where the participants expressed their own difficulty in communicating with the learners, or taking advantage of translation support excessively, or their unfamiliarity with translanguaging pedagogy.

4.2 Theme 2: Strategies

The final theme is about the strategies teachers usually implement while facing challenges in attempting translanguaging practices. six sub-themes were identified.

Strategies	Number of mentions
Seeking help from staff/pupils with the same L1	8
Using translation apps	3
Using visual resources	2
Providing L1 support	2
Providing exposure to good English	2
None	2

Figure 20: Research question 3, theme 2, sub-themes table

4.2.1 Seeking help from staff/pupils with the same L1

Asking others to help to provide a bridge between the teacher and the learner was the most recurring response with 54% of participants identifying it as their translanguaging strategy. They asserted the following as the actions they take.

- *Ask children and families.*
- *Finding an adult or child that speaks the language.*
- *Ask other members of staff to translate.*
- *We are fortunate to have staff and pupils who speak the languages of most of international new arrivals.*

This seems to be the easiest and most effective strategy that participants take advantage of, as it helps to open the communication channel with pupils with no English, as well as to keep it open with those with a little English. This strategy seems to be in response to the challenges

with transanguaging practices that the participants mentioned in the previous sub-theme, that is to overcome the ‘Language barrier’.

4.2.2 Using visual resources

This sub-theme is mentioned in the guidelines proposed by NALDIC for the ‘good practice for pupils with EAL’ stating ‘Providing rich context using key visuals and graphics’.

The followings are some of the participants’ comments on their transanguaging strategies.

- *Using pictorial representations*
- *Using language cards and visual timetables with clear pictures; set on lanyard for both pupil and teacher*

Similar to the previous theme about the challenges with the transanguaging practices, it seems that the same overgeneralisation has occurred between the ‘good practice for pupils with EAL’ and transanguaging practices, and they are wrongly understood as the same practice. This can be attributed to the ‘unfamiliarity’ factor mentioned before, which will be discussed subsequently.

4.2.3 Providing exposure to good English

Regarding this sub-theme two participants mentioned that as a transanguaging practice they will provide:

- *As much exposure to correct language through talk from adult and children.*
- *A good native English speaker to share good English.*

This seems to reflect the second Ofsted guideline ‘Enhanced opportunities for speaking and listening; effective models of spoken and written language’, based on which teachers tend to allocate a native-speaker pupil to the bilingual learner to act as a language model and help

with the language learning. As mentioned earlier, this is clearly a general strategy for teachers with pupils with EAL and not a strategy specifically used while translanguaging.

4.2.4 Using translation apps

The other sub-theme, ‘using translation apps’, as a strategy that is mentioned by 20% of the participants seems to be a strategy to bridge the primary challenge of ‘Language barrier’ which was mentioned by more than half of the participants.

- *Using apps.*
- *Google Translate.*

This seems to be a digital version of the first sub-theme ‘Seeking help from staff/pupils with the same L1’ as in both, direct translation either through a person or a smart digital software helps communication and mutual understanding in case of a lack of shared language between the teachers and the learners, and the barrier attributed to language.

4.2.5 Providing L1 support

Ofsted’s first key feature of good practice in EAL provision states that what is necessary is ‘A recognition that the use of the first language will enhance understanding and support the development of English’. The following extracts seem to reflect this guideline.

- *Encourage the use of first language*
- *1:1 [one to one] sessions where the pupil can use their first language to support them in their work.*

However, no more information is provided as to how these strategies are practiced by the participants to use pupils’ L1 to enhance their learning.

4.2.6 None

When asked about the kind of strategies participants use when translanguaging, two participants stated:

- *None.*
- *None, I don't feel confident trying this practice. I need to know more about it.*

These comments seem to be true reflections of these participants' unfamiliarity with translanguaging strategies. The responses show that although these participants are familiar with the Ofsted and NALDIC's guidelines, they have recognised the distinction between those and the translanguaging practices they are asked about.

By way of conclusion, apart from the last sub-theme labelled 'Providing L1 support' mentioned by two participants, all the other five strategies mentioned in the other sub-themes tend to be general strategies by NALDIC and Ofsted for achieving the suggested 'good practice for pupils with EAL'. Translanguaging-specific strategies such as 'changing the language of input and output by allowing a part of the classwork or homework to be in bilinguals' home languages, providing spaces for bilinguals with the same first language to discuss topics, allowing the use of bilingual dictionaries throughout the lesson to provide support for a better understanding of the topic being taught, allowing bilingual students to do research about the topic being discussed in their L1, not limiting the language for taking/ making notes only to the school language, encouraging writing initial drafts of works and projects in L1, and many other planned or spontaneous translanguaging practices were not mentioned by the participants. This overgeneralisation can reflect the participants' unfamiliarity with translanguaging pedagogy as it was mentioned by four participants in section 4.2.6 about the challenges they experience around translanguaging.

Drawing on Afitska (2020), the strategies mentioned by the participants are type 2 scaffolding, while translanguaging strategies are type 3 and 4 scaffolding. Building on Vygotsky's theory of the zone of proximal development, Afitska (2020) proposed a 'framework for supporting the learning of English language learners in mainstream classrooms' (p.3). He

distinguishes between four types of scaffolding for learners. Type 1 is EAL non-specific mainstream good practice that targets all students (monolinguals and bilinguals). Type 2 is the EAL-specific support which is restricted to English including using ‘visuals and gestures, use of synonyms and repetition, use of glossaries and key terms, modeling of sentence starters, use of speaking frames and modeling of language samples, eliciting language from learners and encouraging longer utterances, practicing reciprocal reading, mixing ELLs with ENSs during group and peer work activities’ (p.4). Type 3 and 4 scaffolding practices encourage the use of home languages to enhance the learning of bilingual pupils respectively allowing some use of teacher-initiated use of L1, and unrestricted use of learner-initiated use of L1. He then argues that the last two methods are in line with translanguaging in the literature and will help the pupils with EAL to reach their ‘full educational potential’ (p.4).

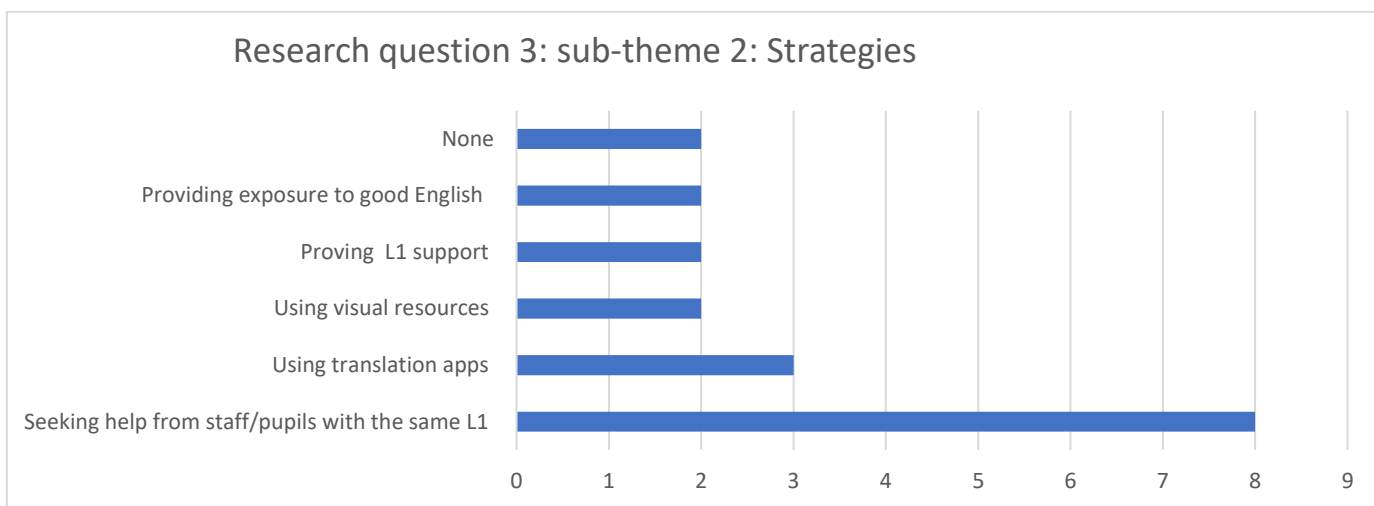


Figure 21: Research question 3: sub-theme 2: Strategies’ bar chart

A very interesting finding that emerged from the data is about two participants with a full degree of heteroglossic mindset. P12 and P15 both scored 100% in the first section of the questionnaire. They were among the four participants who reported their unfamiliarity with translanguaging practices. In response to the question, what challenges do you often face attempting translanguaging practices in your classroom? P12 replied: 'Not knowing what to do' and P15 commented: basically, having little knowledge about it. In response to What strategies do you usually implement while facing challenges in using translanguaging practices? P11 asserted '*none*' and P15 similarly affirmed '*none. I don't feel confident trying this practice. I need to know more about it*'. These responses seem to reflect the correct interpretation of the questions, that is a clear understanding of the distinction between the general guideline for 'good EAL practice' and translanguaging practices which are recognised to be new and different from the general 'good practice for EAL', yet they are unfamiliar with this new practice.

In short, similar to the previous section, regarding the second research question, the findings of this section in an attempt to answer the third research question tend to reflect 'teacher's limited understanding of translanguaging' (Wei and Garcia, 2022, p.6) resulting in only acknowledging pupils' bilingualism or misunderstanding it which leads to 'classroom practices [strategies] that do not in any way match the spirit of translanguaging work' (p. 5). This is also reflected in Afitska (2020) who argues that 'because teachers are inadequately informed about the benefits of (and trained in using) translanguaging for learning, they do not allow this method of learning support in their classrooms and feel uneasy about it' (p.22). This is also consistent with Read (2012). When he asked a group of teacher students to 'imagine a pupil with EAL and identify effective strategies to support their progress', none of the participants mentioned the use of the first language as an effective strategy, although it is suggested by

Ofsted. This is also reflected in Birello et al. (2021)'s findings in which the multilingual pre-service student teachers who commented positively about multilingualism as an asset-based elite practice they have experienced in their life changed their attitudes negatively in a teaching context, because of a lack of strategies, practices, knowledge, and confidence. Lorenz & Torgersen (2021)' participants similarly advocated for translanguaging pedagogy but 'failed to employ multilingual teaching strategies systematically'.

All in all, the 'unfamiliarity' with the implementation of a translanguaging pedagogy seems to be the main reason why teachers with heteroglossic language mindsets cannot translate what they believe into what they practice in their classroom. Therefore, there seems to be no relationship between having a heteroglossic language mindset and heteroglossic teaching practices. Therefore, one cannot necessarily expect an individual with a heteroglossic language ideology to act inclusively, pedagogy-wise.

5. Conclusion

This research aimed to explore the beliefs and practices of fifteen schoolteachers regarding bilingualism and translanguaging. Teachers' language mindset, their views about translanguaging in general, and their challenges and strategies regarding that, in particular, were investigated using a mixed-methods approach through an online questionnaire. The quantitative and qualitative sections facilitated the data collection to answer the research questions. The findings from the quantitative part demonstrated that on average, 75% of the participants' language mindset is classified as heteroglossic, and only 25% of monoglossic perspective was observed. This is a highly impressive amount of heteroglossic view in bilingual education which can be attributed to the increasing amount of research in the field of bilingualism and the schools

or individual teachers' interest to be informed about the recent findings. However, the qualitative section revealed that although the participants are welcoming and positive about the use of bilingual learners' home languages, their unfamiliarity with it makes its implementation difficult in practice. Overall, the majority (74%) of participants treated translanguaging as 'good practice for pupils with EAL' and used them interchangeably, and 26% recognised the difference and admitted that they are not familiar with translanguaging pedagogy, therefore, they cannot use it. Given the importance of teachers' practices in students' academic progress, and considering the findings of this research, it seems beneficial to educate teachers about the practical practices of translanguaging pedagogy. This can be accomplished through initial teacher education courses for pre-service context, and CPD courses for in-service teachers. These opportunities can help the novice as well as experienced teachers to proactively reflect on their teaching practices, address the shortcoming and challenges and develop their teaching strategies to make informed decisions to support their emergent bilingual pupils. As a new teaching practice, further research on the strategies and effectiveness of translanguaging is needed in order to encourage more and more practitioners to gain confidence and engage in translanguaging. As Fortune & Tedick (2019) argue immersion education with a monoglossic approach has proved to be successful at least in terms of educational attainment of bilingual students, but the effectiveness of translanguaging and heteroglossic approaches have not been fully proven through research-informed projects.

Future studies can focus on EFL context, pupils' age, proficiency level in both L1 and/or L2, and their effects on teachers' translanguaging. Another route of research can investigate influential factors that shape teachers' beliefs toward implementing translanguaging such as their ethnicity or their own schooling experience as a minority or being monolingual/bilingual.

A few factors can be held accountable for the limitations of the study. The research could benefit from a higher number of participants to collect more data to increase the generalisability of the study by having a bigger representative sample. In a less time-constrained situation, interviewing several teachers could reveal more insights about teachers' views. However, the qualitative open-ended section tried to address this limitation. There is also the assumption that although the responses are collected anonymously, participants might feel that if they express their genuine views about how they feel about certain ethnolinguistically diverse students, and consequently the way that ideology affects their teaching practices, it might cause them to lose face and be accused of not being inclusive enough. This might lead to not revealing their beliefs. To address this, the participants were informed several times, for instance in the project information sheet, the participant advertisement, and also in the consent form that the responses they provide are made anonymous and there is no way of being identified. Another limitation is relying on the participants' perceptions and not their actual teaching practices which needs longitudinal class observations and hours of interviews to make sure of. Despite these limitations, due to the short time span, this research has followed the most proper and rigorous methodology possible and hopes to successfully advocate for the current open debate about the values of translanguaging practices in bilingual education; and to highlight the need for translanguaging spaces for emergent bilinguals in order to provide equal educational opportunities for all pupils.

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Appendix A: The questionnaire

Teachers' views, challenges, and strategies toward bilingualism and translanguaging

Here, '*translanguaging*' refers to 'the planned and systematic use of two languages inside the same lesson' and therefore teaching practices employed by teachers to allow their bilingual students to use their home language systematically to support their learning during lessons, ranging from allocating them buddies with the same first language to discuss topics, allowing the use of bilingual dictionaries, allowing them to do research, take notes, make notes, write initial drafts... in their first language.

Please choose as many options as you believe describes the prompts given in the questions

1. Languages are understood as.....

hierarchical
de-territorialised
integrated complex systems
consisting of language varieties
stable
a social practice
having equal status
territorial
neutral
dynamic
owned by users
being associated with power
standard languages
owned by native speakers
separate systems
linguistic systems

2.Multilingualism is ...

to be avoided
seen as a cognitive advantage
seen as confusing for learners
seen as a resource for learning
seen as the exception
seen as a problem for learning
a desirable goal
seen as a normal condition

3.Learners are/have...

language learners
cognitively capable
empty vessels
a need to acquire new knowledge
single, stable identities
in a multilingual world
categorised as native speakers/non-native speakers
language users and social practitioners
diverse linguistic and life biographies
diverse funds of knowledge
multiple, complex, dynamic identities
empowered as (emergent) bi/multilinguals
in a monolingual context
homogenous backgrounds

4.Learning is (based on) ...

autonomous, democratic
separate from the environment
a cross-lingual/multilingual activity
a monolingual context
a monolingual cognitive activity
developing complex linguistic repertoires
studying one language at the time

cross-curricular
teacher guided
stimulus, response, habit formation
an individual activity
part of a complex eco-system
a multilingual context
unpredictable
a near-native speaker goal
bi/multilingual goal
a social practice
multilingual language socialisation
predictable
discipline specific
a multilingual cognitive activity
an intralingual/monolingual activity

5. Teachers

are language learners
are sensitive to local context
facilitate language use
are language knowers
share power
act as multilingual role models
encourage judicious multilingualism
have power
are categorised as native speakers/non-native speakers
are empowered as (emergent) bi/multilinguals
enforce monolingualism
disseminate knowledge
focus on whole person in society
focus on language learning
pay little attention to local context
act as monolingual role models

Section 2

6. Do you think translanguaging practices such as using dual-language resources or allowing students draft in their first language are useful? Why? / Why not?

7. Do you think it is necessary for teachers to know about translanguaging practices? Why? / Why not?

8. Do you think translanguaging pedagogy should be a part of teacher education programmes? Why? / why not?

9. What challenges do you often face attempting translanguaging practices in your classroom?

10. What strategies do you usually implement while facing challenges in using translanguaging practices?

Section 3 (*Background information*)

11.Age

20-25

25-30

30-35

35-40

40-45

45-50

I do not want to answer

12.linguistics status

Monolingual

bilingual

Multilingual

I do not want to answer

13.Other Languages I speak:

14.English is my first language

Yes

No

15.I am currently teaching

Key stage 1

Key stage 2

16.teaching experience

1 year

2 to 4 years

4 to 6 years

6 to 8 years

8 to 10 years

More than 10 years

I do not want to answer

17.I received my teaching qualification in (in terms of year)

18.I received my teaching qualification from (in terms of the training centre or university)

Appendix B: Organization of the questionnaire

Question number	Type of question	Data	Area of interest	Research questions
1_5	Multiple choice/close ended	quantitative	Teachers' dominant perspective on bilingualism	RQ 1
6_8	Open-ended	qualitative	Teachers' challenges around translanguaging pedagogy	RQ 2
9_10	Open-ended	qualitative	Teachers' strategies around translanguaging pedagogy	RQ 3
11_18	Both of the above	Background information	The effect of other variables	

Appendix C: The initial candidate thematic table

Themes and sub-themes

Necessity	Number of mentions
yes	13
It depends	2
Reasons	-
Because it helps teachers	10
Because it helps learners	13
Because it provides better teaching practice	8
Because the numbers of EAL is going up	9
home languages	3
Challenges	-
no understanding	6
no time	3
no staff	3
Too much translation apps	3
Not knowing	3
Strategies for TR	-
help from staff/pupils with the same L1	8
translation apps	3
visuals	2
Pre-teaching of vocabulary	1
L1 support	2
good English	2

TR: translanguaging

Appendix D: The thematic table

Themes and sub-themes

Necessity and importance of TR	Number of mentions
Sure	13
Sceptical	2
Reasons for usefulness of TR	-
Proving support for teachers	10
Providing support for learners	13
Increasing number of bilingual pupils	9
Valuing home languages	3
Challenges facing TR	-
Language barrier	6
Lack of resources	3
Over-reliance on translation apps	3
Lack of awareness about TR practices	3
Strategies for TR	-
Seeking help from staff/pupils with the same L1	8
Using translation apps	3
Using visual resources	2
Proving L1 support	2
Providing exposure to good English	2

TR: translanguaging